ACTIVE-PASSIVE VOICE SHIFT IN ENGLISH TRANSLATIONS OF A.SAMAD SAID’S SALINA

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**ACTIVE-PASSIVE VOICE SHIFT IN ENGLISH TRANSLATIONS OF A.SAMAD SAID’S SALINA**

Field of Study: **TRANSLATION STUDIES**

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Active-Passive Voice Shift in English Translations of A.Samad Said’s *Salina*

This study is aimed to investigate occurrences of active-passive voice shifts in three English translations of *Salina* (A.Samad Said) by Harry Aveling (1975), Hawa Abdullah (1991) and Lalita Sinha (2013); to compare active and passive voice use between TTs and to identify the factors which have influenced the translators’ active-passive voice shifts in their translations.

The analysis was done on three translations of *Salina* from Malay into English and each text was analyzed to mark every clause with active intransitive and active transitive verbs; and passive verbs. They were categorized and counted. Other types of sentences and phrases were also counted and labelled under category ‘others’. Then, the occurrences of active-passive voice shifts were analysed and counted throughout the texts.

The results show that there are four types of voice shifts found: active intransitive to passive shift, active transitive to passive shift, passive to active intransitive shift and passive to active transitive shift. Active intransitive to passive shift has more occurrences than active transitive to passive shift. However, there is only a slight difference in number where active intransitive outnumbers active transitive with 1 occurrence. The findings also reveal that the active-passive voice shift occurs more in a single translation than in multiple translations.

Passive to active transitive shift has higher number of occurrence than passive to active intransitive shift. The results also demonstrate that the passive to active voice shift occurs mostly in multiple translations. To compare between the four types of voice
shift, passive to active transitive shift showed the highest number of occurrence. This concluded that the use of active voice is more preferable in the English translations.

Three main factors influenced the voice shift in the studied data: translator’s choice, the syntactical difference between Malay underlying structure and English structure and the difference between Malay morphological voice markers and English voice markers. Most of the voice changes were due to the translator’s choice. This factor is identified when there is no language peculiarity in the ST sentence and the change was not obligatory. The changes mostly were made to serve stylistic purposes. Next, the shifts occurred due to the difference between Malay structure and English structures. It is found that if the SL structure is retained, it would sound strange in the TL. The voice shifts were made considering TL acceptability. Finally, the changes also occurred when it involved ambiguous Malay morphological voice markers. Prefix ‘ter-’, for example, can be active and passive. In the data samples, it was shown that only ‘ter-’ active was found and they were changed into the passive voice in the English translations.

Keywords: Translation Shift, Active Voice, Passive Voice
ABSTRAK

Perubahan Ayat Aktif-Pasif dalam Terjemahan Bahasa Inggeris Salina (A.Samad Said)


Hasil kajian ini menunjukkan bahawa terdapat empat jenis perubahan di antara ayat aktif dan ayat pasif: aktif tak transitif kepada pasif, aktif transitif kepada pasif, pasif kepada aktif tak transitif dan pasif kepada aktif transitif. Perubahan aktif tak transitif kepada pasif menunjukkan jumlah yang lebih banyak berbanding perubahan aktif transitif kepada pasif. Walau bagaimanapun, hanya terdapat satu sahaja perbezaan di antara kedua jenis perubahan. Hasil kajian ini juga menunjukkan bahawa perubahan ayat aktif kepada pasif lebih banyak berlaku dalam terjemahan tunggal daripada terjemahan berganda. Seterusnya, kajian ini menunjukkan bahawa perubahan pasif kepada aktif transitif mempunyai bilangan frekuensi yang lebih tinggi daripada perubahan pasif kepada aktif transitif. Jumlah bilangan menunjukkan jurang perbezaan yang besar. Hasil kajian juga menunjukkan bahawa perubahan pasif kepada aktif transitif banyak berlaku di dalam terjemahan berganda. Perbandingan antara empat jenis perubahan ayat aktif-pasif menunjukkan perubahan pasif kepada aktif transitif mempunyai bilangan
tertinggi. Ini menyimpulkan bahawa penggunaan ayat aktif lebih disukai dalam terjemahan Bahasa Inggeris.


Kata Kunci: Preubahan Terjemahan, Ayat Aktif, Ayat Pasif
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Last but not least, I would like to dedicate this research to my beloved parents who never stop believing in me and have always been there for me whenever I need them. Thank you so much for your persistent love and support. I will not be who I am today without my parents. Thanks also to all those who have helped me in one way or another to complete this research. I cannot thank you enough. Throughout this journey, I have learned so many things, not only in academic study but also in building of individual character.
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LIST OF SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ST : Source Text
TT : Target Text
TT1 : Target Text 1
TT2 : Target Text 2
TT3 : Target Text 3
SL : Source Language
TL : Target Language
EN : English
LT : Lithuanian Language
AST : Arabic Source Text
ETT : English Target Text
FTT : French Target Text
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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 1, the topics that will be discussed are the background of the study, the research rationale, the research aim, the research questions as well as the significance and limitations of this study.

1.1 Background of the Study

The Malay and English language are two languages derived from two different families of languages. The Malay language belongs to the Austronesian language family while the English language belongs to the Indo-European family of languages (Mees, 1967). Therefore, both languages are different in terms of phonetic, morphology, syntax and semantic. When it comes to translation, translators might face challenges due to the differences between the two languages. In a word to word translation, translators can refer to bilingual dictionary or thesaurus. However, when dealing with translation of phrases, clauses and verses, translators need to rely on their vast experience and expertise in the subject matter and need to possess a high level of linguistic ability. As a result, several translation problems might arise which include under translation, over translation, ambiguous translation and also wrong translation. According to Nida (1964), under translations provide less information than the source text, over translations include more information than the source text, ambiguous translations have at least two levels of information in which the accuracy is questionable and cannot be identified; and wrong translations have the important information removed and/or are different from the information mentioned in original text.

Translation is not just about transferring information from one language to another language; from source language to the target language. In fact, translation involves a thorough process and it demands artistic expression, linguistic accuracy, vast
knowledge of historical and cultural context; and a subtle difference of style in both source and target language (Aveling, 2005). Translators need to fulfil these demands in order to produce good quality translations. Nevertheless, translators might face many challenges along the transitional process and to overcome the challenges, they would have to employ several translation strategies and techniques. One of the strategies which is commonly employed by translators is transformation or also known as shift. Scholars who discuss shifts have different ways to categorize and label each type of shift (see Chapter 2).

This study aims to explore active-passive shifts between Malay and English. The use of active and passive voice determines the focus of the sentence; whether on the subject or the affected participant. It is interesting to see how active and passive voice are used differently in translations and the original text; and what factors influence the translators to employ the voice shift in their translations. This would be more interesting if there are different translators who have produced several versions of a source text. Thus, this study has chosen a Malay novel, Salina by A. Samad Said and its three English translations by Harry Aveling (1975), Hawa Abdullah (1991) and Lalita Sinha (2013) to compare the occurrences of active-passive voice shift between the source language (Malay) and target language (English). The study also aims to examine the factors which have influenced the translators’ active-passive voice shifts in their translations.

1.2 Research Rationale

According to Dixon (1991), an English speaker will have more preference to use the active voice compared to the passive voice. Halliday (1970) argues that the choice of active and passive voice in any language relates to the textual function of the language. Active voice includes both intransitive and transitive active verbs with the agent as
subject while the passive voice focuses on the person or thing that is affected by the action. The active construction is a more frequent choice because it is “a natural way of viewing things (from originator to goal)” (Biber et. al, 1999) and is commonly used in communication and fiction (Biber et.al, 1999) while the passive voice may be used, if the context makes it more natural in placing the affected participant as subject rather than the agent (Biber et.al 1999, p.943) just like in scientific texts and news.

It should be noted that a passive sentence contains the same participant in its underlying structure as the active construction. The only difference is that the passive sentence makes the agent less important which the agent can be at the end position or more frequently, omitted (Halliday, 1970, p. 161) and it treats the affected participant as obligatory (Sullivan, 1976, p.141). The perception of the main subject in a specific situation is reflected through the structural organization of a language (Gudavicius, 2009). The sentence structure can focus on the main subject as in a person or another element that is involved in the situation. As a result, there might be a change in the meaning of the expression. The role to interpret the situation is played by the speaker or the writer. In translation, the role is given to the translator who is responsible in ensuring that the interpretation of the situation in the target text (TT) is equivalent to the one in the source text (ST).

Every language has its distinctive syntactic and morphological realization for the active and passive voice. Since Malay and English belong to two different language families, it is expected that their surface structures would be widely divergent and that each would employ different sets of linguistic means to indicate active and passive forms. Malay is known to have several sets of morphological markers which are different from English ones. Due to this difference, problems may arise while transferring the active and passive sentence into English. Malay morphological active and passive markers can be seen by looking at the affixes attached to the main verb for
example prefix ‘men-’ is the active marker and prefix ‘di-’ is the passive marker. These two voice markers are the common ones. The challenging part is that there are other Malay voice markers which have dual functions such as prefix ‘ter-’ and prefix ‘ber-’. Both prefixes can be used in active and passive forms (Siaw-Fong, 2011). There may be problems when dealing with these two prefixes. Hence, a good translator should be able to tell the difference. He/she must know when to employ the translation shift. While the need to preserve the SL voice structure is highly recommendable, the linguistic acceptability and stylistic appropriateness in the translation must be taken into account too.

Therefore, the main problems when dealing with active and passive voice in translation relate to two main areas: the ability to recognise and interpret the voice markers in SL correctly; and the difficulties in rendering SL expressions into the TL while taking into account linguistic acceptability and stylistic appropriateness of the TL (Venckiene, 2015).

No research has looked at the active-passive voice shift from Malay into English. Hence, this has led to the undertaking of this study, that is, firstly to investigate the occurrence of active-passive voice shifts between the Malay novel Salina and its English translations, and secondly, to examine the factors which have influenced the translators’ active-passive voice shifts in their translations.

1.3 Research Aim

The aim of this study is to compare the occurrence of active-passive voice shifts between original Salina by A.Samad Said (1992) which is in Malay and its three English translations by Harry Aveling (1975), Hawa Abdullah (1991) and Lalita Sinha (2013), and to examine the factors which have influenced the translators’ active-passive voice shifts in the translations.
1.4 Research Questions

RQ1: How has the usage of active-passive voice changed in TT1, TT2 and TT3 as compared to the ST?

RQ2: What are the factors which have influenced the translators’ active-passive voice shifts in their translations?

The number of occurrences of active-passive voice shifts between ST and TT1, TT2 and TT3 were counted and categorized. The type of voice shift which has the highest and the lowest number of occurrences was determined. Next, the target text that employed the highest and the lowest percentage in each type of voice shift was also stated.

Next, the occurrences of voice shifts were compared to find for patterns. The patterns were categorized by the number of occurrences of voice shift between TTs. The categories are: Pattern I shift occurs in all translations, Pattern II shift occurs in TT1 and TT2, Pattern III shift occurs in TT2 and TT3 and Pattern IV shift occurs in TT1 and TT3, Pattern V shift occurs in TT1, Pattern VI shift occurs in TT2 and Pattern VII shift occurs in TT3. Then, the patterns with the most and least occurrence were determined.

Last but not least, the factors governing the voice shifts were identified by examining the examples of voice shift found in the data sample tying them with the context of the story (where the voice shifts took place in the story and what issues surround the characters or the setting which include the preceding sentences and the following sentences). The factors that contributed to the shift in each pattern were determined; whether the change is due to translator’s choice or differences in the language’s underlying syntactical structure.
1.5 Significance of the Study

This study is aimed at investigating the voice shifts in English translations of *Salina*, a literary Malay text. The translators, interpreters and linguists can acknowledge how voices function and how they are rendered into the translation as well as the factors that governed the change of the voice in the translations. The findings also provide the reference for future researchers on the similarities and differences of active and passive use in ST and the three English translations, and can further investigate translation shift of other linguistics features between both texts.

1.6 Limitations of the Study

The limitation of this study are divided into three points; the focus of the study, data collection and type of text.

This study focuses only on one type of shift which is active-passive voice shift. The active-passive voice shift would be divided into two types; active to passive shift and passive to active shift. It is best to focus on one type of shift as there were numerous types of shift which can be considered out and this master research only allows for a limited number of words.

The data analysed in this study is limited to data obtained from one Malay novel as source text and its three English translations from three different translators. The source text (ST) used is *Salina* (A.Samad Said) and the three translations are by Harry Aveling (TT1), Hawa Abdullah (TT2) and Lalita Sinha (TT3). The data included is from Chapter 1 in ST and corresponding Chapter 1 in TT1, TT2, and TT3. One chapter is sufficient to determine occurrences and patterns of active-passive voice shifts in the three translations due to large amount of sentence count in the chapter.
This study is limited to the use of active and passive voice use in a Malay literary text and its English translations. The type of text used in this study is a novel which is classified as a literary text.

1.7 Conclusion

The topics that have been discussed in Chapter 1 are the background of the study, the research rationale, the research aim, the research questions as well as the significance and limitations of this study. In Chapter 2, there will be discussion on translation shifts, active and passive voice in English and Malay language and research on active-passive voice shifts in translations. About the author and the translators; and critical reviews on translations of Salina will be included at the end of the chapter.
This literature review explains the history and types of translation shifts. Next, the discussion on active and passive voice in Malay language and English language as well as research on active-passive voice shifts in translation will be included. Lastly about the author, about the translators and critical reviews on translations of Salina will be discussed at the end of this chapter.

2.1 Translation Shifts

There are many well-known scholars that have introduced the concept of translation shifts; among them are Jean-Paul Vinay and Jean Darbelnet (1958), Eugene A. Nida (1964), John C. Catford (1965) and Kitty Van Leuven-Zwart (1989).

Vinay and Darbelnet (1958) are the first scholars to propose translation procedures. They carried out a comparative analysis of French and English. There are seven translation procedures altogether. The procedures are divided into two categories; direct translation (literal) and oblique translation (free). Direct translation consists of borrowing (transferring SL word to TL because the word does not exist in TL), calque (transferring SL expression or structure using literal meaning of its component); and literal (‘word-for-word’ translation.) Oblique translation consists of transposition (grammatical shifts from SL to TL), modulation (variation of shifts that related with viewpoint and perspective of SL; and are divided into several categories; abstract for concrete, positive to double negative, double negative to positive, one part for another part, one part for whole, reversal of terms and active to passive), equivalence (TL describes similar situation in SL but using different stylistic and structural means) and adaptation (when SL situation does not exist in the TL, usually relate with cultural gap, equivalent situation is recreated in TL.)
Nida (1964) called shifts ‘techniques of adjustment’ in translation process. His model is specific on types of shifts in the structure. Nida divided the techniques of adjustment into three main categories; additions, subtractions and alterations. Additions occur when the target text contains more linguistic material that the source text. He states that only those additions of grammatical aspects that do not change the semantic content of the text are permitted. The additions are for the reason of making the meaning more explicit in the target text that is implicitly present in the source text. For example, addition of certain participants might make it grammatically necessary when translating a passive sentence into active sentence, or changing the word class from noun to verb. While subtractions are the opposite of additions; which means the shifts occur from omitting grammatical elements in the translation to make meaning implicit rather than explicit. “Structural losses” are involved in this process (Cyrus 2006, p.94). However, it is acceptable due to grammatical or semantic patterns of the target language. Alterations involve changes that are neither additions nor subtractions. Nida argues this change is possible when straightforward translation results in misleading. The changes that fall under this category are number, tense, voice, word class and word order; sentence type and directness of discourse.

Catford (1965) was the first scholar who introduced the term “translation shift”. His concept of translation shifts relies on the distinctions between formal correspondence and textual equivalence. As cited by Cyrus (2006, p.90), Catford (1965) defines formal correspondence as “a relationship that holds between two linguistic categories that occupy approximately the same place in the organization of their respective languages, while textual equivalence holds between two portions of text that are actual translations of each other”. Shifts are required in the translation when the textual equivalent is not formally correspondent with its source text. He divided the shifts into two major types: level shifts and category shifts. Level shifts happen when
something is expressed by grammar in one language but in another language it is expressed using lexical. Category shifts have four other types of shifts which are structural shifts, class shifts, unit shifts and intra system shifts.

Leuven Zwart (1989) proposes a comparative and descriptive model to describe translation shifts. Her model is considered as a practical method for studying syntactic, semantic, stylistic, and pragmatic shifts within sentences, clauses, and phrases of literary texts and the translations. She introduces a two-part method; microstructural (comparative) and macrostructural (descriptive), that is used to analyze shifts in fictional narrative texts.

In microstructural level, shifts are analysed within sentences, clauses and phrases; meanwhile the effects of shifts to the characters, event, place, time and other important components of the text are examined at the macrostructural level. There are four steps altogether to analyse shifts at the microstructural level. First, the identification of transeme (comprehensible textual units), second step is the identification of architranseme (ART: the invariant core sense of the ST transeme that serves as an interlingual comparison. The third step is analysing the relationship between ART and the transemes; whether it is synonymic or hyponymic. Last step, classifying the pairs of transemes based on the relationship. If the pairs are synonymic, it indicates no shifts involved and if there is absence of synonymic relationship, there are shift.

The shifts are further divided into three major categories; modulation, modification and mutation. There are more 37 categories under the three major categories mentioned above. This is why Zwart’s model is known for its complexity. Modulation occurs when one of the transemes tallies with the ART, but the other differs either semantically or stylistically. Modification can be observed when both transemes are non-correspondence to the ART; semantically, stylistically, syntactically,
pragmatically or combination of these. Lastly, mutation takes place when it is impossible to determine an ART; either it is due to addition, deletion or extreme change of meaning in the TT.

Based on the list of translations shifts mentioned above, it is evident that voice shifts have been put under different label by different scholars. First, active-passive voice shift falls under ‘modulation’ of Vinay and Darbelnet’s translation procedure. This is because voice shift is considered as the change of point of view in the TL when compared to the SL. While in Nida’s concept, active-passive voice shift can be in either additions or alterations. It is considered as additions if certain elements are added into the TT to make information more implicit or it is under alterations when direct translation from SL might lead to ambiguous expression in TL. As of Catford’s category shift, active-passive voice shift is labelled under structural shift where it is considered as the change involved different arrangement of the same classes of elements in TT. It is worth noting that this study investigates all of these ‘characteristics’ of voice shift as described by the scholar; whether there is a change in view point of SL or whether there is any addition of certain elements to make the message clearer or whether there is a change to the sentence arrangement in the TT.

