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APPLYING CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS IN TRANSLATION OF POLITICAL SPEECHES: A FOCUS ON NON-DEFINING MODIFIERS

Nguyen Viet Thien Tu¹

Abstract: *As the quintessence of persuasive speech, political speeches can pose serious difficulties in translating due to their unique features. Prior to translating, appropriate discourse understanding is needed to ensure a higher quality political speech translation and its adequacy. From ancient times, language has been used as an ingenious device for the transmission of ideology and for the manipulation of audience minds by those in power. As Kress in Van Dijk (1985) states, "Ideologies find their clearest articulation in language. Hence, a powerful way of examining ideological structure is through the examination of language." Adopting Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), with particular emphasis on the framework of Fairclough (1989) and utilizing the notions of systemic functional linguistics by Halliday (1985), the present study attempts to shed light on the relationship between language and ideology involved in translation in general, and specifically to uncover the underlying ideological assumptions hidden in the texts through the use of non-defining modifiers, and ascertain whether translators' ideologies are imposed in their translations. The study corpus consists of 15 transcripts of three US presidential speeches delivered at national and international events from 2020 backwards. The obtained results prove that the application of CDA for the analysis of political speeches in English helps the translator to become aware of the genre conventions, social and situational context of the source text, and outlines the formation of ideological expression by using non-defining modifiers on the discourse level.*

Keywords: *Critical discourse analysis, translation, political speech, non-defining modifier.*

INTRODUCTION

Debates in translation revolve around genre and text type, with each genre having unique conventions and approaches that distinguish it from others. Word choice and structure alone aren't enough for translation, as various text types require different techniques to efficiently convey their intended message. The social context in which texts are produced is also crucial, as texts reflect the concepts, beliefs, and ideologies of groups, making translation complex due to deliberate word selection and structure reflecting dominant thoughts.

Translating political speeches may pose a greater challenge compared to various other genres. While they may initially appear similar to other forms of text, the complexity and subtlety lie in the underlying ideas conveyed through word choices, structure, and messages. Through language, ideologies, attitudes, and emotions are articulated, allowing us to discern a speaker's thoughts

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and feelings regarding an event or phenomenon by examining their speeches. The significance of delving into political speeches intensifies when we realize that politicians often do not explicitly state their ideologies and intentions. As asserted by Van Dijk (1993:29), a text, whether written or spoken, is akin to an “iceberg of information,” with only the “tip” being truly expressed in words and sentences. Therefore, the analysis of implicit elements proves highly beneficial in exploring the concealed ideologies.

The primary goal of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) is to uncover and illuminate the concealed aspects of discourse. In political speeches, words function as a means to convey the ideologies of a particular group or nation to others. Due to globalization, there may be a need to translate political speeches into different languages. In this context, the translator’s role extends beyond simply reproducing the linguistic features of the source text; they must also possess an awareness of the underlying theories and ideologies that form the framework of a political text. In some instances, the translator may have to add, delete, or clarify the text to ensure comprehensibility for the target audience of the translated text.

According to CDA, the usage of text-linguistic elements reflects the text producer’s aims and affiliation to a special ideology. Even non-defining modifiers, which are “optional” elements under traditional grammar, should be carefully treated in the translation process, especially of political speeches. Non-defining modifiers hold a distinct place in constructing meaning and nuances within political speeches. These modifiers can pose unique challenges in translation, as their cultural and contextual significance must be preserved to convey the intended message effectively to the target audience.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Critical Discourse Analysis and Translation Studies

Critical Discourse Analysis has gained prominence as a methodology that delves into the relationship between language and power, uncovering hidden ideologies and socio-political dynamics within discourse. Scholars like Fairclough (1995) and Van Dijk (1998) have paved the way for applying CDA to various genres, including political discourse. The incorporation of CDA in Translation Studies (TS) offers a fresh lens to understand how translation practices are influenced by power dynamics and underlying ideologies.

The integration of discourse analysis into translation studies originated within the functionalist theories of translation (Munday, 2001). These theories involved analyzing the source text in terms of text type, language function, the impact of the translation, and the participants involved in the translation event. In translation studies, the discourse analysis approach adopted Michael Halliday’s register analysis model, primarily used to scrutinize the pragmatic functions of linguistic elements in both the source text (ST) and the target text (TT). Early theoretical frameworks were proposed by Mona Baker and Julian House (*ibid*).