2.2 Malay Language and English Language Voice System

As this study concerned with the use of active and passive voice in literary text of Malay and English, we shall look into the categories and examples in each voice between the two languages. The analysis of data in ST and all TTs is based on two primary sources: Tatabahasa Dewan (2008) and Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English (1999). This study will be referring to the types of active and passive forms listed in these two primary sources because they provide detailed and comprehensive description for each voice category which suits the need of answering
the research questions proposed earlier. There is another additional source of reference for English voice which is by Chad Langford; *Advanced English Grammar: A Linguistic Approach* (2012).

### 2.2.1 Malay Active Voice and Passive Voice

The Malay voice is determined by the voice marking (Nomoto, 2006). There are four basic voices; morphological active, bare active, morphological passive and bare passive (Nomoto, 2006, p.98). Morphological active is marked on the verb by prefix ‘*meN*-’ *‘mem-’, ‘meng-’, ‘me-’ and ‘men-*. Bare active has no morphological mark in its verb. The use of bare voice becomes a more preferable choice in informal speech (Nomoto, 2006). The verb is affixless due to the omission of the prefix meN- in active voice and due to the omission of the prefix *di-* in the passive voice.

According to Nomoto, morphological passive is marked on the verb by the prefix ‘*di-*’ while the bare passive has no morphological marker in its verb. The morphological passive is used for the third person while the bare passive is used for first and second person agents. The bare passive is also known with other labels such as “pseudo passive”, “secondary” and “passive type 2” (Nomoto, 2013). The meaning of bare passive is similar to active voice in English (Nomoto & Kartini, 2012). In this type of passive, the agent is obligatory and auxiliary/adverb/negation usually precedes the agent and the main verb.

Nik Safiah Karim et.al (2008) categorizes active verbs into two categories: ‘ayat aktif transitif’ (active transitive) and ‘ayat aktif tak transitif’ (active intransitive). The morphological mark ‘meN’ is used in both the transitive and intransitive active verb. The examples for active transitive ‘*me-N*’ are shown below (Nik Safiah Karim et.al, 2008, p.484-487):

(The principle calls me)


(The housekeeper brings me a cup of coffee)

Example 1 and example 2 show two types of active transitive sentence. Example 1 contains active sentence with transitive verb ‘memanggil’ and single object ‘saya’; while example 2 consists of active sentence with transitive verb ‘membawakan’ and two objects: direct object ‘saya’ and indirect object ‘secawan kopi’.

Next, ‘ayat aktif tak transitif’ (active intransitive) are divided into two subcategories: ‘ayat aktif tak transitif tanpa pelengkap’ (active intransitive sentence without obligatory adverbial) and ‘ayat aktif tak transitif berpelengkap’ (active intransitive sentence with obligatory adverbial).

The examples of active intransitive sentence without obligatory adverbial are shown below (Nik Safiah Karim et.al, 2008, p.488, p.165):


(She cries all day)

4. Pengantin baharu [subject] sedang berhias [active intransitive].

(The bride is dressing up)

Example 3 and example 4 above shows the use of active transitive verb with the prefix ‘me-’ and ‘ber-’. The prefix ‘men-’ can also be used in active intransitive sentence. Both prefixes carry the different semantic meaning to the verb. The prefix ‘me-’ in example 3 carries the connotation of doing something while the prefix ‘ber-’ in
example 4 carries the meaning of reflexive action (self involving action) (Nik Safiah Karin et.al, 2008, p.165).

The examples of ‘ayat aktif tak transitif berpelengkap’ (active intransitive sentence with obligatory adverbial) are shown below (Nik Safiah Karim et.al, 2008, p.147, 489):


(Mr. Ali’s family comes from Pahang) (*Mr. Ali family comes)


(All vehicles move towards east) (*All vehicles move towards)

Example 5 and example 6 show the use of active intransitive ber- and me- with obligatory adverbial. Example 5 shows the use active intransitive verb ‘berasal’ followed by obligatory adverbial ‘berasal dari Pahang’. Example 6 shows the use of active intransitive verb ‘menghala’ followed by obligatory adverbial ‘ke timur’. It is unacceptable in Malay language to omit the adverbial which follows the main because the omission would lead to incomplete information and meaning loss.

Nik Safiah Karim et.al (2008, p.491) categorizes Malay passive into three types: ‘ayat pasif dengan imbuhan kata kerja pasif’ (passive sentence with passive verb prefix), ‘ayat pasif dengan kata ganti nama diri pertama dan kata ganti nama diri kedua’ (passive sentence with first and second person pronoun) and ayat pasif dengan perkataan kena yang hadir sebelum kata kerja (passive sentence with ‘kena’ which precedes the main verb). Each type of passive forms and example of sentences are described as below:

(i) ‘ayat pasif dengan imbuhan kata kerja pasif’ (passive sentence with passive verb prefix)
There are four passive prefixes in this type of passive construction. The first prefix is ‘di-’ passive. ‘Di-’ passive which belongs to morphological passive category or the first type passive (Nik Safiah Karim et. al, 2008) is labelled with many names by other researchers such as ‘pasif jati’ (genuine passive) (Asmah, 2009), canonical passive (Chung, 1976) and passive type 1 (Dardjowijojo, 1978). The examples of *di*-passive in sentences are explained as below (Nik Safiah Karim et.al, 2008, p.490):


(The thing was taken by Ali yesterday)

Example 7 shows the use of passive verb **diambil** followed by agent phrase ‘oleh Ali’. The agent phrase ‘oleh’ is optional and can be omitted (see example 8).


(The thing was taken yesterday)

There is another option of construction for this type of *di*-passive which is ‘oleh’ can be omitted without changing the meaning or the passive structure. See example 9 below:


(The thing was taken Ali yesterday)

However, if the agent phrase is placed far from the main verb, ‘oleh’ cannot be omitted. See example 10 below:


(The thing was taken yesterday by Ali)
*Barang itu sudah diambil semalam Ali.

(The thing was taken yesterday Ali)

Example 10 shows that the agent phrase ‘oleh Ali’ is in the final position which is far from the passive verb. The passive sentence with * sign means that the construction is not acceptable in Malay language.

According to Nik Safiah Karim (2008), the agent is restricted to third person pronoun in di-passive construction. Nevertheless, the use of personal pronouns in di-passive construction can be found commonly in conversation and direct speech (Kartini Abd. Wahab, 2013).

Next, the second prefix is the ‘ber-’ passive. The ‘ber-’ passive carries semantic category of ‘keadaan sudah sedia berlaku’ (situation that has happened) and the prefix can be replaced by the ‘di-’ passive without interfering with its meaning (Nik Safiah et.al, 2008, p.166). The passive verb ‘ber-’ is usually preceded by ‘kata bantu aspek’ (aspectual auxiliary) ‘belum’ (not yet) or ‘sudah’ (complete, finished). It is not necessary to include the agent phrase ‘oleh’ in this type of passive construction. The examples are explained below (Nik Safiah Karim et. al, 2008, p.491-492):


   (Her son’s letter has not yet been replied)


   (The delicious food has been served)
Nomoto (2006) does not include the prefix ‘ber-’ in neither morphological active category nor morphological passive category. It might be due to the fact that the prefix ‘ber-’ can be used both in active and passive verb.

The third prefix is the ‘ter-’ passive. Apart from the prefix ‘ber-’ mentioned above, the prefix ‘ter-’ is also quite controversial. It has ambiguous active and passive forms (Siaw-Fong, 2011). The prefix ‘ter-’ contains three semantic readings (Nik Safiah et.al, 2008, p.174-175):

- Accidental/Unintentional meaning


   (The worker accidentally drinks the pesticide)


   (The dog was hit by a lorry)

- Ability meaning


   (Badang is able to carry the big rock)

- Availability meaning


   (The flower pots rows in line in the house compound)

Based on the examples, the difference between ‘ter-’ active (example 13) and ‘ter-’ passive (example 14) is on the addition of the agent phrase ‘oleh’. Another way to differentiate is that to convert the ‘ter-’ passive into the ‘di-’ passive. If it is grammatically and semantically correct, then the prefix ‘ter-’ is likely to be passive. However, the use of the ‘di-’ passive removes the unintentional meaning.
Fourth passive consist of verb with the confix ‘ke-...-an’. There is no detailed explanation on this type of Malay passive by Nik Safiah Karim (2008). This might be due to the fact that it is a rare type of passive form. The main verb is placed between the confix ‘ke-...-an’ and the agent is not necessary. This confix ‘ke-...-an’ carries semantic meaning as in the subject is undergoing something in the base form verb. The example is shown below (Nik Safiah Karim et.al, 2008, p.491):

17. Mereka kehujanan sepanjang hari.

(They were soaked in rain all day)

Example 17 shows that the use of passive verb ‘kehujanan’. The sentence describes the passive subject ‘mereka’ was happened to be in the rain all day.

(ii) Passives with first and second person pronouns

The first and second person pronouns have their own passive construction because these pronouns cannot take the ‘di-’ passive form (Nik Safiah Karim et.al, 2008, p.491). The first person and second person pronouns that are placed before the base form verb can be in full form or simple for. The full form of first person and second person pronouns are ‘aku’, ‘saya’ ‘engkau’, ‘awak’, ‘anda’, ‘kami’ and ‘kita’, while the simple forms are ‘ku’ as in ‘aku’ and ‘kau’ as in ‘engkau’. The examples are as below (Nik Safiah Karim et.al, 2008, p.492):


(The work has been completed by me yesterday)


(The debt would be paid totally by you)
Example 18 shows the use of first person pronoun ‘saya’ and the passive verb ‘selesaikan’. Example 19 shows the use of second person pronoun ‘engkau’ and the passive verb ‘jelaskan’. The sentence with * symbol shows the unacceptable passive construction for first and second person pronouns.

(iii) Passive with the verb ‘kena’

‘Kena’ passive or also known as third type passive (Nik Safiah, 2008 & Siaw-Fong, 2005) is another controversial Malay passive. According to Nomoto & Kartini (2012, p.2), kena is not a passive marker and it is “orthogonal to morphological and bare passive”. They categorize ‘kena’ in the passive construction as “funny predicate” which “only adds an advertising flavor and is not of passive syntax” (Nomoto & Kartini, 2012). Siaw-Fong (2005) describes ‘kena’ passive as higher in transitivity, less in frequency but more common in informal register and “that it has a negative connotation for recipients of the actions when compared with di-passive” (Siaw-Fong, 2005, p.194). The agent phrase ‘oleh’ in ‘kena’ passive is optional but if the agent is to be included, ‘oleh’ cannot be omitted. The sentence * symbol shows it is unacceptable ‘kena’ passive construction. The usage of ‘kena’ passive (see example 20 taken from Nik Safiah Karim et.al, 2008, p.493) is distinct with “debitive kena sentences” (see example 21 taken from Nik Safiah Karim et.al, 2008, p.493). ‘Kena’ in example 21 carries the meaning of ‘have to’. This debitive sentence is in active form due to the absence of ‘oleh’ which suggests that the noun phrase after the verb is the direct object.

20. Pencuri itu kena tangkap (oleh polis). *Pencuri itu kena tangkap polis

(The thief got caught by the police) (The thief got caught police)


(The police have to catch the pickpocket)
2.2.2 English Active Voice and Passive Voice

According to *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English* (Biber et. al, 1999), English active sentence is considered as ‘unmarked voice’. The verbs that usually occur in active sentence are transitive verbs but also can occur in passive voice (1999:482). Transitive verb is divided into three categories (Biber et.al, 1999, p.381):

(i) Monotransitive

Monotransitive verbs are active transitive verbs with single object. [Subject + verb + direct object]

22. He **has** money.

23. Sinead **wants** a biscuit.

(ii) Ditransitive

Ditransitive verbs occur with a two object noun phrases

24. I might not actually **send** you a real birthday card.

[Subject + verb + indirect object + direct object]

(iii) Complex transitive

Complex transitive verbs occur with a direct object noun phrase followed by either an object predicative (noun phrase or adjective) or by an obligatory adverbial.

25. It was natural to **call** them photons.

[Subject + verb + direct object + object predicative]

26. He reached out to **put** his hand on the child’s shoulder.

[Subject + verb + direct object + obligatory adverbial.

Biber et. al (1999) does not highlight active intransitive verbs. This might be due to the fact that the active sentence with transitive verb has possibility to be changed to passive.
However, the examples provided below show that the verbs are intransitive which take a post-verbal complement clause rather than a direct object noun phrase (see example 27 and example 28) (Biber et.al, 1999, p.482):

27. I **wished** I had a job like that.

28. I **pretended** to be another friend.

Furthermore, a single-object prepositional verb

29. They’re all **waiting for** me.

30. We can **smile at** them.

English passive voice has morphological marking like Malay passive. English passivity is marked by the use of auxiliary verb ‘be’ followed by *ed*-participle (Biber et.al, 1999, p.475). However, it can also be formed with the verb ‘get’ which takes the role of auxiliary verb. The ‘get’ passive is commonly rare and limited to conversation only. Most of the verbs that occur in the *get* passive in conversation carry negative connotation (Biber et.al, 1999, p.481). It conveys that the subject is having difficulties as results from the action of the verb. The verbs usually occur in ‘get’ passive are *hit, left, stuck* and *involved*. Comparison of the use of ‘be’ passive and *get* ‘get’ passive in the examples below:

➢ ‘be’ passives

31. They **weren’t involved** for that long.

32. You **wouldn’t be stuck** at home.

➢ ‘get’ passives

33. And then we start to **get involved** in local society.

34. My head **got stuck** up there.
English passive takes two principle forms: short passive and long passive. Short passive is where the agent in unexpressed and long passive is where the agent is expressed in a *by*-phrase (Biber et.al, 1999, p.935). The two passive forms are shown below:

35. In 1975 **Anderson was appointed** the first EEC delegate in Southern Africa.

Example 35 shows the use of short passive ‘Anderson was appointed’ with unexpressed agent.

36. As recently as last year, **Anderson was asked by the Ugandan government** to advise on the restructuring of the civil service there, following the turmoil of recent years.

Example 36 shows the use of long passive ‘Anderson was asked’ followed by the agent phrase ‘by the Ugandan government’.

To summarize, active and passive voice shift in Malay and English are indeed different especially in terms of underlying structure. Malay active-passive voice seems to have varieties of voice markers and some of them are quite controversial or confusing like prefix ‘ter-’ and ‘kena’ passive. English voice, on the other hand, can appear in finite and non-finite constructions which appear to have complex syntax rules. It can be concluded that the translators might face challenges while interpreting active-passive voice in Malay text but they are given numerous choice of English sentence types (including finite and non-finite active-passive constructions) to be used in their translations.

**2.2.3 Other Clauses**

Other clauses include complement sentences with adjective phrase or noun phrase and non clausal materials such as inserts (greetings, interjections, expletive and responses)
and syntactic non clausal units (Biber et.al, 1999, p.1082-1099) which can be found in abundance in the conversations in the data sample. These are the examples which have been categorized as other clauses:

1) Complement sentences

Complement sentences consist of two types: (a) with adjective phrase and (b) with noun phrase. The examples of the two complement sentences found in the data sample are shown below.

(a) Complement with adjective phrase (the bold phrases in the Malay text are noun phrases, while in the TT, the bold phrases are verb to be. The italics in both texts show the adjective phrases).

(b) Complement with noun phrase (the bold phrases in Malay text are noun phrases in subject position, while in TT, the bold phrases are verb to be. The italics in both texts show the noun phrases in complement position).
Example 3 shows that the structure of Malay complement sentence with noun phrase is similar to the one in Example 1 and Example 2 which is without the presence of verb to be.

There is also another way to identify this type of Malay complement sentence which is by the presence of ‘ialah’ or ‘adalah’ before the noun phrase. As shown in Example 4, ‘ialah’ is used in ST which has similar function as ‘were’ in the corresponding translation. The bold word in Malay text is ‘kata pemeri’ (word that connects the subject with main phrases in the predicate), while in TT, the bold phrases are verb to be. The italics in both texts show the noun phrases in complement position).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&quot;Betullah. Ha, itu pun dia pokok cempedaknya.</td>
<td>&quot;Yes. That's the jack-fruit tree.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dua orang makhluk yang baharu pindah ke kampung itu ialah Katijah, seorang janda, dan Hilmy, anaknya...</td>
<td>The two who had recently moved to the village were Katijah, a widow, and Hilmy her son...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2) Non clausal materials

Non clausal materials can be divided into two categories: (a) inserts and (b) syntactic non clausal units. It is to be noted that these two materials are found in conversation. As the data sample is rich with conversation between the
characters, it is expected to find these materials numerously. The explanation for each category and examples are shown as below:

(a) Inserts

Inserts are defined as stand-alone words which are characterized by their inability to enter into syntactic relations with other structures. They comprise a class of words that is nonessential, both in the grammar and in the lexicon of the language. Some of the inserts are not even words such as interjections and response forms. There are five types of inserts that will be explained below together with the examples from data sample (if any):

(i) Greetings and farewells are generally reciprocated in a symmetrical exchange. There are informal, less formal and formal types of greetings and farewells, for example Hi and Bye is informal, whereas Hello is less formal while good forms such as Good morning and Good Bye are considered as formal. However, good forms can be changed into informal one by using only the last word like ‘Morning’. Malay greetings and farewells also includes Hai, Hello and Selamat pagi (Good morning) and Selamat tinggal (Goodbye). There are greetings which are used widely by Malay Muslim like Assalamualaikum and Waalaikumsalam.

(ii) Interjections

Interjections are applied to show the speaker’s emotion and have exclamatory function. Each interjection has its own meaning and pragmatic function. Oh is the most common interjection and usually used as preliminary response to the utterance and can be combined with other inserts like Oh yeah, Oh yes, Oh no, Oh well, Oh God etc. The examples from data sample are as below:
Interjections like ‘ah’ and ‘wow’ are less common; ‘ah’ indicates the expression for unpleasant and pleasant feelings while ‘wow’ is used to express impressed and surprised feelings. ‘Oops’ and whoops are used to when a minor accident happens like spilling something. Ugh typically expresses a degree of disgust while urgh and aargh are used to show pain and displeasure. The examples of interjections found in the data shows Malay interjection ‘Cet’ and its English translation ‘Huh’ which expresses a degree of displease or unpleasant feelings (Example 7); while Example 8 shows Malay interjection ‘Heh’ and its English translation ‘Huh’ like in Example 7. The phrase and clause come after the interjections give more clue or explanation on how the person feels.
(iii) Expletives

Expletives are used for taboo expressions or semi taboo expressions used as exclamations especially in reaction to some strongly negative experience. Taboo expletives consist of swearwords which make reference to one of the taboo domains of religion (e.g. God, Jesus), sex or bodily excretion (e.g. fuck, shit); while moderated expletives camouflage the taboo origin by various phonetic modification (e.g. gosh for God) or substitution of different but related words (e.g. goodness for God). Malay expletives might have different lexical items from the English versions but still carry the same expressions or meaning; taboo expletives of religion which have similar expression to God (e.g. Ya Allah, Oh Tuhanku) and moderate expletives which have equal expression to ‘shit’ or ‘dammit’ like Alamak (moderate version of shit or dammit). Example 9 and Example 10 below show the use of moderate expletive ‘Goodness gracious’ in the English translations; while in ST, example 9 shows the use of Indian dialect ‘ayoyo,kadawelleh’ and example 10 shows the use of Malay expletive ‘alamak’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9 “Ayoyo, kadawelleh,”</td>
<td>“Goodness gracious!”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 “Alamak Kurupaya!”</td>
<td>“Goodness gracious Kurupaya!”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(iv) Response forms

Response forms are inserts used to respond to a previous remark by a different speaker. The first category is the canonical positive ‘yeah’ or ‘yes’ of ‘yep’ (in Malay ‘ya’ or ‘yalah’) and negative ‘no’ or ‘nope’ or ‘unh’ (in Malay ‘tidak’ or ‘tak’). The examples (in bold) from the data sample are shown below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>”Angkau jangan buang itu daun, tau?”</td>
<td>You mustn’t get rid of the leaves, you understand?”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Yalah tauke besar;</td>
<td>“Yes of course, big chief:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>“Ya, ya, itu betul. tak ada baiklah!”</td>
<td>“Yes indeed, how true. to rob the poor of so much money!”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(v) Hesitators

Hesitators are also known as pause fillers whose main function to enable the speaker to pause while giving the clue before continue speaking like ‘er er’, ‘um’ and ‘ermm’ or ‘hmm’ as shown in the Example 13 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“Hmmmmmmm, sekolah orang Melayukah tu?”</td>
<td>“Hmmmmmmm, is that a Malay school?”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(b) Syntactic non clausal units

Syntactic non clausal units are different from inserts because they can be given syntactic description in terms of the structures and categories of sentence grammar. They are often classifiable to standard phrases like noun phrases (poor kids), adjective phrases (perfect, good for you), adverb phrases (not really) or prepositional phrases (for goodness’ sake). These syntactic non clausal units have various functions which depend on message in the context. The examples (in bold) from data sample are shown as below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>“Dah lama saya tinggal di sini; kira-kira dua tahun, semanjak kampung ni mula didirikan.”</td>
<td>&quot;I've been here a long time. Nearly two years. Ever since the kampung was built.&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>“Betulkah di tempat ini, mak?”</td>
<td>“The right place, mum?”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>“Ya, dia orang tak ada ramai. Dua orang saja. Anak sama emak. Satu minggu dulu dia ada mari tanya rumah punya pasal.</td>
<td>“Yes, they are not being many. Only two people. Son with mother. One week before she came here asking about house.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.3 Research on Active-Passive Voice Shifts in Translation

No studies have been done in dealing with shift of active and passive voice from Malay into English. The past studies that would be discussed below consist of active-passive voice change between other languages; Arabic to English and French; and Lithuanian to English. One past study investigates passive voice shift from English into Arabic.

Mohamed Abdou Moindjie (2016) explores the occurrences of active-passive shifts in translation of two novels, *Midaq Alley* and *Season of Migration to the North*, from Arabic (AST) to English (ETT) and French (FTT). The two novels were written by two different authors and translated by two different translators in each target language. The objectives of this study are to describe the behaviour of active and passive voice in translating from Arabic into English and French, to find similarities and differences between the three languages and to examine the effects of linguistics factors for future references to other translators and researchers. This study follows Toury’s (1985) translation modeling on comparative perspective of translation. In literature review, he only mentions the structure of active and passive voice of Arabic, English and French; and compares the differences and similarities to each other. The three languages; Arabic, English and French, all of them has active and passive voice. In Arabic, to form passive voice, it is different compare to English and French (where verb *to be* is required.) Arabic passive is formed by changing vocalization vowels of the active. In addition, the Arabic passive voice does not have an agent; passive voice = object (subject) + verb. Active and passive voice sentences in French language are formed similarly to English ones; by putting the verb to *etre*, and changing the active verb into the past participle, and similar to English, agent is optional. The only difference is that the past participle in French must agree with gender and genre of the subject in the passive voice.
The results show 6 categories of occurrences of voice shift for each novel; Category 1 Active (AST), passive (ETT) and active (FTT); Category 2 Passive (AST), passive (ETT) and passive (FTT); Category 3 Active (AST), passive (ETT) and passive (FTT); Category 4 Active (AST), active (ETT) and passive (FTT); Category 5 Passive (AST), passive (ETT) and active (FTT); and Category 6 Passive (AST), active (ETT) and active (FTT). Then, for each category, he describes the peculiarity in AST, ETT and FTT as well as the translation methods of ETT and FTT (modulation, transposition and literal).

These are the discussions of all categories for both novels. For Category 1 in *Midaq Alley*, the abstract nouns and active participles in AST are modulated into passive in ETT. The researcher argues that it is “not because English language has a preference and tendency to use passive voice but because of structural problems and translation unit.” (Mohamed, 2016, p.12). If the abstract nouns and active participles are translated word to word, they would sound strange in English language. In FTT, the abstract nouns and the active participle are translated into active voice. The translator used a transposition procedure as the translation method. This is because the point of view is not changed whereas the only change is on the parts of speech. The abstract nouns and active participle are translated into verbs. In *Season of Migration to the North*, the researcher concludes that this category occurs frequently. AST and FTT use more active voice compared to ETT. The problem here is similar with the one found in *Midaq Alley* which is related to structural problem.

Category 2 shows that passive voice is used in all texts, AST, ETT and FTT. However, there are few occurrences compared to other categories. There is no change of voice due to the nature of Arabic language where agent cannot be mentioned in passive. Thus, it is impossible to use active voice in this case. Similar case is found in the
second novel where the agent is also not mentioned in the passive voice in AST. Thus, passive voice is retained in ETT and FTT.

In Category 3 for *Midaq Alley*, the active voice in AST is changed into passive in ETT and FTT and modulation is used as translation method. Although the passive participle is used in the AST, it is not considered as passive in Arabic language due to language nature. Modulation is used because the intransitive verbs and passive participles are used in the passive voice in AST, whereas verbs and passive participles that are translated in ETT and FTT are transitive verbs. The passivation in this category “is due to structural problems between Arabic on the one hand and English and French on the other hand.” (Mohamed, 2016, p.13). In the second novel, the use of passive voice in ETT and FTT is due to different conceptualization of verbs. The sentences in AST are grammatically perceived as active. However, the sentences have to be modulated to passive in both TTs and the use of passive voice indicates that the object is more important than the subject.

In *Midaq Alley*, category 4 exhibits the occurrence of passive voice in FTT only. Both AST and ETT use active voice. The researcher concludes that the use of the passive is a translator’s choice. This is due to the fact that the sentences could be translated into active without changing the meaning or “frenchness” (Mohamed, 2016, p.13). While in *Season of Migration to the North*, the use of passive in FTT is also due to translator’s choice and it is for stylistic purposes.

In category 5 of *Midaq Alley*, passive voice is used in AST and ETT, while active voice is used in FTT. The reason is similar to the one in Category 4 where it is due to the translator’s choice. Retaining the passivity would not affect the “frenchness.” The findings in *Season of Migration to The North* show that the use active voice in FTT is also the translator’s choice. Although it is an active voice, the doer is not mentioned.
The researcher finds that there is a sense of abstractness due to the use of ‘on’ as subject and the infinitive ‘dire’ in the expression *a vrai dire*.

Last but not least, in category 6 of *Midaq Alley*, the passive voice in AST is shifted into the active voice in both target texts. The use of the active voice is not a choice but it is a different way of conceptualizing the verb. It would sound strange if it is in the passive voice. Similar findings are found in *Season of Migration to The North*. The use of literal passive structures in FTT and ETT are grammatically correct. However, it would sound unnatural in the sense that they are not communicative and difficult to be accepted by the French and English readers.

Based on the overall findings in the two novels, he concludes that there are more passive occurrences in ETT than in FTT and AST. AST and FTT show more similarities in terms of voice use. The results also reveal that the factors which determined active-passive use are language peculiarity relative to structure, conceptualization and preference; and the translator’s choice. The formation of the active and passive voices in the ETT and FTT are found to stem from AST active voice, passive voice, active participle, passive participle, and abstract nouns. Last but not least, Mohamed concludes that Arabic is more similar to French than English in this case of active-passive voice use. Nevertheless, translators have to apply modulation and transposition procedure when translating active-passive voice from Arabic into English and French or vice versa. The challenge for translator is that there are sentences with intransitive verb which need to be modulated into passive transitive verbs, and vice versa.

The similarity of Mohamed’s study and the current study is in terms of the objectives which are to describe the use of active and passive voice in ST and TT; to find similarities and differences; and to investigate the factors behind the shift whether it is due to translator’s choice and language peculiarity. These two factors are found in
the past study. The differences between Mohamed’s study and current study are: Mohamed’s study uses two STs (two different novels) in Arabic with its corresponding TTs in two target languages which are English and French; and he mentions the translation method for each category; while the current study uses one Malay ST with its three translations by different translators of one target language only which is English and does not focus on the translation method for each category.

Daila Venckiene (2015) highlights the syntactical shifts in English translation of Lithuanian texts on the country’s history and culture. The objectives of this study are; to explore the attitudes to translation shifts, linguistic analysis, and syntactic functions of the clause constituents; and to analyse shifts of sentences parts and shifts in the sentences structure.

The researcher has used the study by Armalyte and Pazusis (1990) as the main reference for her study. This is due to the fact that Armalyte’s and Pazusis’ study is about the translation transformation between Lithuanian (ST) and English (TT). They introduce a system to classify translation transformation and there are four categories; 1) transposition 2) shifts 3) additions and 4) omissions. Venckiene (2015) investigates shifts of sentence parts; changes in the type of links between clauses of a composite sentence; and changes in the sentences structure which fall under category “shifts” proposed by Armalyte and Pazusis. The researcher quotes Armalyte’s findings which show that Lithuanian thematic objects are frequently shifted into English subjects. The shifts involve change of the voice of the verb or the change of the type of the verb from Lithuanian intransitive verb into English transitive verb.

For research methodology, a comparative model by Olohan (2000) and a mixed-methods approach by Saldanha & O’Brien (2014) are used to analyze the data which consists of 85 pages of narrative texts on Lithuania’s history and culture. The other approach, the contrastive linguistic approach is used to make correlations between
source and target texts in qualitative analysis and is followed up with more focused quantitative analysis of sub-topics.

Results for shifts of sentence parts are then divided into two subcategories; the shift of LT object into EN subject and the shift of LT adverbial modifier into EN subject. The syntactic shifts of other kinds are also discussed under this category of shift involving sentence parts. The shifts of LT object to EN subject involve four types of shift. The first type is the change of voice of the verb; this shift has the highest number of occurrences with 63% out of total 76 cases and the occurrences are identified in simple sentences. The researcher mentions this type of shift is not obligatory in the corpus and the shift occurs when the translator decides to emphasize a phrase, when the agent is not important or when a complex thought has to be expressed.

The second type of shift involves change of the type of the verb with 13% of cases. The analysis reveals that Lithuanian intransitive verbs are changed into transitive verbs in English and the change occurs between personal simple and composite sentences where simple sentences are changed into composites ones. The researcher argues that the shift is not obligatory. However, if the shift had not occurred, the target sentences would not sound natural.

The third type involves shift occurring in translation of Lithuanian personal sentences or clauses with compound predicates (24% of cases). This type of shift is then divided into three subtypes; 1) this first subtype involves translation of LT sentences with nominal predicates. There are two patterns found; sentences with nominal predicates which have an inflective form of the copula būti + adjective/noun OR adjective + noun OR numeral + noun; and sentences with nominal predicates which have an inflective form copula būti + passive participle derived from transitive verb. The second subtype involves translation LT sentences with mixed predicates (combination of features of nominal and compound verbal predicates). The shift takes
place in translation of sentences with mixed predicates including passive participles from transitive verbs. The third subtype includes translation of sentences with compound verbal predicates which consists of a finite form of auxiliary verb and the infinitive. The researcher summarizes that “the object-subject” shift is not obligatory due to the fact that there is no strict patterns to translate LT sentences with compound predicates. Although it would be possible to maintain the ST structure, it would have affected the stylistic of the translation. The translators have shown an excellent English command and are creative in transforming the meaning of such units.

The fourth type of LT object to EN subject shift is related to translation of LT impersonal simple sentences or impersonal clauses of composite sentences. The researcher states that it might be challenging to do English translation of Lithuanian impersonal structures. It requires “understanding of the context, the communicative purpose of the text…” (Venckiene, 2015, p.46).

The second subcategory under shift of sentence parts involves translation of LT adverbial modifier into EN subject. There are 37 cases found in this category and all of them are divided into four types; translation of sentences with LT local adverbials 1) expressed by geographical names (16% of all the cases). The shift occurs in simple, composite sentences and also the simple ones change into complex and composite ones change into simple; 2) denoting written documents (70%). These are “very characteristics of the analysed corpus” (Venckiene, 2015, p.47). Lithuanian passive participles are substituted into English active verb forms; 3) denoting large gatherings or events (11%). The shift occurs in two conditions which the Lithuanian passive participles are transformed into English active verb forms and active Lithuanian verb forms are translated into English passive voice; and the last type 4) denoting other entities (has the least percentage with only 3% of all cases). The shift occurs in translation of the Lithuanian passive participle into English passive verb.
As for the conclusion for the analysis on LT object to EN subject shift, the research has found that impersonal structures are frequently used in Lithuanian narratives (60% of cases with the object to subject shift in translation of Lithuanian personal structures and 40% of cases in translation of Lithuanian impersonal structures). Most LT impersonal structures have been rendered as personal structures in English translation. Lithuanian has the tendency to use verbs to highlight facts, while English emphasizes the subject, the agent, and the experience.

Venckiene’s (2015) study was indeed complex in terms of the language involved (ST is in Lithuanian language and TT is in English). Lithuanian language is an inflected language where there are number of grammatical, lexical and syntactical features or characteristics to analyse. Thus, this language is challenging for translators as admitted by the researcher. The complexity was shown in the categorization of the shifts. The most common shift found was related to LT object to EN subject shifts which further categorized into four subtypes. The first subtype of the shift which involved the change of voice is the main focus for this current. Venckiene only analysed the voice shift from active to passive (which has the highest occurrence out of other shifts) whereas the current study focuses on voice shift from two ways: from active to passive voice and passive to active voice. Venckiene mentioned that the number of occurrences for shift of passive voice to active is low. It is said that most of the object to subject shifts is not obligatory. However, the linguistic acceptability and stylistic appropriateness must be accounted in the translations.

Next, a past study by Khafaji (1996) deals with problems of translating English passives into Arabic. In his study, Khafaji investigates translation of finite passive verb in an English scientific article into Arabic. The researcher states preliminary assumption that Arabic does not favour much the use of passive and it would be challenging for the
English-Arab translator to approach a large number of English passive sentences in the scientific text.

The researcher stated what type passive constructions that would be part of the analysis. The analysis only involves English finite passive constructions. The non-finite passives are not taken into account but the non-finite constructions that appear in the corresponding Arabic translation are taken into consideration. The reason of including the non-finite constructions of Arabic translation in the analysis is because these represent “some of the alternatives” that the Arab translator has employed in the translation. The findings reveal that there are 76 instances of passive verb in the English scientific text with 20 instances are translated into passive verb and 21 instances are translated into active verb. The rest of the instances are rendered into Arabic by nominalized constructions with 21 instances consisting of an infinitive and 14 instances consisting of passive participles.

20 Arabic passive verbs are further divided into four patterns. The pattern is based on the type of passive verbs that exist in Arabic. 10 passive verbs belong to Pattern I which is the basic trilateral verb. Seven passive verbs in Pattern I are used in sentences when the agent is unknown or uncertain and the other three passive verbs are used in sentences when the agent is obvious. Next, seven passive verbs belong to Pattern II. The type of passive verb in this pattern is not explained in details. Based on the examples shown in the paper, two sentences have obvious agent while other three sentences are agentless. The researcher expects that the two sentences with obvious agent should be translated into active in Arabic.

The translation of English passive verb into Arabic by active verbs shows another alternative that has been employed by the English-Arabic translator when confronting the text. Four passive sentences in the English texts include the agent. It is expected for English-Arabic translator to render this type of passive construction into
Arabic active sentence. The other seventeen passive sentences are agentless passives. The seventeen active verbs in Arabic translation are used pseudo-intransitively where the grammatical subject is not the semantic agent but rather the affected participant. This explains why it is possible to translate English agentless passive sentences into Arabic active sentences. The researcher adds that the large number of occurrences in this part proves that Arabic tend to avoid as much passive form as possible.

35 finite passive verbs in the English sentences have been translated into Arabic by nominalised structures. 21 cases are from nominalised constructions with an infinitive (nominal complement). The occurrence of nominalised constructions with the infinitive in Arabic is due to two factors: (a) when the equivalent translation of the English passive verb belongs to morphological pattern which does not take the passive form in Arabic and (b) when the construction is in free variation with that of the passivized Arabic verb form; therefore providing Arabic an option to avoid using passive verb forms while still preserving the passivity in the source text. For nominalised construction with the passive participle, there are 14 instances found in the Arabic translation. The researcher found that the use of nominalised construction with the passive participle in the Arabic translation is due to the understanding of the English passive verb which refers as a state rather than a process. Furthermore, the semantic relation between the passive participles and the preceding noun phrase in all Arabic sentences and the notion of passivity are well preserved as of their equivalent English sentences.

Khafaji concludes that there are four translation alternatives in Arabic for the equivalent passive verbs in the English text. These alternatives prove that Arabic verbs have rich morphological systems as well as the moderately free word order in its sentences; thus, the use of passive form is not the main option in Arabic. Yet, Arabic
cannot be assumed as “a passive-avoiding language...but only expresses it differently” (Khafaji, 1996, p.37).

The only similarity of Khafaji’s study with the current study is to investigate voice shift between two different languages. However, the languages involved are different; Khafaji investigates passive voice shift from English to Arabic while this current study examines active-passive voice shift from Malay to English. The other difference which can be seen is the text type used where Khafaji used an English scientific text while this current study used a literary text. It is known that scientific texts often contain numerous numbers of passive forms. This is why Khafaji only focused on one type of voice shift which is from passive to active voice. In contrast, this current study investigates two types of voice shift: active to passive voice and passive to active voice. Furthermore, Khafaji only analysed the English passive finite but when there were non-finite constructions in the Arabic counterpart, they were taken into account. This current study includes Malay finite active and passive constructions and if there are non-finite constructions in the English counterpart, it would also be included in the analysis. This is due to the fact that these represent some of the choices that the translators have employed in the English translations.