Halliday views language usage as a form of communication and delineates three dimensions of functional meaning: ideational, interpersonal, and textual. Interpersonal meaning pertains to the use of language to establish a connection between the producer and receiver of the text. Within

the analysis of interpersonal meaning, power stands as one fundamental type of relationship. The translator's selection of lexical and grammatical resources from the language's array can establish this interpersonal meaning. Subsequently, concepts such as context, functions, culture, textuality, style, genre, and discourse-explored in pragmatics, discourse analysis, cultural studies, and communication studies-have influenced the field of Translation Studies.

CDA is primarily employed to scrutinize the linguistic elements of text within a single language and culture. However, within the realm of translation studies, this approach should be extended to encompass both the primary ST and the secondary TT. CDA perceives translation as a multifaceted social, cultural, and political undertaking, striving to integrate these three dimensions in the analysis of both ST and TT. Much of the research conducted in TS using CDA concentrates on viewing translation as a social action, addressing inquiries such as the identity of the translator's audience, the content being translated, the timing of the translation, and the impacts on the receiving culture (Chilton cited in Schäffner 2002).

According to Valdeón, in the context of translation studies, CDA assumes an optional role, primarily serving as a supplementary tool to existing methodological approaches to offer a comprehensive examination of language and culture (2007). CDA can prove valuable in shaping the decision-making process for translation strategy, considering the context of the ST and the TT, as well as cultural and social disparities between the source and target language communities. It also contributes to understanding the cognitive processes involved in translation and the translator's role in interpreting the meaning of the source text, a facet not always explicitly addressed in Translation Studies.

Christina Schäffner (2004) asserts that the shared element between CDA and TS lies in the human communicative activity within sociocultural settings, with texts and discourses being the outcomes of this activity. Consequently, the role of a translator goes beyond mere mediation between languages; instead, they actively generate new discourse in the target language. Unlike discourse analysts, translators engage in creating a fresh act of communication in a new TL environment, drawing upon their own background knowledge (linguistic, social, and cultural) to negotiate meaning between the producer of the ST and the reader of the TT (Hatim & Mason, 1990).

Translations are perceived as target texts situated in a novel socio-cultural context, building upon a source text that operated within its original socio-cultural milieu (Schäffner 2004:138). Thus, the application of CDA to TS revolves around the translator's role in the translation process, considering the chosen translation strategy and the intended target audience. Christina Schäffner (2004) emphasizes the dual focus on both the purpose of the translation and audience design, addressing target audiences with varying degrees of knowledge about the subject matter of the ST.

Translation and Political Speeches

The goal of a critical political discourse analysis is to challenge and unveil the inherent nature of ideologies. Denaturalization, as defined by Fairclough (1995), entails revealing how social structures influence discourse properties and, reciprocally, how discourse shapes social structures. According to Fairclough (1989), CDA systematically explores these opaque connections as influential factors in

establishing power and hegemony. It highlights power imbalances, social disparities, undemocratic practices, and other injustices with the intention of motivating corrective actions.

For a comprehensive and scientific comprehension of discourse, it is crucial to distinguish ideology from knowledge, making the concept of discourse essential (Van Dijk, 2001). Discourses inherently encompass power and ideologies. Given that translators possess diverse backgrounds, knowledge bases, and power positions, interpretations may vary among them. Consequently, there is no singular “right” interpretation; instead, interpretations are more or less plausible or adequate, as suggested by Fairclough (2002) and Wodak & Ludwig (1999) (cited in Nahrkhalaji, 2006:6).

Given that translation studies is a relatively nascent field of inquiry, its relationship with political discourse has not undergone thorough examination. Some investigations have delved into this connection, employing various approaches such as textual analysis, exemplified by the work of Anna Trosborg (1997), and more prominently, political discourse analysis or critical discourse analysis, with notable contributors being Christina Schäffner, Hatim, and Mason (Christina Schäffner, 1997; 2002; 2003; 2004; Hatim and Mason, 1990). A crucial emphasis has been placed on recognizing that when scrutinizing political discourse, the broader societal and ideological context in which the text originates must be taken into account (Schäffner 1997).

Recent research has underscored the role of translators as mediators who, drawing from their knowledge of the source text and awareness of socio-cultural and political contexts, interpret texts and endeavor to align them with the norms, beliefs, and ideological considerations of the target society. The translator interprets the ST according to their cultural, social, and political background, which may be ideologically influenced. Consequently, the analysis of both the ST and the TT often involves highlighting the interconnections among linguistic, translational, and ideological components in political texts (Valdeón 2007:100).