To summarize, the past studies have shown the similarities and differences of the English voice system with that in other languages and provided a thorough analysis of active-passive voice shifts found in different text type. It seems that English has the tendency to use passive forms when compared to Arabic and Lithuanian language. On the contrary, French has more similarities to English on the use of the active-passive voice. One of the past studies also includes findings of change of the verb types; from intransitive verbs to transitive verbs. There are factors behind these occurrences of voice shift. Some of the changes are not obligatory but if the change does not happen, the sentence would sound unnatural in the target language (TL). In other words, the
translators need to consider the linguistic acceptability of TL and know when to employ the voice shift. Apart from that, there are changes that occur due to the translator’s choice. Differences in syntactical structure between the SL and the TL can also be one of the factors influencing the occurrence of voice shifts.

2.4 About the Author

Abdul Samad Muhammad Said or known as A. Samad Said is among the famous poet and novelist in Malaysia. He was born on 9th April 1935 in Kampung Belimbing Dalam, Durian Tunggal Melaka. When he was 6 months old, his family moved to Singapore. He got his first education at Sekolah Melayu Kota Raja until 5th Grade (1940-1946) and continued his studies at Victoria Institution where he got his Senior Cambridge Certificate in 1956. His interest towards creative writing and literature started since he was small when he liked to listen to his mother’s story telling. During secondary school, he loved to read literary texts locally and internationally; and even met few famous Singaporean writers like Asraf, Usman Awang and Han Suyin.

At the beginning of his career, in 1950, he started with writing poems and short stories in Malay. In fact, his poems and short stories were published when he was still in high school. Then, he began to write novel, drama and reviews on other literary texts. Salina is his first novel and was published when he was only 23 years old. The novel was considered as a masterpiece which placed his name and Malay literature in a prominent place. Despite its huge success as a novel for its unique writing style, Salina only won consolation prize in Peraduan Penulisan Novel Dewan Bahasa Dan Pustaka 1985. There were rumours that Salina was unofficially banned due to the controversial issues in the story related to supporting adultery and prostitution which were against Islamic teachings.
One of Samad Said’s literary or writing style is to include the elements of realism and nature in his novels (J Chek Embi, 2002). He was also known as being very intricate and particular about the characters in his novels as well as the storyline. The way he described the situation and the behaviour of each character was natural and felt alive. After Salina, among his famous novels are Sungai Mengalir Lesu (1967), Langit Petang (1980), Hujan Pagi (1992) and Daerah Zeni (1985). In Sungai Mengalir Lesu (available in English translated version known as Lazy River) the story reflected the struggle of the Malays and Indonesians during Japanese-Occupation in Singapore. It was inspired by his real experience growing up during the war which had left greater and deeper pain in him. Thus, most of the story in his novels depicted the effects of war and the sufferings of people.

His achievements and contributions towards enriching and elevating the value of Malay literature have been acknowledged by local leader when he and among other writers were honoured with the title of Pejuang Sastera (Literature Combatant) in 1976. In 1979, A.Samad Said was appointed by the Prime Minister as one of the panel members in Anugerah Sastera (Literature Award) and in the same year, he was awarded with Hadiah Penulisan Asia Tenggara (S.E.A Write Awards). His highest recognition was when he received the title as Sasterawan Negara Ke- 4 1985 (4th National Literature Laureate). In 1993, Brunei Darulsalam granted him with Anugerah ASEAN 1993: Kategori Sastera (ASEAN Award 1993: Literature Category). He also has been awarded with darjah kebesaran Negeri Melaka (Malacca State honour) which carried the title ‘Datuk’ from Yang Di-Pertua Negeri Melaka (the Governor of Malacca) in 1997.

A. Samad Said is still a literary advocate and an active writer on social media. He usually writes poems and pantun (Malay type of poems) on his Twitter account.
2.5 About the Translators

The first English translation of *Salina* is by an Australian translator, Harry Aveling (1975). Aveling is a well-known scholar for 35 years who specializes in translation from Indonesian and Malay. He also has outstanding translation works on Islamic texts (he is a Muslim convert and is aware of Malay-Muslim culture). His contributions to the international recognition of Malay literature have been acknowledged by the Federations of Malay Writing Societies (GAPENA). He was awarded with *Anugerah Pengembangan Sastera* in 1991. Besides, his translation *Secrets Need Words: Indonesian Poetry 1966-1998* (Ohio University Press 2001) was shortlisted for *NSW Premier’s Translation Award* 2003 and *Saint Rosa: Selected Verse of Dorothea Rose Herliany* (Indonesia Tera 2005) was the winner of the Khatulistiwa Prize for Poetry at Jakarta in 2006. Based on his biography in Monash University Melbourne Staff Profiles, he is currently a professor (with adjunct appointment) of Interpreting and Translation Studies in School of Languages, Cultures and Linguistics. He also has taught courses in Translation Studies at major universities in Southeast Asia like Jakarta & Yogyarkata, Indonesia; and Ho Chi Minh City and Hanoi, Vietnam.

The second translation of *Salina* was done by Hawa Abdullah (1991); a Malay female and non-native speaker of English. She was a local journalist who dissatisfied with Aveling’s translation and then decided to do “an almost verbatim translation of the novel...” (Zawiyah Baba, 2009). The translation was also done based on her own interest. The characters and storyline in the novel reflects her experience during the post-war. When she did the translation, she stayed true to the original because she believed that that was how the author wanted it to be.

Lalita Sinha is a Malaysian female translator and the daughter of migrant Bengalli parents. She studied world literature and continued her graduate studies in Comparative Literature at Universiti Sains Malaysia Penang. She had worked at
Universiti Sains Malaysia for more than 30 years and retired in 2006. Her last position was as a Senior Lecturer in Comparative Literature and Comparative Religion. After her retirement, she has involved in writing and publishing at home and abroad. Among her book, The Other Salina: A. Samad Said’s Masterpiece in Translations (2006) has been highly praised by A. Samad Said and also the academic book publisher’s council of Malaysia. She is also a co-editor and contributor of Exploring Space: Trends in Literature, Linguistics and Translation (2008). Her Ph.D research was honoured with the Best Thesis Award 2004 by Universiti Sains Malaysia. The research was about an interpretation and comparison of mystical poems of Hindu-Bhakti and Islamic Sufi traditions based on the Traditionalist point of view. She is now actively engaged in graduate training workshops, literary translations as well as publications and lectures on literature and mysticism.

2.6 Critical Reviews on Translations of Salina

English translations of Salina have received reviews and critiques from researchers and other translators. This section will discuss the critiques of three authors; Ruzy Suliza Hashim (1995), Aveling (2005) and Lalita Sinha (2006). The discussion includes comparison of Aveling’s translation and Hawa’s with the source text and between the translations, as well as the strengths and weaknesses of each translation. On the other hand, there are not many reviews on Lalita Sinha’s translation.

The first translation was undertaken by Harry Aveling (1975) and had received harsh critique from language researchers and translators. Ruzy Suliza Hashim (1995) and Lalita Sinha (2006) agreed that Aveling’s translation is shorter than the original. Ruzy thought that his translation is too free and not loyal to the original text due to its absence of repeated words and dependency on understatement, while Lalita Sinha stated that Aveling’s Salina “is considered to be an inadequate translation.” (Lalita Sinha,
2006, p.183), for the reason that he “forefronts an English-speaking audience” and inflicts “Western norms upon a non-Western text by adopting a strategy of generalization, paraphrase and omission” and resulting in “significant shift in culture-specific meaning, and a loss of part of the original identity” (ibid) Aveling’s mistranslations are also pointed out in the review. Mostly Aveling could not grasp the meaning of Malay idioms and has given the wrong translations (Ruzy Suliza Hashim, 1995). Ruzy states that mistranslation occurs when the translator interprets what happened in the original text whereas he or she should tell what happened in the original text. Salina is recreated by Aveling to serve his own purpose which unfortunately does not reflect the original Salina and the Malay culture.

Aveling (2005) admitted Ruzy’s critique on his translation. However, he said that “it is too naïve to expect the English translation to have exactly the same number of words as the Malay”. His aim for this translation is to find a plain English style which would adequately reflect A.Samad Said’s plain colloquial Malay. In addition, he claims that the translation is meant for readers outside Malaysia; particularly Sydney and London; in other words, the native speakers. Lalita disagreed with his approach where she stated that this could affect readers’ perception especially on “the depth and quality of original Salina.” Moreover, she believes that Aveling could do a better translation; considering his background which suggests “a personality and outlook that is empathetic to cultural influences other than his own.”

The second translation which was carried out by Hawa Abdullah (1991) shows different style and is very much in contrast with Aveling’s translation. Hawa’s translation is described as very loyal to the original text (Ruzy Suliza Hashim, 1995), “an accurate English representation of the original Malay text” (Lalita Sinha, 2006) and is longer than the first translation (Aveling 2005).
Hawa’s translation is indeed “a successful translation because it maintains valuable indicators of culture specific information in various ways, with creative and innovative linguistic devices, with the tested and well-worn methods of contextual and textual explanation, near-literal equivalents, and a glossary of terms” (Lalita Sinha, 2006). In other words, she is aware of the strategies that she uses in her translation. Her efforts to do the translation as closely as possible to the original text are shown in the writing itself. She successfully grasps and transforms every bit of words that describes each scene in the source text.

The downside of Hawa’s translation is said to be on the language. Aveling (2005) agrees that Hawa’s translation is closer to the original text and longer than his translation but with “bad” English. He admits he would definitely translate Salina like Hawa did if he was given the opportunity to do so but the translation would be in better English. Hawa is non-native to the target language and she is bound by linguistic difficulties. These are proved in the translation where at some points, “the language is stilted and awkward and the colloquial tone of the original expressions is distorted” (Lalita, 2006). As she is native to the source language, she uses a lot of Malaysian English (ME) expressions that are used in real life and this covers the lack of grammar and tone in her text. There are also cases where words and phrases in Indian dialects are translated into English. The translation sounds unnatural to the context. For example, ‘Ayooo’ is translated into ‘goodness gracious’. Lalita proposes that it is better to detain ME expressions only to dialogues.

Despite the flaws in her translation, Lalita believes that Hawa has demonstrated tremendous understanding and knowledge of Malay culture. Her translation signifies an effort to change the current practices in translating texts of “non-dominant source cultures to suit dominant target-cultures” (Lalita Sinha, 2006, p.183).
The third translation of *Salina* by Lalita Sinha (2013) has limited reviews and critiques. The only reference is on her reasons for doing the translation. She was fully aware that there are already two English translations of Salina. She did it because Aveling’s translation was not sufficient and did not capture the essence behind Salina’s story; while Hawa’s translation seemed “canggung” (awkward). She believes that the English TT of *Salina* should be done effectively thus Malay literature can attain its place among other well-known literary texts. Her purpose in translating the novel was to complement the other versions, not to prove which should be on top (Lalita Sinha, 2006).

2.7 Conclusion

The topics that have been discussed in Chapter 2 are translation shifts, active and passive voice in English and Malay language, research on voice shifts in translations, about the author, about the translators and critical reviews on translations of *Salina*. In Chapter 3, there will be discussion on data including the synopsis of Chapter 1 *Salina*, reasons of selecting *Salina* and last but not least, the methodology.
CHAPTER 3
DATA AND METHODOLOGY

Chapter 3 will discuss on the data including the synopsis of Chapter 1 of Salina, reasons for selecting Salina and last but not least, the methodology.

3.1 Data

The source text (ST) Salina, written by A.Samad Said, is a Malay literary text that was published by Dewan Bahasa dan Pusataka (DBP) in 1961. The text consists of 34 chapters with 495 pages and 133,369 words. It is considered as the ‘thickest’ Malay novel around that time. Salina has been translated into English three times by three different translators. This study used all three English translations and each target text (TT) are labelled as Target Text 1 (TT1), Target Text 2 (TT2) and Target Text 3(TT3); according to sequence of the first translation until the third translation.

Harry Aveling (1975) undertook the first translation. His translation was published 14 years later by the same publisher, DBP. The translation consists of 278 pages with 74,135 words. The second translation was carried out by Hawa Abdullah (1991) and also published by DBP. Her translation consists of 531 pages and 156,954 words. TT3 was translated by Lalita Sinha (2013) and published by Institut Terjemahan dan Buku Malaysia (ITBM). The last translation has the highest pages and word counts which are 579 pages and 157,729 words. All TT retained the number of chapter in ST. The word counts were included to show which TT that follows closely to the ST. Based on the word counts stated above, TT1 has the least word counts while TT2 and TT3 have more word counts than ST. There are two assumptions that can be drawn from this. First, TT1 does not follow closely to ST which suggests that there were non-translated sentences. Second, TT2 and TT3 closely follow the ST but there would have
been cases where elaborate meaning and description of Malay terms might have been needed in the translations and therefore, the excess in the word count.

Although there are 34 chapters in each text, only the first chapter (Chapter 1) was included as data sample in this study. It was decided to analyse one chapter only and the occurrences of active-passive voice shift found were deemed sufficient for this study.

3.1.1 About Salina: Chapter 1

Chapter 1 of Salina introduces several characters like Katijah, Hilmy, Siti Salina, Haji Karman, Kurupaya Samy and Nahidah. The story begins with the arrival of Katijah and Hilmy, the two newcomers, to Kampung Kambing. While they both were busy unloading their belongings from the truck, the villagers were talking or rather gossiping about the house. According to them, the rental fee was too expensive (Kurupaya had just given a raise) and the condition of the houses was too bad because the houses were not even worth to call a house. They were originally goat pens! Haji Karman was the first villager to approach Katijah and Hilmy. He asked so many questions to both of them. Suddenly, Siti Salina came out of nowhere and told Haji Karman to not being such a busy body. Other villagers nearby also told him the same and he went away. Then, Siti Salina introduced herself to Katijah and told her that she had been staying in Kampung Kambing for two years.

After a while, the owner of the house, Kurupaya Samy came. He, then proceeded to talk about the dos and the don’ts of renting his house. Siti Salina teased Kurupaya few times while he was talking to Katijah. He warned Katijah not to knock the wall too hard as it was not that strong, not to get rid the branches at the rooftop as they functioned as cover during rainy day and must pay the rental fees on time. After explaining everything to Katijah, Kurupaya wanted to leave but Siti Salina reminded
him about the water. He almost forgot about it; the most important issue when staying in Kampung Kambing. He explained that water was very scarce in the village. The water needed to be collected at night only and she must watch out for the Benggali guard if she wanted to use the water during the day. While they were talking, Hilmy went out of the room. Siti Salina introduced Kurupaya Samy to Hilmy and continued teasing Kurupaya. Kurupaya asked Katijah who Hilmy was and she told both of them that Hilmy was her son. Kurupaya left them three and went to his goats which had been tied to a tree.

Siti Salina kept talking to Katijah and suddenly, Kurupaya told Siti Salina that Abdul Fakar was calling for her. Siti Salina excused herself and went straight home. After a while, Kurupaya heard quarrelling voices and Katijah heard the voices too. Siti Salina came to Katijah again and told her that it was Zarina who was quarrelling with Sunarto, her late husband’s adopted son. While sweeping the floor, Katijah was talking to Hilmy about how weird their day had been; with water issue, quarrelling people and so on. All of a sudden, a girl ran into their house. They were puzzled. The girl was Nahidah, the stepdaughter of Zarina. She was also surprised to see Katijah and Hilmy as she thought nobody was in the house. She apologized and pleaded with both of them to not to tell Zarina her whereabouts. Katijah and Hilmy nodded and just looked at each other with puzzled faces.

3.1.2 Reasons for Selecting Salina

*Salina* focuses on the life of people in ‘Kampung Kambing’ (Goat Village) after World War II and how they struggled each day to survive. According to the author, at the beginning, the title of *Salina* was ‘Gerhana’ (Eclipse) because it was considered symbolic to the story. However, Samad Said changed the title to *Salina*, who happens to be the main character in the novel. All incidents and events in the story revolved around
the main character, *Salina*. He supposed that *Salina* is more suitable to be the title of the novel. He wrote in the preface;

*Buku ini mulanya diberi nama Gerhana sebagai pernyataan simbolik tentang isinya, tetapi setelah difikirkan semula nama simbolik itu saya tukar kepada nama yang lebih tepat. Salina ialah nama pelakon utama yang menjadi himpunan segala peristiwa dan tragedi yang diolah menjadi satu kehidupan dalam novel ini, Salina saya jadikan namanya.”* 
(A.Samad Said, 1987:ix)

*Salina* was a ground-breaking from traditional style of writing (Ahmad Mahmood Musanif, 1998). It was an example of the good modern Malay literature. The issues in society such as poverty, immorality in urban area and the struggle to survive were portrayed in *Salina*. Although these issues can also be found in other Malay literary texts, the richness of Malay language that has been portrayed throughout the story made it unique in style. According to Professor A. Teeuw (1984), in his review on *Salina*, the Malay language in *Salina* was unique on its own. He had never encountered such spoken Malay language used by the author used in other novels. The dialogue between each character was long and repetitive. He believed that these intentionally long and elaborated dialogues in *Salina* were to express the intensity of the situation. This style of language reflects typical Malayness. Teeuw also highlighted the fact that the author has given attention to small details. His style was almost naturalistic and the small details played a big role in describing human behaviours, their attributes and way of thinking.

Prof. A. Teeuw also stated that the story is ‘slow’ due to its non-straightforward policy. He described Samad Said as ‘pembayang suasana’; someone who was not just telling a story but a master in creating a situation and making all characters in the situation seemed alive. As a reader, it felt like the author had brought him into the story where he could watch each incident live in front of his eyes. Moreover, the interaction
between two characters was made different in each situation as if the same point was
repeated over and over again. This was how the suspense was maintained. Prof. A
Teeuw thought this was a clever move by A. Samad Said.

Second, *Salina* was chosen due to the fact that there were three English
translations by three different translators. There was also huge year gap between each
translation. The translators’ background and the year it was translated might have
influenced on the language especially on the use of active and passive voice. It was
interesting to see in what extent these translations preserve the ‘Malayness’ in *Salina* or
how many changes they have adopted in the translations. Thus, this study focused on
examining the occurrences active-passive voice shift in each translation as well as
making comparison of the shift between the translations and the original.