Political discourse often extends its relevance beyond the culture of the text producer, aiming to reach a broader audience (Schäffner 2004). Globalization has internationalized politics, and translation serves as the means through which information is disseminated to recipients beyond national borders (ibid). Currently, translation studies play a crucial role in the development of political discourse. Notable among translation studies scholars is Christina Schäffner, who has conducted valuable research demonstrating the interconnectedness of translation and political discourse (1997; 2002, 2003; 2004). Her work emphasizes the cultural, social, and political aspects of translation and text production in both the source and target cultures, employing discourse analysis in the process.

Schäffner’s research primarily focuses on translation strategies used to convey a culture-bound ST to a target language community with limited knowledge of the foreign culture. According to Schäffner (ibid. 127), political texts often reflect culture-specific conditions of their production. Translations of these texts inform a target audience about a communicative act that had already taken place in the source text community. In this scenario, the ST can be directed at a single or multiple TT communities. As translation is an intercultural mediating activity, various factors influence the translation into the TT, including the audience, situation, function of the text in the target language community, and text type, which may not carry equal weight as in the source text.

The functions of the ST and TT in their respective cultures determine the translation strategies. For instance, if the function of the ST was to persuade the source language audience, the function of the TT in the target language culture might have only an informative role (*ibid.*). This perspective suggests that the target language audience may lack the same knowledge as the source language audience, necessitating obligatory alterations in the TT by the translator. In essence, this viewpoint posits that the ST may not exert the same force and effect on the TT audience as it does on the ST audience.

Non-defining Modifiers (NM) in Political Speeches

Throughout the research, we follow Huddleston *et al.*'s (2002) well-known distinction between two types of noun phrase modifiers: (1) Defining modifiers, for which the content of the modifier is an integral part of the meaning of the containing noun phrase, and, in contrast, (2) Non-defining modifiers (henceforth NM), that present a separate, parenthetical unit of information about the noun phrase. The distinction between the two types is semantic in nature and relies heavily on the context of the noun phrase. While some syntactic modifiers (such as determiners or genitives) are always defining, others are known to appear in both defining as well as non-defining uses, depending on semantics and context. Among these are relative clauses, adjectives, prepositions, verb phrases and appositives.

Researchers have focused on distinguishing between non-defining and defining modifiers. Givón (2001) clarified that non-defining modifiers contribute supplementary details, whereas Quirk *et al.* (1985) underscored that defining modifiers limit noun reference. These conceptualizations lay the groundwork for comprehending the role of non-defining modifiers in sentence structure. Scholars have explored the syntactic and prosodic attributes of non-defining modifiers. Biber *et al.* (1999) noted the prevalence of relative pronouns like “which” in non-defining clauses. Quirk *et al.* (1985) observed that such modifiers are frequently set off by punctuation. Nespor and Vogel (1986) investigated the prosodic cues distinguishing non-defining modifiers, emphasizing intonation patterns. Research has examined the discourse and pragmatic roles of non-defining modifiers. Halliday and Hasan (1976) highlighted their contribution to text cohesion and coherence. Chafe (1994) emphasized their ability to provide background information, enhancing narrative coherence. This perspective underscores the functional significance of non-defining modifiers in discourse structure. Important findings in the research of Nguyen Viet Thien Tu (2022) reveal that non-defining modifiers pragmatically constitute a functional class of linguistic items that are not typically important to the propositional content of an utterance but are essential for the realization of various interpersonal meanings in political communication as well.

METHODOLOGY

Adopting CDA, with particular emphasis on the framework of Fairclough (1989) and utilizing the notions of systemic functional linguistics by Halliday (1985), the present study attempts to shed light on the relationship between language and ideology involved in translation in general, and specifically to uncover the underlying ideological assumptions hidden in the texts through the use of non-defining modifiers, and ascertain whether translators' ideologies are imposed in their translations.

The approach to CDA chosen for this study is that of Norman Fairclough (1995, 2003). For Fairclough, CDA means the analysis of relationships between concrete language use and the wider social cultural structures. [...] He attributes three dimensions to every discursive event. It is simultaneously text, discursive practice – which also includes the production and interpretation of texts - and social practice. The analysis is conducted according to these three dimensions.