### 3.2 Methodology

There were a few steps that needed to be taken in order to obtain the source text and the
three target texts. The texts that were used in this study were in the form of soft copies.
They were all available only as hard copies at University of Malaya (UM) Main Library
and *Pusat Dokumentasi Melayu, Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka (DBP)*. Thus, request was
made for the soft copy of ST, TT1 and TT2 from the publisher which is *DBP*, while for
TT3, the request was made to *Institut Terjemahan dan Buku Malaysia (ITBM)*. However, it was not entertained due to copyright issue. Then, I contacted A. Samad
Said, the author himself, to ask him for the soft copy but he had not kept any. Lastly, it
was decided that the hard copy texts obtained from UM Main Library needed to be
scanned.

*Bab 1* (Chapter 1) of *Salina* in each text were scanned and converted into soft
copy. The scanning took about 1 month and during the process, there was difficulty in
maintaining the alignment, resulting in a few words and/or sentences not being scanned
or turning out blurry. Thus, corrections were made by comparing these with the hard
copy texts to mend the missing parts. After converting the texts into soft copy, each
sentence in Bab 1 (Chapter 1) from each text were divided and aligned in a table using
Microsoft Word.

The method of analysis which followed was comparative and contrastive textual
analysis; aimed to mark every active verb and passive verb in the Malay text and see
how it was rendered in the English translations. The analysis of data includes Malay
finite active and passive constructions. However, English non-finite forms which appear
in the English text as translation equivalents to Malay finite active and passive forms
were also taken into consideration and analysed. This is due to the fact that these
represent some of the choices that the translators had employed in the English
translations. In addition, since the data sample used only covered a small part of the
whole text, any possible change need to be taken into account.

Next, this section would explain the steps for data analysis. First, each TT was
aligned together with ST. Then, each text were analysed side by side, labelled and
counted. The text was divided into four categories; (I) active intransitive verb and (T)
active transitive verb and (P) passive verb. The active verbs are divided into two types
for the reason to see whether there is ST active intransitive sentence changed into
passive in TT or ST passive sentence translated into intransitive active sentence in TT.

Next, the occurrences of non translated texts were also identified and counted.
The identified non translated texts are categorized into two types: fully truncated text
and semi truncated text. Fully truncated text means that the translator omitted the whole
clause in the translation while semi truncated text where the translator omitted part of
the verbs in the whole clause. However, it is not considered as non translated text if the
verbs are conceptualized as adverbs/adjunctives/noun phrase. The examples from the data
sample will be provided in Chapter 4.
The process to identify the occurrences of active-passive voice shifts was divided into two steps. First step, the voice shift was analysed from ST to each TT; ST and TT1, ST and TT2; and ST and TT3. This step was to answer Research Question 1: how has the usage of active-passive voice changed in TT1, TT2 and TT3 as compared to the ST? The voice shift was divided into four types: active intransitive to passive voice shifts, active transitive to passive voice shift, passive to active intransitive voice shift and passive to active transitive voice shift. Based on the data samples, the occurrences of active intransitive and active transitive to passive voice shift were identified between the ST and each TT. After that, the same step was applied to find the occurrences of passive to active intransitive voice shift. The highest and lowest numbers of occurrences of voice shift for each category were then identified.

The second step involved comparison of voice shift between the target texts; TT1, TT2 and TT3. For each voice shift category mentioned in the first step, the patterns of shift were identified. The patterns were categorized by the number of occurrences of voice shift between TTs. The patterns were: Pattern I shift occurs in all translations, Pattern II shift occurs in TT1 and TT2, Pattern III shift occurs in TT2 and TT3 and Pattern IV shift occurs in TT1 and TT3, Pattern V shift occurs only in TT1, Pattern VI shift occurs only in TT2 and Pattern VII shift occurs only in TT3. Then, the patterns with the most and least occurrence were determined.

After answering Research Question 1 above, the factors that lead to the changes of voice in the three English translations were analysed to answer Research Question 2: What are the factors which have influenced the translators’ active-passive voice shifts in their translation? The factors were determined by identifying the underlying structure of Malay and English in each example of voice shifts in the data sample. The importance of this Research Question 2 was to find out whether the changes are
governed by language peculiarity or the translator’s choice (Mohamed, 2015). The factors found were analysed and categorized.

3.3 Conclusion

The topics that have been discussed in Chapter 3 are data including the synopsis of Chapter 1 of Salina, reasons for selecting Salina and lastly, the methodology. In Chapter 4, there will be discussion on the summary of data, the findings of occurrences of active to passive voice shift and occurrences for passive to active voice shift as well as the findings related to the factors which have influenced the translators’ active-passive voice shifts in their translations.
CHAPTER 4
DATA ANALYSIS

The topics that will be discussed in Chapter 4 are the summary of data, the findings for Research Question 1 which is the occurrence of active to passive voice shift and the occurrence of passive to active voice shift; and the findings of Research Question 2 which is the factors which have influenced the translators’ active-passive voice shifts in their translations.

4.1 Summary of Data

This study was aimed to investigate the occurrences of active-passive voice shifts in Malay source text (ST) entitled Salina by A.Samad Said with its three English target texts by Harry Aveling (1975), Hawa Abdullah (1991) and Lalita Sinha (2013). One chapter which is Chapter 1 from ST and the three target texts (TT1, TT2 and TT3) has been chosen as data sample. The summary of data includes total of clauses with active intransitive verbs, active transitive verbs and passive verbs; and other types of clauses or phrases; and total occurrences of non-translated clause.

First, ST and the three TTs were analysed to identify for clauses with active intransitive verbs, active transitive verbs and passive verbs. After that, the clauses were labelled with the category initial as in (I) for active intransitive, (T) for active transitive, (P) for passive The active verbs were divided into two types due to the fact that there were shift of active intransitive to passive and passive to active intransitive. Other types of clauses and phrases were also analysed, counted and labelled under (O) ‘others’. Then, each clause category was counted. The total number of clauses for each category is presented in the table as below. The percentage shown follows this formula:

\[
\frac{\text{Total number in clause category}}{\text{Total number of all clauses}} \times 100\%
\]
Table 4.1: Total number and percentage (%) of active intransitive and active transitive verbs, and passive verbs; and other types of clauses and phrases

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause Category</th>
<th>ST</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>TT1</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>TT2</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>TT3</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Active Intransitive</td>
<td>402</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>299</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>367</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>365</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active Transitive</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>236</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passive</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of Clauses</td>
<td>687</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>537</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>643</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>644</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.1 shows the total number and percentage of clause with active intransitive verbs, active transitive verbs and passive verbs in ST and the three target texts: TT1, TT2 and TT3. The findings reveal that ST has a total number of 687 clauses; TT1 has the total number of 537 clauses; TT2 has the total number of 643 clauses; and TT3 has the total number of 644 clauses. Based on the table, intransitive active is the most in all texts; followed by active transitive verbs. Passive has the least number in all texts. If you just look at active transitive verbs, it is found that there is increase of number in all TTs; while for active intransitive and passive verbs, it shows the decrease in number of usage in all TTs.

The total number for each clause category in all TTs shows that TT2 and TT3 have relatively close total numbers. TT2 has 367 clauses for active intransitive while TT3 has 365 clauses; TT2 has 236 clauses in active transitive while TT3 has 241 clauses; TT2 has 40 passive clauses while TT3 has 39 clauses; and TT2 has 233 clauses in others while TT3 has 237 clauses. TT1, on one hand, shows lower total number in all categories of clause compare to TT2 and TT3; where it has 299 clauses of active intransitive, 212 clauses of active transitive and 26 clauses of passive.

It is worth noting that passive forms are used abundantly in the Malay text with 84 clauses in total but for English translations, the number is much lower with 26
clauses only in TT1, 40 clauses in TT2 and 39 clauses in TT3. This could be lead to a pre-conclusion that most of the passive forms in ST are translated into active verbs in the English translations.

The total number of all clauses reveals that there are only a small number of differences between ST, TT and TT3. On one hand, TT1 shows a relatively greater difference with the total number with only 537 clauses compared to ST, TT2 and TT3. This might be due to a large number of occurrences for non-translated clauses. The number of occurrences and percentage of non-translated clauses are shown below. The percentage shown follows this formula:

\[ \text{Percentage} = \left( \frac{\text{Total number of non-translated clause}}{\text{Total number of all clauses}} \right) \times 100\% \]

Table 4.2: The occurrence and percentage (%) of non-translated clauses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Target Text</th>
<th>ST-TT1</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>ST-TT2</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>ST-TT3</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL OCCURRENCE</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.2 shows total occurrence and percentage of non-translated clauses in TT1, TT2 and TT3. Based on the results, TT1 has the highest number of non-translated clauses with a total of 139 clauses; followed by TT3 with 30 clauses in total and the least number is shown in TT2 with 4 clauses only. This percentage shows that Aveling’s translation was clearly much shorter compared to Hawa’s (TT2) and Lalita’s translation (TT3). These findings also reveal that TT2 is the closest translation to ST as it has a distinctly small percentage of untranslated clauses. An example of a non-translated clause is shown in Figure 4.1 below:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clause 1 Tapi pagi-pagi <strong>angkau</strong> (subject) <strong>mesti berak</strong> (active intransitive) sini;</td>
<td>But in the morning, <strong>you</strong> (subject) <strong>have to do</strong> (active transitive) <strong>it</strong> (object) here;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>(but in the morning you must defecated here)</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause 2 itu semak- semak punya dalam <strong>angkau</strong> (subject) <strong>berak</strong> (active intransitive)</td>
<td><strong>in the bushes</strong> <em>(phrase)</em>,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>(There in the bushes, you defecated)</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 4.1:** An Example of a Non-translated Clause

Figure 4.1 above shows the change of ST active intransitive verb ‘berak’ into transitive active verb ‘have to do’ in TT2 in clause 1; while clause 2 in ST is not translated into another clause in TT2 rather it is translated into a phrase ‘in the bushes. The phrase seems to be derived from complement clause in clause 2 in ST ‘itu semak-semak punya dalam’ (there in the bushes).

If we look at TT3 non-translated clauses, there are 30 instances altogether. The number implies that TT3 total number of all clauses does not tally with the total number of all clauses in the ST. This is due to two factors described below:
1) One clause is translated into two or more clauses in TT3.

### Figure 4.2: Translation of One Clause into Two Clauses

Figure 4.2 demonstrates clause 1 in ST is divided into two clauses in TT3. TT3 clause 1 is taken from a combination of ST clause 1 ‘sampuk seorang perempuan muda’ and ‘yang cantik paras mukanya’ while TT3 clause 2 is taken from adjective phrase ‘kurus tinggi’ where it shows a change of adjective phrase into complement clause.

2) Additional clause (which does not exist in ST).

### Figure 4.3: Addition of Clause

Figure 4.3 demonstrates clause 2 ‘he said’ has been added in TT3 although it does not have the corresponding clause in ST.
4.2 Findings

The findings are divided into two sections. First section is the attempt to answer Research Question 1 which is related to the occurrences of active-passive voice shifts between ST and each TT (ST and TT1; ST and TT2; and ST and TT3). Four types of voice shift were identified: active intransitive to passive voice shift, active transitive to passive voice shift, passive to active intransitive voice shift and passive to active transitive voice shift. Second section is the analysis for Research Question 2 which is the factors which have influenced the translators’ active-passive voice shifts in their translations.

There were cases where ST active sentences and passive sentences were changed into other types of sentence in TT such as the complement clause (when comparing each TT side by side). The changes would be discussed throughout the examples. They were included in the analysis for the reason to see any possible change that each translator has employed.

4.2.1 Occurrences and Patterns of Active to Passive Voice Shift

The results for the occurrences of active intransitive and active transitive to passive voice shift are presented in the table below. The percentage shown follows this formula:

\[
\text{Frequency of TT active intransitive voice shift} \times 100\% \\
\text{ST total number of all clauses (687)}
\]

AND

\[
\text{Frequency of TT active transitive voice shift} \times 100\% \\
\text{ST total number of all clauses (687)}
\]
Table 4.3: Total occurrence and percentage (%) of active intransitive to passive voice shift and active transitive to passive voice shift

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Target Text</th>
<th>TT1</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>TT2</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>TT3</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Active Intransitive to Passive</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active Transitive to Passive</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.3 demonstrates the total occurrence and percentage of first two types of voice shift: active intransitive to passive voice shift and active transitive to passive voice shift. The results reveal that for active intransitive, there are 4 occurrences in TT1, 4 occurrences in TT2 and 6 occurrences in TT3; while for active transitive, there are 5 occurrences in TT1, 3 occurrences in TT2 and 7 occurrences in TT3. It can be concluded that Lalita (TT3) employ more changes from both types of active verb to passive compared to Aveling (TT1) Hawa (TT2). Aveling and Hawa have similar number of occurrences for active intransitive to passive shift (4 occurrences). Hawa shows the least changes in active transitive to passive (3 occurrences).

There is only a slight difference of number between the occurrences of active intransitive to passive voice and active transitive to passive voice. Active intransitive has outnumbered active intransitive by 1 occurrence (total of 16 occurrences in active intransitive compare to total of 15 occurrences in active intransitive).

After identifying the two types of active voice shift above, they showed certain patterns of shift when comparing the translations to each other. The identified patterns were as follow: Pattern I: occurrence of shifts in TT1, TT2 and TT3, Pattern II: occurrence of shift in TT1 and TT2, Pattern III: occurrence of shift in TT2 and TT3, Pattern IV: occurrence of shifts in TT1 and TT3, Pattern V: occurrence of shift in
TT1, **Pattern VI**: occurrence of shift in TT2 and **Pattern VII**: occurrence of shift in TT3. The frequency of patterns is explained as below:

**Table 4.4: Frequency of patterns for active intransitive to passive voice shift and active transitive to passive voice shift**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Patterns</th>
<th>Frequency for Active Intransitive to Passive</th>
<th>Frequency for Active Transitive to Passive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pattern I: TT1, TT2 &amp; TT3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pattern II: TT1 &amp; TT2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pattern III: TT2 and TT3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pattern IV: TT1 and TT3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pattern V: TT1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pattern VI: TT2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pattern VII: TT3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.4 shows frequency of patterns of active intransitive to passive voice shift and active transitive to passive voice shift. The findings reveal that there are 2 occurrences identified for Pattern I in active intransitive; while there is no occurrence recorded for active transitive. Pattern II has no occurrence of active intransitive and active transitive to passive voice shift. Pattern III has 2 occurrences in both types of active verb. Patter IV in active intransitive is unavailable while there is 1 occurrence in active transitive. Pattern V shows 2 occurrences in active intransitive and 4 occurrences in active transitive. Pattern VI shows only 1 occurrence in active intransitive while 2 occurrences in active transitive. Last but not least, Pattern VII has 4 occurrences in active intransitive while 5 occurrences in active transitive.

It can be concluded that Pattern VII has the highest number of occurrences in active transitive voice (5 occurrences in active transitive); followed by Pattern V (4
occurrences) and Pattern VI (2 occurrences). The lowest number of occurrences is in Pattern III and Pattern IV (1 occurrence). For active intransitive, Pattern VII shows the highest number of occurrences (3 occurrences), followed by Pattern I and Pattern V (2 occurrences); while Pattern II, Pattern III and Pattern VI show the least number of occurrences (1 occurrence). The findings also demonstrate that active transitive has higher number of occurrences in Pattern VII (5 occurrences) compare to active intransitive (4 occurrences). To summarize, the number implies that the changes occur more in single translation than in multiple translations. This suggests that each translator has his/her own choice or reasons of changing the active voice to passive.

The examples from data sample for each pattern and each type of active voice are shown below:

➢ Pattern I: occurrence of shift in TT1, TT2 and TT3

**Active Intransitive to Passive**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT1</th>
<th>TT2</th>
<th>TT3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Kerana seluruh rumah itu mahu digunakan oleh tuan punya yang baharu itu, maka mereka berdua, bersama-sama tiga empat keluarga lainnya (subject) pun, terpaksalah pindah. (active intransitive)</td>
<td>The new owner needed the whole area, and Hilmy, his mother, and three or four other families (passive subject) had been forced (passive verb) to move (post predicate to-clause)</td>
<td>As the entire house was to be made use of by its new owner, the two of them along with three or four other families (passive subject) were forced (passive verb) to move out (post predicate to-clause).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example 1 shows the shift of ST active intransitive verb ‘terpaksalah pindah’ into passive verb ‘had been forced’ in TT1; and ‘were forced’ in TT2 and TT3. As we can see, ST subject ‘merupakan berdua, bersama-sama tiga empat keluarga lainnya’ is
similar to the passive subject in all TTs; TT1 passive subject ‘Hilmy, his mother, and three or four other families’, TT2 passive subject ‘the two of them along with three or four other families’ and TT3 passive subject ‘these two, as well as three or four other families’. ST subject is treated as affected participant in all TTs which suggests that there is an agent involved. The unexpressed agent is understood to be ‘the new owner’ of the house which is mentioned as subject in the preceding clause in TT1 and TT3; and as passive object ‘by its new owner’ in TT2. It is also not expressed with ‘by’ phrase because, based on the context, the new owner does not directly chase away the former inhabitants; instead the circumstances that force the former inhabitants to move out from the house.

It seems that ST active intransitive main verb ‘pindah’ is translated into to-clause in the TTs and TTs passive verb ‘were forced’ is taken from ST ‘terpaksalah’ which precedes the main verb ‘pindah’. Therefore, it can be summarized that the change is influenced by the use of Malay ‘kata tugas’ (function word) ‘terpaksa’ which carries the equivalent meaning to Malay modal verb ‘mesti’ (Hasan Muhammad Ali et.al, 2001) and English modal verb ‘must’ and semi modal ‘have to’. When prefix ‘ter-’ is attached to Malay verb ‘paksa’ (which has equivalent meaning to English verb ‘force’), it changes the verb into function word and it is usually followed by another main verb. In this context, ‘terpaksalah’ precedes the main verb ‘pindah’ which carries the meaning of ‘mesti pindah’ and it can be translated into English as ‘must move out’.