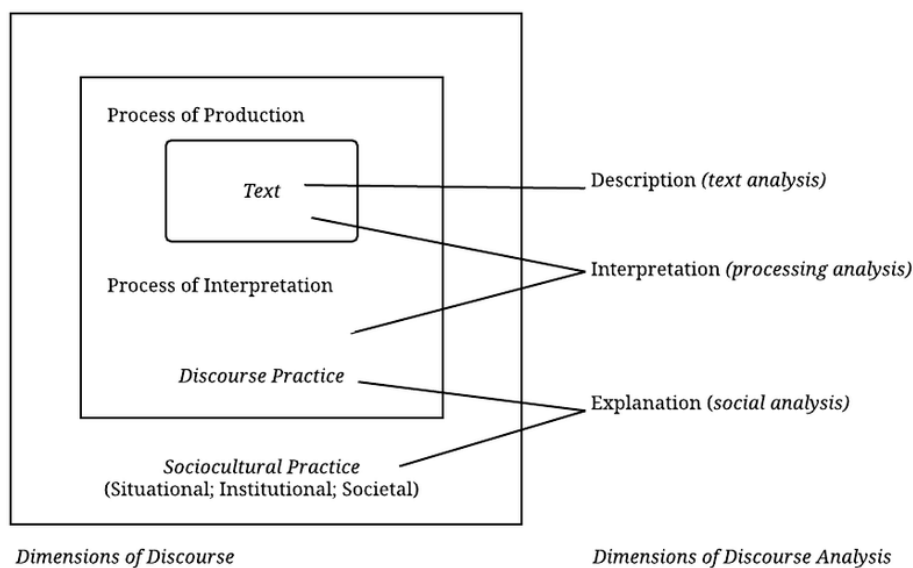


Figure 1. Three-dimensional CDA framework (Fairclough, 1995, p.98)

Besides, Hallidayan model meets the goals of the present study. Therefore, this study is conducted within this framework as well as Fairclough's one. At first, the researcher begins analyzing U.S. Presidents' linguistic choice of using non-defining modifiers in 15 selected speeches (presented in Table 1) whose transcripts are available on the official website of the White House (whitehouse.archives.gov). Having analyzed the non-defining modifiers, the social and situational context of the speeches will also be analyzed. The analysis is carried out within the Hallidayan model of language, focusing on interpersonal meanings realized by these non-defining modifiers categorized into five large domains, namely: creating social bonds, invoking emotions, building consensus, triggering implicatures and expressing ideology. Then, following the Fairclough's model, interpretation and explanation of the discourse come next.

Table 1. Selected U.S. Presidents' Speeches

	Speaker	Speech	Words
1	George W. Bush 43 rd President of the United States: 2001 - 2009	Inaugural Address.	1,597
		Address to Joint Session of Congress on 9/11 Attacks	3,038
		Address UN Security Council	2,735
		Address State of the Union	3,862
		Address to the Australian Parliament	2,076
2	Barack Obama 44 th President of the United States: 2009 - 2017	Inaugural Address.	2,419
		Remarks at White House Forum on Women and the Economy.	2,720
		Remarks to the United Nations General Assembly in New York City	5,578
		Address Before a Joint Session of the Congress on the State of the Union	6,077
		Barack Obama's Address to the People of Vietnam	4,215

3	Donald J. Trump 45 th President of the United States: 2017 - 2021	Victory speech	1,621
		Inauguration speech	1,438
		Arab Islamic American Summit Address	3,654
		Remarks at a Salute to America, Lincoln Memorial	4,160
		Speech from the 2020 Republican National Convention	6,015

The next step is the analysis of the translation of those non-defining modifiers in Vietnamese produced by a group of 7 experienced translators from PSA’s Foreign Languages Department on the basis of the same factors applied to the source text. The data will be shown comparatively and the areas of similarity and difference between the ST and TTs will be identified to find out whether the translator deviated from the dominant ideology of the ST while translating the non-defining modifiers. Therefore, the researcher selected mixed method design for this study. The qualitative part includes the analysis of ST and TT and the quantitative part comprises the data analysis, categorization of analyzing factors, and finally showing their percentage.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Our first step in this research was to identify all the NM used in the selected speeches, which are deliberately aimed at forming certain interpersonal relations between political speakers and their audience. The needed data were gathered, and the results revealed a number of 597 NM in the corpus. Table 2 and figure 2 present the frequency of occurrence of each NM category in the selected speeches.

Table 2. Frequency of NM Categories

Non-defining modifiers	Frequency	Percentage
Adjective phrases	393	66%
Verb phrases	48	8%
Prepositional phrases	41	6.9%
Appositions	63	10.4%
Relative clauses	53	8.7%
Total	597	100%