Active Transitive to Passive: None in the sample

➢ Pattern II: occurrence of shift in TT1 and TT2

Active Intransitive to Passive: None in the sample

Active Transitive to Passive: None in the Sample

➢ Pattern III: occurrence of shift in TT2 and TT3
Active Intransitive to Passive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT1</th>
<th>TT2</th>
<th>TT3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>tapi enjinnya (subject) yang tidak sihat itu masih terus tergigil-gigil. (active intransitive)</td>
<td>Its unhealthy engine (subject) continued shivering (active intransitive)</td>
<td>but the engine (passive subject) which was not in the best of condition, was kept (passive verb) running.</td>
<td>The engine (passive subject) was left (passive verb) to idle, still sputtering and jerking</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example 2 shows the change of ST active intransitive with prefix ‘ter-’ into passive voice in TT2 and TT3. A closer look reveals that this change is made possible by putting ST subject ‘enjinnya’ into similar grammatical position in TT2 and TT3. Nevertheless, the passivation has changed the grammatical role of ST ‘enjinnya’ from the agent into the affected participant in TT2 and TT3. However, the performer is not mentioned with ‘oleh’ by phrase because it is unknown. TT2 uses the passive verb ‘was kept’ and it was completed by a verbal noun ‘running’. Based on the context, the combination of ‘was kept running’ carries semantic meaning: ‘to maintain the operational of the engine’. Meanwhile, TT3 uses passive verb ‘was left’ followed by infinitive + intransitive verb ‘to idle’ which both completes the semantic meaning of: ‘to let the engine at low power’. In addition, the use of following two verbs ‘sputtering and jerking’ gives explicit description on the condition of engine while it was left. TT3 manages to capture the meaning behind ‘tergigil-gigil’ and it can be seen if it is in complete clause, for example, ‘the engine was still sputtering and jerking’.

On the other hand, TT1 retains the active structure of ST. ST active intransitive ‘tergigil-gigil’is translated into active transitive ‘continued shivering’. The factor governing this choice is believed to describe explicitly the Malay intransitive verb
‘tergigil-gigil’ which carries semantic meaning of a continuous shaking (due to the repetition of the verb ‘gigil’).

It can be drawn out that the shift of ST active intransitive verb into passive in TT2 and TT3 is due to the use of prefix ‘ter-’ attached to ST main verb which has ambiguous active and passive form (Siaw-Fong, 2011). In the context above, prefix ‘ter-’ carries the semantic meaning of ‘dalam keadaan tersedia’ (in the state of availability) which shows that the verb is in active form.

**Active Transitive to Passive**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT1</th>
<th>TT2</th>
<th>TT3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>“Air susah, nak buang air besar susah, <em>bayar</em> (active transitive) <em>sewanya</em> (object) mesti tetap harinya, dan sekarang baharu satu hari <em>kita</em> (subject) pindah dah terdengar orang bergaduh.”</td>
<td>&quot;You can't use the water, you can’t use the toilet, <em>you</em> (subject) <strong>have to pay</strong> (active transitive) <em>the rent</em> (object) on the right day and people are fighting the moment we arrive.”</td>
<td>Problems getting water, problems using the toilet, <em>rent</em> (subject) must <strong>be paid</strong> (passive verb) on the dot, now on the first day we move, already hearing about people fighting.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example 3 shows ST incomplete sentence with active transitive verb ‘bayar’ followed by the object ‘sewanya’. This is considered as incomplete sentence due to missing grammatical subject in the front position. Nevertheless, as it can be seen in the following sentence, the subject can be derived from the noun phrase ‘kita’ (we). This could be the complete sentence: ‘kita mesti bayar sewanya tetap pada harinya’ (we must pay the rent on the fixed date). As this clause is situated in conversation, it is expected to see sentence like this (such as incomplete sentence or inverse sentence) in the Malay text where the fronting in sentence is more on the issues or the actions. It is also highly
dependent to the context; who the speaker is and what issues the speaker are talking about. The above context explains Katijah’s mumbling on how she feels about the day.

As we can see, ST active transitive verb above is changed into passive form in TT2 and TT3. It shows that TT2 passive subject ‘the rent’ and TT3 passive subject ‘rent’ correspond to ST object ‘sewanya’. This means that the affected participant becomes the subject in the passive construction. The passive verb used in both TTs is ‘be paid’ (base form: ‘pay’) where it has equivalent meaning to Malay verb ‘bayar’. If we look at TT1, ST active transitive verb is retained. However, TT1 includes first person pronoun ‘you’ as the subject not pronoun ‘we’ from following clause ‘we arrive’. In this context, ‘you’ does not refer to specific person rather it is an expression used when talking to one self. This change is due to the difference of underlying Malay structure with English structure. If ST is retained, it looks like the sentence has been translated literally and it would sound unnatural in the TL. The translator needs to add other information to make the sentence more explicit and complete; just like what the translator of TT1 has done to his translation (by adding the subject ‘you’ and auxiliary ‘have to’)

➢ Pattern IV: occurrence of shift in TT1 and TT3

Active Intransitive to Passive: None in the Sample

Active Transitive to Passive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT1</th>
<th>TT2</th>
<th>TT3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Kebanyakan daripada rumah-rumah mereka (subject) dahulunya sama ada sudah menjadi (active verb) mangsa bom</td>
<td>The inhabitants’ former houses (passive subject) had, in most cases, been bombed (passive verb) or rented by their landlords to</td>
<td>A large number of these houses (subject) had in former times been (verb to be) either the target of bombing (complement noun)</td>
<td>Most of these people’s homes (passive subject) had been bombed (passive verb) during the war or the ownership had changed hands</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Example 4 above shows ST active transitive verb ‘menjadi’ changed into short passive in TT1 and TT3. The active voice marking can be seen on the use of ‘men-’ attached to the base verb ‘jadi’.

TT1 and TT3 demonstrate similarity in the use of short passive. The similarity can be seen in the passive construction: ‘have + been + -ed participle’. The agent is unexpressed because the agent is generic, not specific and can be assumed by looking at the context (refer to word ‘war’ and ‘bombed’ as clue). The marked issue here is that passive subject corresponds to ST subject not ST object. This is due to different translation of ST main verb ‘menjadi’. The direct translation of the main verb is English verb ‘become’. However, both translators referred to the noun ‘bom’ in the noun phrase ‘mangsa bom’ (victim of bombing) and transform it as the main verb in both TT. Thus, ‘had been bombed’ is used while the ST subject is retained as Passive Subject. On the other hand, TT2 does not follow ST active structure instead the sentence is translated into complement clause of noun phrase. It can be concluded that the change is due to translator’s choice.
Pattern V: occurrence of shift in TT1

Active Intransitive to Passive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT1</th>
<th>TT2</th>
<th>TT3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td><em>Kebanyakan daripada rumah-rumah mereka</em> (subject) dahulunya sama ada sudah menjadi mangsa bom atau pun sudah <em>bertukar</em> (active intransitive) <em>tangan</em> (obligatory complement) kepada tuan-tuan punya baharu sehingga mereka pun terhalau.</td>
<td><em>The inhabitants’ former houses</em> (passive subject) <em>had</em>, in most cases, <em>been</em> bombed or <em>rented</em> (passive verb) <em>by their landlords</em> (passive object) to tenants who could pay more than they could.</td>
<td><em>A large number of these houses</em> (subject) had in former times been either the target of bombing or <em>had since changed</em> (active intransitive) <em>hands</em> (complement) and now had new owners until such time as they themselves became displaced.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example 5 above shows ST active intransitive verb ‘bertukar’ changed into long passive in TT1. The active voice marking can be seen on the use of ‘ber-’ attached to the base verb ‘tukar’. Based on the context, the active intransitive verb is followed by obligatory complement ‘tangan’ which carries the expression of changing ownership and without the obligatory complement, the sentence is considered as incomplete.

The passive structure in TT1 shows that the passive subject is similar to ST subject. It suggests that there is a change of grammatical role of the subject where it is treated as affected participant in the translation and the agent is expressed in by phrase ‘by their landlord’. The passive verb ‘had been rented’ is used as the change from active intransitive ‘sudah bertukar’. However, this verb is not equivalent in meaning to the Malay verb ‘tukar’. This change is due to translator’s choice.
The closest translation can be seen in TT2 and TT3 where there is no change of verb type. The verb used in TT2 and TT3 is active intransitive verb ‘had changed’. Nevertheless, there is a change of grammatical subject in both TTs. TT2 follows ST active structure where it uses similar subject and includes the complement which cannot be omitted as to complete the message. On the other hand, TT3 uses ‘the ownership’ as the subject and in this active structure, complement ‘hands’ is not necessary because without the complement, the message is still understandable.

**Active Transitive to Passive**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT1</th>
<th>TT2</th>
<th>TT3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>“Ini macam saya mesti jaga keras lagilah,” kata Benggali yang menjaga (subject) yang menjaga (active transitive verb) paip air (direct object) di rumah pekerja-kerja P. W.D. itu.</td>
<td>“More work for me,” he said to no-one in particular. The water-taps (passive subject) at the P.W.D. barracks were guarded (passive verb) by a Benggali. (passive object)</td>
<td>“Looks like I have to watch out more carefully,” said the Sikh watchman (subject) guarding (active transitive verb) the water taps of the P.W.D. workers houses. (object)</td>
<td>“Seems I must be more alert,” said the Sikh watchman (subject) who looked after (active transitive verb) the water pipes of the P.W.D. quarters (object).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example 6 shows ST active transitive ‘menjaga’ followed by direct object noun phrase ‘paip air’. The active voice marking can be seen on the use of prefix ‘men’ attached to base verb ‘jaga’. The active transitive is changed into long passive in TT1 where the agent is expressed. In this context, the agent ‘a Benggali’ is expressed because it is considered as new information and not stated in the preceding clause. The fact that determiner ‘a’ is used preceding the noun phrase ‘Benggali’ suggests that it does not refer to any specific Benggali. Nevertheless, the Benggali mentioned in ST
directly refers to the one who does the talking in the dialogue above (kata Benggali jaga...)

TT2 and TT3, on the other hand, retain the ST active transitive structure. The active transitive verb ‘menjaga’ is translated into ‘guarding’ in TT2; while it is translated into ‘looked after in TT3. TT2 shows that the transitive verb is situated in relative clause where the full clause might be ‘said the Sikh watchman who is guarding the water taps of the P.W.D. workers houses’. TT3 also shows that the transitive verb is in relative clause where there is a relativizer ‘who’ linking the preceding clause.

➢ Pattern VI: occurrence of shift in TT2

Active Intransitive to Passive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT1</th>
<th>TT2</th>
<th>TT3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Dua tiga orang budak mengejarnya bersama-sama seekor anjing kurus berpenyakit manakala mereka (subject) yang tinggal (active intransitive) bersorak-sorak, menjadikan suasana hingar-bingar.</td>
<td>A few children and the thin mangy dog chased the truck, while everyone else cheered them. Two or three children ran after it along with a thin mangy dog while those (passive subject) who were left behind (passive verb) cheered and applauded making such an awful din.</td>
<td>Two or three children ran after it along with a mangy, diseased dog, while those (subject) who had remained (active intransitive) behind cheered and clapped, stirring up a rowdy, boisterous atmosphere.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example 7 shows the shift from ST active intransitive ‘tinggal’ into passive verb ‘were left behind’ in TT2. TT2 passive subject ‘those’ is similar to ST subject ‘mereka’. This means that ST subject is treated as affected participant in TT2 which suggests that there is an agent involved. However, it is considered as unnecessary to express as it is
understood that the agent is ‘two or three children’ from the preceding clause (e.g. ‘those were left behind by two or three children). TT2 passive verb consists of verb ‘to be’ and ‘-ed’ participle phrasal verb ‘left behind’. The phrasal verb carries the meaning of ‘to increase the distance by which you are ahead of someone or something). The change is due to translator’s choice. As we can see, it is possible to retain ST active structure. TT3 shows the use of active intransitive ‘had remained’. ST subject ‘mereka’ corresponds to TT3 subject ‘those’. The translation for the active intransitive ‘tinggal’ in TT1 is ‘everyone else’. The translator changes the clause into noun phrase and acts as subject for the preceding clause ‘everyone else cheered them’.

Active Transitive to Passive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT1</th>
<th>TT2</th>
<th>TT3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Siang-siang angkau (subject) tak boleh ambil (active transitive) air (object).</td>
<td>You (subject) can’t have (active transitive) any water (object) in the daytime.</td>
<td>Day time you (subject) cannot be taking (active transitive) water (object).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example 8 shows the shift from ST active transitive ‘tak boleh ambil’ into passive verb ‘are not allowed’ in TT2. The active verb used in ST is in base form where there is no morphological active marking. However, the active verb is followed by direct object noun phrase ‘air’. Thus, the verb is considered as active transitive verb. The main verb also comes with negation ‘tak’ and modal verb ‘boleh’.

The marked issue is that ST active subject ‘angkau’ (the spelling is rather colloquial as the correct one is ‘engkau’) is similar to TT2 active subject ‘you’. This means that ST subject is treated as the affected participant in the translation. Next, the use of passive verb ‘are not allowed’ carries semantic role of prohibition which it is
compulsory for the passive subject ‘you’ to follow the order. The person giving the order could be from the speaker itself or other authority. This change is due to translator’s choice and the motive is to give more focus on the issue in the context where the water problem in the village is a very serious matter and the newcomer should be warned about this.

TT1 and TT3 retain the ST active transitive structure where both TTs use modal verb can + negative not which reflects the equivalent translation for ‘tak boleh’ while for the main verb ‘ambil’, TT1 translates it as ‘have’; while TT3 translates it as ‘be taking’ where it is the equivalent translation for ‘ambil’.

➢ Pattern VII: occurrence of shift in TT3

Active Intransitive to Passive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT1</th>
<th>TT2</th>
<th>TT3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Ia dikenal demikian, kata orang yang tahu sejarahnya, kerana rumah-rumah (subject) yang didirikan di situ sebenar berasal (active intransitive) dari kandang-kandang kambing (obligatory complement).</td>
<td>It was so named, according to those who were familiar with its history, because the houses (subject) had once been (verb to be) goat stalls (complement).</td>
<td>According to those familiar with its history, it got its name from the origin of the present day houses in the village. Originally they (subject) were (verb to be) goat-sheds or pens (complement) later extended by their owners for the purpose of renting them out.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Example 9 shows the shift from ST active intransitive ‘berasal’ into TT3 passive verb ‘were built’. The active intransitive verb ‘berasal’ falls under category of intransitive verb that must be followed by the obligatory complement, as in this context, the obligatory complement is ‘dari kandang-kandang kambing’. ST subject ‘rumah-rumah’ corresponds to TT3 passive subject ‘the houses’. ST obligatory complement which consists of prepositional ‘dari’ and noun phrase kandang-kandang is changed to noun phrase ‘goat pens’ in TT3. The change is due to the difference of Malay underlying structure with English structure. It would sound unnatural in English if ST active intransitive sentence is translated word by word. As we can see in TT1 and TT2, another alternative of translation is that to change the sentence into complement clause.

**Active Transitive to Passive**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT1</th>
<th>TT2</th>
<th>TT3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Dan dua tiga orang yang berdekan di situ sekadar mentertawakannya sahaja melihatkan gelagat budak-budak nakal itu, manakala drebarnya (subject) memarahi (active transitive) kanak-kanak (object) itu sewaktu keluar.</td>
<td>The children would briefly run away, when the driver (subject) came back and scolded (active transitive) them (object) then return and blow the horn again.</td>
<td>Two or three others nearby simply laughed at the antics of the naughty children when the driver (subject) scolded (active transitive) them (object) on coming out of the house.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example 10 shows the shift from ST active transitive verb ‘memarahi’ into TT3 passive verb ‘get told off’ followed by the agent ‘by the driver’. It is to be noted that ‘get’ passive commonly occurs in conversation. In this context, ‘get’ passive is used because it is paired with phrasal verb ‘told off’ which brings negative connotation. The
use of passive form might be due to maintaining the flow from previous clause. As we can see that the noun phrase ‘the cheeky ones’ (the term used to describe the children) is the given information. Moreover, as the agent is also included to act as given information to the following clause ‘he came out again’. Therefore, it can be summarized that this change is due to translator’s choice.

Meanwhile, TT1 and TT2 retain ST active transitive structure. It is shown in both TTs that ST subject is translated as ‘the driver’. The active transitive ‘memarahi’ is translated as ‘scolded’ while ST object ‘kanak-kanak’ is translated as ‘them’. It seems that ‘the driver’ is not translated into pronoun because it is considered as new information in the main clause.

4.2.2 Occurrences and Patterns of Passive to Active Voice Shift

The results for the occurrences of passive to active intransitive voice shift and passive to active transitive voice shift are presented in the table below. The percentage shown follows this formula:

\[
\text{Frequency of TT passive to active intransitive voice shift} \times 100\% = \frac{\text{Frequency of TT passive to active intransitive voice shift}}{\text{ST total number of all clauses (687}}} \times 100\%
\]

AND

\[
\text{Frequency of TT passive to active transitive voice shift} \times 100\% = \frac{\text{Frequency of TT passive to active transitive voice shift}}{\text{ST total number of all clauses (687}}} \times 100\%
\]
Table 4.5 demonstrates the total occurrence and percentage of two types of voice shift: passive to active intransitive shift and passive active to transitive voice shift. The results reveal that for passive to active intransitive shift, there are 9 occurrences in TT1 and TT2; and 10 occurrences in TT3; while for passive to active transitive, there are 32 occurrences in TT1, 24 occurrences in TT2 and 29 occurrences in TT3. It can be concluded that Hawa and Lalita employ more changes from passive to active intransitive compare to Aveling (TT1). Nevertheless, they outnumber Aveling with 1 occurrence only (Aveling has 8 occurrences while Hawa and Lalita both have 9 occurrences). In passive to active transitive voice shift, Aveling shows the highest number of changes (32 occurrences) followed by Lalita (29 occurrences). TT2 has the lowest number of occurrences.

The findings demonstrate that passive to active transitive shift has higher number of occurrences than passive to active intransitive shift as shown in all TTs. Passive to active transitive shift has outnumbered passive to active intransitive shift by 57 occurrences (total of 85 occurrences in passive to active transitive compare to total of 28 occurrences in passive to active intransitive shift). To summarize, TT1 has more preferences to do changes to active voice compared to TT2 and TT3.
After identifying the two types of passive to active voice shift above, they showed certain patterns of shift when comparing the translations to each other. The identified patterns were as shown in 4.6 above. The frequency of patterns is explained as below:

Table 4.6: Frequency of patterns in passive to active intransitive voice shift and active transitive voice shift

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Patterns</th>
<th>Frequency for Passive to Active Intransitive Voice Shift</th>
<th>Frequency for Active Transitive to Passive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pattern I: TT1, TT2 &amp; TT3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pattern II: TT1 &amp; TT2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pattern III: TT2 and TT3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pattern IV: TT1 and TT3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pattern V: TT1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pattern VI: TT2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pattern VII: TT3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.6 demonstrates the frequency of patterns for passive to active intransitive voice shift and passive to active transitive voice shift. The results reveal that there are 2 occurrences identified for Pattern I in passive to active intransitive; while there are 19 occurrences recorded for passive to active transitive. Pattern II shows 2 occurrence for passive to active intransitive while there is no occurrence for passive to active transitive; Pattern III has 4 occurrences in passive to active intransitive and 2 occurrences in passive to active transitive; Pattern IV in active intransitive has 2 occurrences while in active transitive, there are 6 occurrences; Pattern V shows 3 occurrences in active intransitive and 7 occurrences in active transitive and Pattern VI
has 1 occurrence in passive to active intransitive and 3 occurrences in passive to active transitive. Last but not least, Pattern VII has 2 occurrences in both types of passive to active voice shift.

It can be seen that in passive to active intransitive, Pattern III has the highest occurrences (4 occurrences) occurrences followed by Pattern V (3 occurrence), Pattern I, Pattern II, Pattern VI and Pattern VII (2 occurrences). Pattern VI shows the lowest number of occurrences (1 occurrence). While in passive to active transitive shift, Pattern VII has the highest number of occurrences (19 occurrences) followed by Pattern V (7 occurrences), Pattern IV (6 occurrences) and Pattern VI (3 occurrences). The lowest number of occurrences is in Pattern III and Pattern VII (2 occurrences). To summarize, the number implies that the changes occur more in multiple translations than in the single translation. This suggests that the three translators agree to employ shift from passive to active voice. However, their choice of verb type and structure may be similar or different to each other. This would be explained in examples for each pattern as below:

➢ **Pattern I: occurrence of shift in TT1, TT2 & TT3**

**Passive to Active Intransitive**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT1</th>
<th>TT2</th>
<th>TT3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td><em>Kepada Katijah segera diterangkan</em> (passive verb) <em>nya</em> (passive object),</td>
<td><em>Then he</em> (subject) <strong>explained</strong> (active intransitive):</td>
<td><em>He</em> (subject) quickly <strong>explained</strong> (active intransitive) to <em>Katijah:</em></td>
<td><em>He</em> (subject) quickly <strong>explained</strong> (active intransitive) to <em>Katijah,</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example 11 shows ST di- passive ‘diterangkan’ changed into active intransitive ‘explained’ in all TTs. The agent phrase is realized by ‘–nya’ with the absence of ‘oleh’.
The agent is used as subject ‘he’ in all TTs. TT1 does not translate ST prepositional object ‘kepada Katijah’ while TT2 and TT3 include it as adverbial ‘to Katijah’. ST passives structure shows an inverse type of sentence where the predicate is put in the front position. It can be seen that ST passive sentence is missing a piece of information where there should be ‘something’ that he is explaining about. This change is due to the difference of Malay underlying structure. The absence of direct object noun phrase in the passive counterpart has influenced the translator to change it to active intransitive structure. It would be unnatural or rather odd to retain the passivity in the translations.

**Passive to Active Transitive**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT1</th>
<th>TT2</th>
<th>TT3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td><em>Rambutnya</em> (passive subject) <em>yang jatuh menutupi dahinya yang berpeluh itu dinaikkan</em> (passive verb) <em>-nya</em> (passive object) dengan tangannya,</td>
<td><em>He</em> (subject) <em>brushed</em> (active transitive) <em>his hair</em> (object) back from his forehead and it fell back again.</td>
<td><em>He</em> (subject) <em>tried to push</em> (active transitive) <em>his hair</em> (object) back with his hand but it covered his forehead again.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td><em>Misainya</em> (passive subject) <em>diputar-putarkan</em> (passive verb) juga semakin tajam dan semakin melengkung ke atas.</td>
<td><em>He</em> (subject) <em>twisted</em> (active transitive) <em>his moustache</em> (object) into a tighter, steeper point.</td>
<td><em>He</em> (subject) <em>went on twirling</em> (active transitive) <em>his moustache</em> (object) more sharply and pointedly.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example 12 and example 13 show ST ‘di-’ passive changed into active transitive in all TT. Example 12 demonstrates ST long passive form where TT subject ‘he’ corresponds to ST passive object ‘-nya’ (the agent phrase is realized without ‘oleh’). The subject ‘he’ in all three TT refers to Hilmy, the character involved in this context.
Example 13 shows ST short passive ‘diputar-putarkan’ (the double verb is to show repetitive action) is changed into active transitive verb ‘twisted’ in TT1, ‘went on twirling’ in TT2 and ‘kept twirling’ in TT3. TT2 and TT3 seem to capture the expression of repetitive action in ST passive verb. The subject ‘he’ mentioned in the three TTs is taken from preceding clause which refers to a Benggali man. The change is not obligatory as it is totally acceptable to retain the passivity. However, the translators want to highlight the doer instead of the non-human (body part) as the focus in the sentence. Therefore, this change is due to translator’s choice.

➢ Pattern II: shift in TT1 and TT2

Passive to Active Intransitive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT1</th>
<th>TT2</th>
<th>TT3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>jawab Katijah, <strong>disusul</strong> (passive verb) pula dengan kata-kata <strong>Siti Salina</strong> (passive object):</td>
<td><em>Salina</em> (subject) <strong>added</strong> (active intransitive): replied Katijah as <strong>Siti Salina</strong> (subject) <strong>went on</strong> (active intransitive): <strong>Siti Salina</strong> (subject) <strong>felt compelled</strong> (verb complement) to add,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example 14 shows ST passive verb ‘disusul’ followed by the passive object ‘kata-kata Siti Salina’ with the absence of ‘oleh’ (which can be replaced with ‘dengan’). This Malay passive structure seems incomplete due to the absence of the passive subject. The passive construction might be like this: ‘jawab Katijah, (ia) disusul pula dengan kata-kata Siti Salina’. The dummy subject ‘ia’ can be the subject in the ST passive form.

As we can see the passive verb is changed into intransitive verb ‘added’ in TT1 and intransitive verb ‘went on’ in TT2. The passive object does not fully translate into
both TT1 and TT2 as only ‘Siti Salina’ is used as subject in their translation. The change is due to the peculiarity of the Malay passive structure; although it is not an obligatory shift. Nevertheless, if the passive form is retained, it would sound as if it is being translated literally. In other words, it would sound unnatural in English language.

Meanwhile in TT3, ST passive construction is changed into different type of sentence; neither active nor passive. The sentence consists of adjectival predicate ‘Siti Salina felt compelled’ taking extraposed subject to-clause ‘to add’. The adjectival predicate describes the necessity for the subject to execute the action of the verb in the ‘to-’ clause.

**Passive to Active Transitive: None in the Sample**

- Pattern III: shift in TT2 and TT3

**Passive to Active Intransitive**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT1</th>
<th>TT2</th>
<th>TT3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>kata Haji Karman sambil menyepak tengkuknya yang dihinggap nyamuk (passive subject)</td>
<td>the haji asked, swiping at a mosquito on his neck (prepositional phrase).</td>
<td>said Haji Karman swatting a mosquito (subject) which had settled (active intransitive) on his neck.</td>
<td>said Haji Karman, slapping a mosquito (subject) that had settled (active intransitive) on the nape of his neck.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example 15 shows ST passive verb ‘dihinggap’ followed by the agent ‘nyamuk’. The passive verb ‘dihinggap’ and the agent ‘nyamuk’ are situated in the nominal clause and the subject ‘tengkuknya’ is situated in the main clause. The clauses are linked by relative ‘yang’. The passive sentence is changed to active intransitive in TT2 and TT3 where both uses similar intransitive verb ‘had settled’. The passive object ‘nyamuk’ corresponds to TT2 and TT3 subject ‘mosquito’ while passive subject
‘tengkuknya’ is changed to prepositional phrase ‘on his neck’ in TT2 and ‘on the nape of his neck’ in TT3. Meanwhile, in TT1, ST passive verb is not translated instead; the translator changes the passive verb into a prepositional phrase ‘on his neck’ which describing about the position of its subject ‘mosquito’. This change is due to the difference of Malay underlying structure with English. If ST passivity is retained, it would sound unnatural in the TL.

**Passive to Active Transitive**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT1</th>
<th>TT2</th>
<th>TT3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Kampung itu lama dikenal sebagai &quot;Kampung Kambing&quot;.</td>
<td>The kampung was known as Kampung Kambing, Goat Village.</td>
<td>The village had long been known as “Kampung Kambing” (Village of Goats).</td>
<td>The village had long been known as Kampung Kambing, meaning Goat Village.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>Ia</em> (passive subject) <strong>dikenal</strong> (passive verb) <strong>demikian</strong> (passive object), kata orang yang tahu sejarahnya, kerana rumah-rumah yang didirikan di situ sebenar berasal dari kandang-kandang kambing.</td>
<td><em>It was so named</em> (passive verb), according to those who were familiar with its history, because the houses had once been goat stalls.</td>
<td>According to those familiar with its history, <em>it</em> (subject) <strong>got</strong> (active verb) <strong>its name</strong> (object) from the origin of the present day houses in the village.</td>
<td>People who knew the history said the village (subject) <strong>got</strong> (active verb) <strong>its name</strong> (object) from the ‘houses’, which were originally built there as goat pens.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example 16 shows the shift from Malay di-passive into active transitive in TT2 and TT3. Based on the preceding clause, the passive subject ‘ia’ refers to ‘kampung’ while the passive object ‘demikian’ refers to ‘Kampung Kambing’ (it is indirect object in active construction). ‘Demikian’ has equal meaning to English phrase ‘like so’ or ‘as
it is’. TT1 follows ST passive form due to maintaining the passivity in the previous clause. On one hand, the passive sentence is changed into active transitive in TT2 and TT3 although the preceding clause is also in passive. It happens that the translators of TT2 and TT3 incorporate the verb ‘dikenal’ into the translation by changing it into noun phrase ‘its name’ and placing it as object because ‘dikenal’ has equal meaning to English passive verb ‘was known’ or ‘was named’. The change is due to translator’s choice.

➢ Pattern IV: occurrence of shift in TT1 and TT3

**Passive to Active Intransitive**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT1</th>
<th>TT2</th>
<th>TT3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Dia berhenti seketika. <em>Cungapannya</em> (passive subject) <em>kedengaran</em> (passive verb) cepat, wajahnya khuatir.</td>
<td>She stopped for a moment. <em>She</em> (subject) <strong>was breathing</strong> (active intransitive) heavily and her expression was worried.</td>
<td>She paused for a moment. <em>One</em> (subject) <strong>could hear</strong> (active transitive) <em>her</em> (direct object) <strong>gasping</strong> (indirect object) rapidly, she looked worried.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example 17 above shows Malay passive verb with confix ‘ke-...-an’. It can be seen that it is a rare type of Malay passive marker which attached to the verb ‘dengar’ and it is changed into active intransitive in TT1 and TT3. It seems both TTs have similar active construction in terms of the subject ‘she’ and the intransitive active verb ‘was breathing’. Although there is no mention of agent in ST passive (because it is not an obligation to mention the agent for this type of Malay passive), the subject in TT1 and TT3 is derived from preceding sentence (TT1: ‘she’, TT3: ‘the girl’). On the other hand, TT2 shows the change of type of active verb which is active transitive ‘could
hear’ followed by the direct object ‘her’. The subject ‘one’ is used in the sentence suggests that there is another person involved in the situation. It looks like the change of ST passive verb to active in all TTs is due to the difference of underlying Malay structure.

**Passive to Active Transitive**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT1</th>
<th>TT2</th>
<th>TT3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Kandang-kandang ini semuanya kepunyaan buruh-buruh India yang bekerja di Public Works Department, Singapore Municipal Council, dan telah dibenarkan mendirikannya oleh pihak yang berwajib atas alasan (oleh tuan punyanya) <em>kandang-kandang itu</em> (passive subject) <em>diperlukan</em> (passive verb) untuk menempatkan kambing-kambing peliharaan mereka. (adverbial)</td>
<td>The Public Works Department of the Singapore Municipal Council labourers had been allowed to build the stalls because <em>they</em> (subject) <em>needed</em> (active transitive) somewhere (object) for their animals, or so they claimed.</td>
<td><em>They</em> (according to the owners) were necessary to house the goats they were breeding.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example 18 shows ST passive ‘diperlukan’ changed into active transitive verb ‘needed’ in TT1 and TT3. It looks like ST agent ‘oleh tuan punyanya’ is mentioned in
the previous clause. Thus, it is possible to change this passive sentence into active transitive sentence in TT1 and TT3. The only difference is on the subject. Pronoun ‘they’ is used as the subject in TT1; while ‘the owner’ is used as the subject in TT3. This change is not obligatory; however, the translators decide to use the given information ‘oleh tuan punyanya’ where it is placed before the passive construction. Therefore, the translators change to active sentence instead of retaining the passivity of ST.

TT2 shows that ST passive sentence is changed to neither active nor passive. It shows the adjectival predicate ‘they were necessary’ taking extraposed subject to-clause ‘to house the goats’. The subject ‘they’ in main clause does not refer to the owner but the goat pens. In this sentence, TT2 highlights the issue which is the importance of the pens to house their goats.

➢ Pattern V: occurrence of shift in TT1

Passive to Active Intransitive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT1</th>
<th>TT2</th>
<th>TT3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19 Bila keluar dia (passive subject)</td>
<td>&quot;You! Which school do you go to?&quot;</td>
<td>Soon after he (passive subject)</td>
<td>As he was going out, the old man (subject) had (active transitive) another question (object).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ditanya (passive verb) lagi oleh</td>
<td>the old man (subject) asked (active</td>
<td>by the old man (passive object):</td>
<td>&quot;Which school do you go to?&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>orang tua itu (passive object);</td>
<td>intransitive).</td>
<td>&quot;Which school do you go to?&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;Which school do you go to?&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Kau sekolah di mana?”</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example 19 shows single occurrence of shift from ST passive ‘ditanya’ followed by ‘oleh’ phrase ‘orang tua itu’ into active intransitive ‘had asked’ in TT1. This change is possible because the agent ‘orang tua itu’ is expressed in ST passive form. However, the passive subject ‘dia’ is not included in the translation. This shows that the translator
wants to highlight the person who asks the question instead of the person who is being asked. The shift is not obligatory; hence, it is due to translator’s choice.

Passivity of ST is retained in TT2. ST passive verb ‘ditanya’ is translated into TT2 passive verb ‘was asked’. The agent phrase is also included in the translation. Meanwhile in TT3, ST passive verb is translated into active transitive verb ‘had’. Instead of translating ST passive subject ‘dia’ into object, TT3 uses noun phrase ‘another question’ (which usually is associated to the verb ‘ask’). This change is also due to translator’s choice.

**Passive to Active Transitive**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT1</th>
<th>TT2</th>
<th>TT3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td><em>Kandang-kandang ini</em> (passive subject) <em>dibesarkan</em> (passive verb) <em>oleh tuan punyanya</em> (passive object) untuk dijadikan rumah sewaan.</td>
<td><em>The land-lord (subject) had enlarged (active transitive) them (object), turned them into houses, and rented them.</em></td>
<td>Originally <em>they</em> (passive subject) were goat-sheds or pens later <em>extended</em> (passive verb) <em>by their owners</em> (passive object) for the purpose of renting them out.</td>
<td><em>These (passive subject) were later converted (passive verb) by the owners (passive object) into dwellings, available for rent.</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example 20 shows single occurrence of shift from ST ‘di-’ passive with ‘oleh’ phrase (long passive) into active transitive ‘had enlarged’ in TT1. The translator decides to highlight the agent (subject) rather than the affected participant. It seems that the translator combines another two verbs (turned and rented) in the clause. This is why active sentence is more suitable to be used in the target text where the agent is the doer of all the verbs included in the clause. However, this change is not obligatory and is due to translator’s choice.
ST passive form is retained in TT2 and TT3 as well as the agent. The only difference is in the passive construction where TT2 uses non-finite passive ‘Originally they were goat-sheds or pens later extended by...’, while TT3 uses finite passive ‘they were later converted by...’

Pattern VI: occurrence of shift in TT2

Passive to Active Intransitive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT1</th>
<th>TT2</th>
<th>TT3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“Dah lama saya tinggal di sini; kira-kira dua tahun, semenjak kampung ni (passive subject) mula didirikan (passive verb).”</td>
<td>&quot;I've been here a long time. Nearly two years. Ever since the kampung (passive subject) was built (passive verb).&quot;</td>
<td>“I’ve lived here a long time, almost two years, ever since this village (subject) began (active intransitive).”</td>
<td>“Have lived here a long time; about two years, when Kampung Kambing (passive subject) was built (active intransitive).”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example 21 shows the change from ST di-passive ‘didirikan’ to active intransitive ‘began’ in TT2. The shift shows that ST passive subject ‘kampung ni’ is similar to TT2 subject ‘the village’. This is possible due to the use of intransitive verb in the translation. This change is due to translator’s choice. As we can see, it is possible to retain ST passivity as shown in TT1 and TT3. TT1 shows that ST passive verb is translated into TT1 and TT3 passive verb ‘was built’.
Passive to Active Transitive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT1</th>
<th>TT2</th>
<th>TT3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Tentang perkataan ‘banyak’ itu (passive subject) dipanjang dan dikeraskan (passive verb) nya (passive object).</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>He (subject) emphasised and stressed (active transitive) the word ‘really’ (object)</td>
<td>The word ‘plenty’ (passive subject) was drawn out and accentuated (passive verb).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example 22 shows the change from two ST passive verbs ‘dipanjang’ and ‘dikeraskannya’ to two active transitive verbs ‘emphasised’ and ‘stressed’ in TT2. ST passive subject ‘tentang perkataan ‘banyak’ itu’ corresponds to TT2 direct object ‘the word ‘really’’ and ST passive object ‘-nya’ corresponds to TT2 subject ‘he’. It is to be noted that ST passive object ‘-nya’ is expressed without ‘oleh’. The change is due to translator’s choice. It is possible to retain ST passivity as we can see in TT3. ST passive subject is retained as TT3 passive subject ‘the word ‘plenty’’ and ST passive verbs are retained as TT3 passive verbs ‘was drawn out and accentuated’. Meanwhile, there is no translation in TT1.

➢ Pattern VII: occurrence of shift in TT3

Passive to Active Intransitive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT1</th>
<th>TT2</th>
<th>TT3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Suara orang lelaki memanggil Siti Salina (passive subject) kedengaran (passive verb).</td>
<td>Someone (subject) called (active transitive) Salina (object).</td>
<td>A male voice calling for Siti Salina (passive subject) could be heard (passive verb).</td>
<td>From a room, a man (subject) called out (active intransitive) to Siti Salina in a drowsy voice.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Example 23 shows the change from ST passive verb ‘kedengaran’ to active intransitive ‘called out’ in TT3. ST passive verb has rare type of passive voice marker which confix ‘ke-…-an’. TT3 subject ‘a man’ is derived from the noun phrase ‘orang lelaki’ in ST passive subject. The change is due to translator’s choice. Although ST structure seems peculiar, it is possible to retain ST passivity as we can see in TT2. ST passive subject is translated as ‘a male voice calling for Siti Salina’; and ST passive verb is translated as ‘could be heard’. TT1 shows the use of transitive verb ‘called’ followed by object noun phrase ‘Siti Salina’. TT3 subject is derived from ST noun phrase ‘orang lelaki’.

**Passive to Active Transitive**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT1</th>
<th>TT2</th>
<th>TT3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td><em>Enjin lori itu</em> (passive subject) <em>dimatikan</em> (passive verb) <em>terus. Drebarnya keluar.</em></td>
<td><em>The motor</em> (subject) died (active intransitive) at once.</td>
<td><em>The engine</em> (passive subject) was immediately switched off (passive verb).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example 24 shows the change from ST passive ‘dimatikan’ to active transitive ‘turned off’ in TT3. The ST passive form is agentless as it is obviously understood to be ‘the driver’ which appears as subject in the following clause ‘drebarnya keluar’. It seems that TT3 combines two clauses into one; the first clause ‘enjinnya dimatikan’ and the following clause ‘drebarnya keluar’. TT3 decides to use ‘the driver’ from the following clause as the subject. The clauses can be separated as ‘the driver turned off the engine’ and ‘the driver got out’. This change is not obligatory and is influenced by translator’s choice and creativity.
TT1 shows the use of different type of active verb which is intransitive verb. ST passive verb ‘dimatikan’ changed into TT1 active verb ‘died. The shift is possible due to the choice of the verb ‘died’ which is derived from ST verb ‘mati’ (both verbs have equal meaning). It is Aveling’s personal choice to use intransitive active sentence in this context.

Meanwhile, TT2 retains ST passivity where ST passive subject ‘enjinnya’ is translated into TT2 passive subject ‘the engine’ and ST passive verb ‘dimatikan’ is translated into TT2 passive verb ‘was switched off’.

As the conclusion, most of Malay passive verbs are shifted into active transitive voice in the English translation. It seems that the translators prefer to highlight the doer or the performer rather than the affected participant in the translations. However, in some cases, the subject remains the same although the voice used is different in both ST and TTs. This is possible because the translator does not literally translate the passive verb in ST; instead the passive verb is translated as active intransitive verb and/or is derived from other elements in the sentence like noun phrase in the object or in the complement clause.

4.2.3 The Factors which have influenced the Translators’ Active-Passive Voice Shifts in their Translations

It has been observed in the translated examples that more Malay passive verbs have been rendered into English by active verbs than Malay active verbs to English passive verbs. In terms of types of active verb, more active transitive verbs are changed into English passive verbs and vice versa; than active intransitive verbs rendered into English by passive verbs and vice versa. This option of changing active intransitive verb into passive verbs and vice versa is rather unexpected since it seems to run counter to
the rule of active-passive forms (where it needs active transitive verbs to change to passive form and vice versa).

The findings also reveal that there are cases where the TT retains ST structure but with different subject or type of active verbs and some of the ST active-passive verbs also have been changed into complement sentences or phrases. This shows that Malay-English translators have more alternatives or options when confronted with the task of translating Malay active-passive voice. Therefore, it is crucial to investigate the factors influencing these changes of active-passive voice and passive-active voice. And since the examples under discussion have been translated by professional translators, it seems that these active-passive verb shift and passive-active verb shift must have been well motivated and duly justified. Nevertheless, this translation licence, replacing Malay passive verbs by English active verb or vice versa, cannot be without restrictions of some sort. It is the purpose of the section to find out the factors behind this Malay-English translation option.

The factor that influenced the shift of active-passive the most is the translator’s choice. Most of the changes discussed in the examples under 4.2.1 and 4.2.2 are not obligatory; meaning that to retain ST active or passive structure is possible and acceptable in TL. Nevertheless, the translator decides to employ the changes in his/her translation based on three aspects: to maintain the coherence and cohesion or flow in the text, to make use the given information and to introduce new information. All of the aspects contribute to serve the stylistic purposes.

The example below shows how ST passive verb is changed into three types of sentence in the three translations. TT1 shows the use of active intransitive verb. As we can see ‘the motor’ refers to the given information ‘the engine’ which situated in the preceding clause. Thus, it is appropriate to retain the similar subject to ST. Next, in TT2, the translator decides to stay faithful to ST passives structure. Meanwhile, in TT3,
as we can see, the speaker is talking to the ‘boss’ which refers to the driver of the lorry. Thus, it is more appropriate to bring the focus on the driver as the TT reader must anticipate the next action.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT1</th>
<th>TT2</th>
<th>TT3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>“Tauke, betul. Sinilah boleh berhenti.”</td>
<td>&quot;We’re here tauke Stop the engine.”</td>
<td>“This is where we stop.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Drebarnya keluar. Dahi dan tengkuknya berpeluh.</td>
<td>The driver got out, sweat flowing from his forehead and neck.</td>
<td><em>The driver</em> (subject) turned off (active transitive) <em>the engine</em> (object) immediately and got out.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>His forehead and neck were streaming with sweat.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Malay and English come from two different language families. Thus, it is expected that each language has its own set of linguistics or structural rules (Mees, 1967). Few of the changes of active-passive voice found in the examples are due to the differences of underlying Malay structure with English structure. The translator has to count for linguistic acceptability of TL when translating. Thus, these changes of voice are necessary to suit TL nature. It would sound strange if ST active or passive structure is retained in the translation.

Next, Malay is known to have rich morphological voice markers (Nomoto, 2006). There are morphological markers for active voice and passive voice respectively. However, few voice markers have confusing active and passive use and they are: prefix ‘ter-’ and prefix ‘ber-’. The shift of Malay verbs with prefix ‘ter-’ and prefix ‘ber-’ has
been discussed in the examples above. The results show that most of the Malay verbs with prefix ‘ter-’ are translated into English passive verbs. It seems that there is no change; however, if we look closer, the Malay verbs with prefix ‘ter-’ are actually in active voice. The truth is none of the Malay verbs found are ‘ter-’ passive. The translators might assume that the prefix ‘ter-’ carries passive voice marker. The way to distinguish ‘ter-’ active and ‘ter-’ passive is that to look for ‘oleh’ agent phrase which followed the main verb. Furthermore, ‘ter-’ passive carries semantic domain of ‘accident’ (Nik Safiah Karim et.al, 2008). Another issue with prefix ‘ter-’ is that when it is attached to Malay verb ‘paksa’, the verb becomes a function word (kata tugas) which usually precedes a main verb such as ‘terpaksa pindah’ as discussed in 4.2.1 Example 1.

Prefix ‘ber-’ is usually used to form active intransitive verbs. However, it also can be used to form passive verb. There is only one occurrence for ‘ber-’ passive in the data sample (see example below).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT1</th>
<th>TT2</th>
<th>TT3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>26 Mukanya (passive subject) turut kotor kerana berselaput (passive verb) habuk dan sarang labah-labah (passive object).</td>
<td>A fine layer of dust and cobweb (subject) covered (active transitive) his face (object).</td>
<td>His face (passive subject) too was dirty being covered (passive verb) with dust and spider’s web.</td>
<td>His pale, yellow shorts and the sleeves of his shirt were dirty, as was his face, from the dust and cobwebs inside (prepositional phrase).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example 26 above shows ST passive verb ‘berselaput’ changed into active transitive verb ‘covered’ in TT1. TT2 retains ST passive structure by translating the passive verb into ‘was covered’. Meanwhile, TT3 shows the change of ST passive structure into prepositional phrase ‘from the dust and cobwebs inside’. ST passive verb
‘bersalut’ can be replaced with di-passive ‘diselaputi’ without changing the original expression or message.

Another Malay passive voice marker found in the data sample is confix ‘ke-...-an’. Few of the passive verbs with confix ‘ke-...-an’ are changed into active verbs in the translations and some decides to retain the ST passivity. As the agent is not mentioned when using this type of passive, it seems impossible to change the passive sentence into active. However, the translators overcome this challenge by making reference to noun phrase or subject in the preceding or following clause. The Malay passive verbs with confix ‘ke-...-an’ found in the data sample is ‘kedengaran’ (as explained in example 18 and example 24).

As the conclusion, all the changes of voice made from Malay to English are not without purpose. They are influenced by different factors. Most of the changes are not obligatory but still, some changes are necessary to serve a great quality of translation. The translators have shown tremendous language competency and excellent translation skill when dealing with active voice and passive voice in Malay and English.

4.3 Conclusion

The topics that were discussed in Chapter 4 were the summary of data, the findings for Research Question 1 which were the occurrence of active to passive voice shift and the occurrences of passive to active voice shift; and the findings of Research Question 2 which was the factors which have influenced the translators’ active-passive voice shifts in their translations. In Chapter 5, the topics that will be discussed are the conclusion which ties every aspect in this study with particular emphasis on the findings of the study; the discussion on each research question of the study and the recommendations for further research.
CHAPTER 5
CONCLUSION & RECOMMENDATIONS

In Chapter 5, the topics that will be discussed are the conclusion which ties every aspect in this study with particular emphasis on the findings of the study; the discussion on each research question of the study and the recommendations for further research.

5.1 Conclusion

The statistical data analysis and discussion of the findings can shed some light on the occurrence of active-passive voice shift in the Malay literary text *Salina* and its three English translations. All of the tables listed in Chapter 4 are detailed. The analysis was done on one chapter; Salina Bab 1 from ST and its corresponding Chapter 1 in the three translations; TT1, TT2 and TT3. The summary of data reveals that Aveling’s translation has huge gap of total number of clauses compared to ST, TT2 and TT3. Total number of clause in TT1 is 740 clauses out of 880 clauses in ST. This result concurs with the earlier statement where TT1 is the shortest translation of *Salina* as admitted by the translator himself in one of his articles (Aveling, 2005). Another finding to support this statement is that TT1 has the highest number of non-translated clauses (139 clauses). Aveling (2005) argues that some sentences are not translated because he felt that the sentences contain redundant information. These sentences below are not translated in TT1:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>TT1</th>
<th>TT2</th>
<th>TT3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bilik mandi dan tempat buang air inilah yang selalunya menjadi persoalan rumit kepada orang-orang di petak itu,</td>
<td>NOT TRANSLATED</td>
<td>The bathrooms and toilet often became the bone of contention among the tenants</td>
<td>The lack of facilities often gave rise to trouble among the people living in the square blocks</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The previous findings state that Hawa’s translation (TT2) is the closest to ST but none has reviewed TT3. This research has revealed that TT3 has the closest number of clauses to ST (881 clauses) compared to TT2 (876 clauses). Nevertheless, TT3 non-translated clauses are higher than TT2. TT3 has 30 non-translated clauses while TT2 has only 4 non-translated clauses. The number does not tally with the number of clauses between TT3 and ST. It can be summarized that TT2 is known to be more faithful to ST while TT3 seems to make more changes in the translation.

Another interesting finding reveals that ST has more passive sentences compared to passive in the English translations. The past study by Mohamed (2016) reveals that the English translations prefers the use of passive. The similarity of Mohamed’s study and this study is on novels. The data used in his study consists of two Arabic novels and their English and French translations while the data used in this study is a Malay novel and its three English translations. It is to be noted that Arabic language prefers active voice instead of passive voice. This statement is also found in the findings of Khafaji’s (1996) past study. According to him, Arabic translator prefers to change English passive verbs into active sentences or other types of verbs in his or her translations. The difference of Khafaji’s study and this study is that Khafaji uses a scientific article where passive sentences are expected to be found abundantly. This study somehow reveals that this Malay novel Salina is rich with passive sentences than...
its English translations. The author seems to focus more on the affected and the issues surrounding it rather than the subject while the English translators feel the need to bring more focus on the subject because it is the usual way of constructing a sentence. The occurrence of active-passive voice shifts and the factors influencing the voice shifts are summarized below:

5.2 Summary of the Findings for Research Question 1: The Occurrence of Active-Passive Voice Shift

The first research question was aimed to find out the occurrence of active-passive voice shift in the Malay novel Salina with its three English translations; TT1 (Aveling, 1975), TT2 (Hawa Abdullah, 1991) and TT3 (Lalita Sinha, 2006). The findings reveal four types of voice shifts:

1) Active intransitive to passive voice shift
2) Active transitive to passive voice shift
3) Passive to active intransitive voice shift and
4) Passive to active transitive.

This current research is able to present the different occurrence and frequency of each type of voice pattern in the table form in order to compare the number of differences between the three translations. The first two types of active-passive voice shifts are presented first and followed by the examples from the data sample. The frequency shows that there is only a slight difference in number between active intransitive to passive voice shift and active transitive to passive voice shift where the former outnumbers the later by 1 occurrence only. Most of the active-passive voice shifts occur in single translation (ST-TT1, ST-TT2 and ST-TT3). This suggests that the translators have their own preference when translating the active sentences in the ST.
The other two types of voice shift are categorized under passive-active voice shift. The occurrence and frequency of patterns are presented in table form; and followed by discussion of the example. The number shows that passive to active transitive voice shift has higher occurrence than passive to active intransitive voice shift. As we can see, there is huge difference in the frequency. The frequency of pattern reveals that the most passive to active voice shift (in both type of active verb) occur in multiple translations compared to single translation. This finding differs from the two types of active-passive voice shift above where the occurrences of shift are more in single translation. It can be concluded that the translators tend to have agreement that the changes of Malay passive voice are needed in certain context.

Compare the two major types of voice shift; passive to active voice shift has more occurrences than active to passive voice shift. It seems that there are not many circumstances that require the need for the change of Malay active sentence into English passive voice. The translators prefer to retain ST active sentence in their translations. The higher number of occurrences in passive to active voice shift (specifically passive to active transitive voice shift) suggests that active sentence is more preferable in the English translations. Most of the Malay passive verbs found are di-passive. This is expected as di-passive is the common passive and is considered as ‘pasif jati’ (genuine passive) in Malay (Asmah, 2009). There are also other types of Malay passive found in the data sample such as passive verb with confix ‘ke-...-an’, first and second person passive and ‘ber-’ passive. There is no occurrence of ‘ter-’ passive and ‘kena’ passive.

Based on the overall findings for Research Question 1, it can be concluded that English prefers more changes to active compared to changes to passive. This is different from findings revealed in the past studies where passive occurrences are more in English when translated from Arabic (Mohamed, 2016) and Lithuanian (Venckiene,
There are several factors that determined these voice shifts from Malay to English, and are discussed in the section below:

5.3 Summary of the Findings for Research Question 2: Factors which have influenced the Translators’ Active-Passive Voice Shifts in their Translations

Research question two aims to find the factors which have influenced the translators’ active-passive voice shifts in their translations. The factors are determined by analysing the examples of voice shift found in data sample to identify how the Malay active or passive sentences are rendered into English. All of these changes are also found to be highly dependent on the context. As a result, based on the analysed and observed data, the changes made by the translators are governed by three major factors: the differences of Malay underlying structure with English structure, the confusing Malay morphological voice markers and the translator’s choice.

It is found that the changes of voice, be it passive or active, mostly are not obligatory. In other words, it is acceptable and possible to retain the ST structure in the translations. Therefore, most changes found in the data sample are influenced by translator’s choice; like in example 4, example 5, example 6, example 7, example 8, example 10, example 12, example 13, example 16, example 19, example 20, example 21, example 22, example 23 and example 24. It is worth noting that these changed made by translators are governed by three aspects: to maintain the coherence and cohesion of the text and to make use of the given information or introduce new information. All of these aspects are to serve stylistics purposes. This research agrees with Venckiene’s (2015) findings where ‘the translator may introduce the shift with the aim of fronting a phrase in order to emphasize it, when the agent is unimportant, or when a complex thought has to be expressed’ (p.42). Mohamed (2016) also states that ‘the translator’s
choice is found to be with active occurrences, and passive occurrences that are not related to language peculiarities’ (p.15).

Next, the voice shift is also determined by language peculiarity relative to structure, conceptualization and preference like in example 1, example 2, example 3, example 9, example 11, example 14, example 15, example 17 and example 18 (as discussed in Chapter 4). Both types of voice shift are found to enhance translation if the corresponding Malay sentences contain language peculiarities. If the Malay voice is retained in the English, it would sound strange and unnatural. In other words, changes are necessary under this circumstance to give impression that these translations are professionally done.

As shown in Chapter 4, there are shifts which involve active intransitive verbs to passive and vice versa. This type of shift is unexpected but a closer look reveals that the changes of active intransitive to passive and vice versa are made possible by not translating the Malay verb literally. In other words, the verb used in TT has no equivalent meaning to the verb in the ST counterpart; rather it is conceptualized or derived from other elements available in the ST; such as the noun phrase in the object. Besides, there are cases where the ST subject is retained as the TT subject. This mostly occurs with passive occurrences in the ST without an agent. Apart from changing active to passive voice and vice versa, the translators also show other alternatives in their translations. There are cases where the Malay active and passive forms are changed into prepositional phrases and complement clauses. This occurs when the translators are dealing with Malay verbs like ‘menjadi’ and ‘berasal’ where both carry equal meaning to the English verb ‘to be’.

The last factor that contributes to the voice shift is the ambiguous Malay morphological voice markers. Malay has more morphological voice markers than English. Among these voice markers, there are ambiguous ones where it can be used in
active and passive and one of them is prefix ‘ter-’ (Siaw-Fong, 2011). The observed data reveals a small number of voice shifts which involve the prefix ‘ter-’. The only type of prefix ‘ter-’ found in the research is ‘ter-’ that carries active voice where it has been changed into the passive as shown in example 1 and example 2. No ‘ter-’ passive has been found in the data sample. The translators might assume that they have not made any changes but a closer look reveals that the ‘ter-’ attached to the Malay verb does not carry passivity. Example 1 shows how prefix ‘ter-’ has altered the function of the verb it is attached to but not the voice. All translators have rendered the Malay active intransitive sentence into passive in their translations.

5.4 Recommendations

This current study focuses on the active-passive voice shift in the number and usage between ST and its three English translations in one chapter only. Therefore, it is to be suggested that other researchers should continue the analysis with more chapters in Salina; so that, the findings can be generalized and can shed some light on the style of the translators. Furthermore, they can do comparison with other languages; for example the Malay Salina and its English and Spanish translation; with the aim to explore the similarities and differences in terms of the usage of active-passive voice and how the active voice and passive voice are translated from one language to another.

The other researcher can also conduct more studies dealing with the voice shifts in other works of the same author of Salina to discover the author’s style or in other works of the three English translators to explore the translator’s style. A part from literature, the study of voice shift can be done on other genres such as academic, political, legal, religious and medical. Hence, the study will find out how the active and passive voice is used and the relationship between one genre and another. This can help
the translators to have better understanding of the ways, means and context used when translating different genres.
REFERENCES