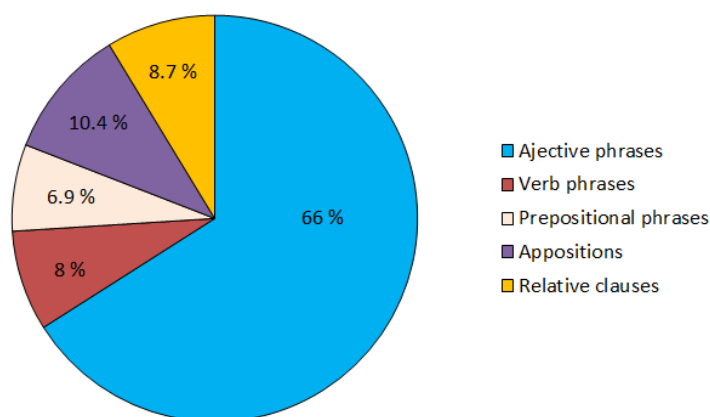


Figure 2. Frequency of NM Categories

According to the results presented in Table 2 and Figure 2, non-defining modifiers are used 597 times in the 15 political speeches. Adjective phrases were found to be the most frequently used category with a percentage of 66% of all the used NM. Following are appositions (10.4%), relative clauses (8.7%), verb phrases (8%) and the least was prepositional phrases with the percentage of 6.9%.

On the next stage, each identified NM is carefully analyzed to find out the intended interpersonal relations that the political speakers want to maintain or enhance with their audience by deploying this NM in the discourse. These interpersonal strategies are grouped into five domains namely creating social bonds, invoking emotions/forming attitudes, building consensus, triggering implicature and expressing ideology. In Table 3, each of interpersonal domains is illustrated with examples, which are utterances containing non-defining modifiers to realize specific interpersonal strategies that are carefully analyzed in the context of the discourses. While a given interpersonal domain is potentially realized by a variety of NM structures, a single NM can help form several interpersonal meanings. In political speeches, in many of the cases, the NMs are deliberately deployed in discourse to fulfill multi-interpersonal effects at the same time.

Table 3. Examples of Interpersonal domains by NM

Domain	How realized (NM structure)	Examples Specific interpersonal strategy (IS)
Creating social bonds	Adjective phrase	We are pleased to have with us Vice President Mike Pence and his <i>wonderful</i> wife Karen. IS: Politeness (Social etiquettes)
	Apposition	We, <i>the citizens of America</i> , are now joined in a great national effort to rebuild our country and to restore its promise for all of our people. IS: Assert ties to one or more addressees
	Adjective phrase	I would like to thank King Salman for his <i>extraordinary</i> words, and the <i>magnificent</i> Kingdom of Saudi Arabia for hosting today's summit. IS: Creating rapport (through positive evaluation and judgment)
Invoking emotions/ attitudes	Adjective phrase	Last night, I visited the Old Quarter here in Hanoi and enjoyed some <i>outstanding</i> Vietnamese food. IS: Invoking the emotion of pride for national cuisine from the Vietnamese audience
	Relative clause	More than 200 years ago, when our Founding Father, Thomas Jefferson, sought rice for his farm, he looked to the rice of Vietnam, <i>which he said had the reputation of being whitest to the eye, best flavored to the taste, and most productive</i> . IS: invoking emotion of pride and forming for supporting attitude
Building consensus	Verb phrase	Our soldiers, <i>working with the Bosnian government</i> , seized terrorists who were plotting to bomb our embassy. IS: Creating common ground for shared affect
	Verb phrase	Our Founding Fathers, <i>faced with perils we can scarcely imagine</i> , drafted a charter to assure the rule of law and the rights of man, a charter expanded by the blood of generations. IS: Invoking consensus

Triggering implicatures	Apposition	And let me say there is no more appropriate leader to join us in this discussion than Kevin Rudd, <i>a Prime Minister of high courage, a leader of great conscience and a visionary for reform.</i> IS: Violation of quantity maxim to generate implicature
Expressing ideology	Relative clause	The crew and passengers quickly subdued the man, <i>who had been trained by Al Qaeda and was armed with explosives.</i> IS: Assert stance (through shared information)
	Verb phrase	All of America was touched on the evening of the tragedy to see Republicans and Democrats <i>joined together on the steps of this Capitol</i> singing "God Bless America." IS: Emphasize the ideology of national solidarity in the troubled time

Table 4 and figure 3 present the frequency of interpersonal domains by NM categories in the selected speeches.

Table 4. Frequency of interpersonal domains by NM categories

	Creating social bonds	Invoking emotions/ attitudes	Building consensus	Triggering implicatures	Expressing ideology	Total
Adjective phrase	112	165	16	23	76	392
Verb phrase	5	9	6	11	17	48
Prepositional phrase	16	8	-	12	5	41
Apposition	21	19	3	14	6	63
Relative clause	3	18	-	19	13	53
Total	157 (26.3%)	219 (36.7%)	25 (4.2%)	79 (13.2%)	117 (19.6%)	597 (100%)

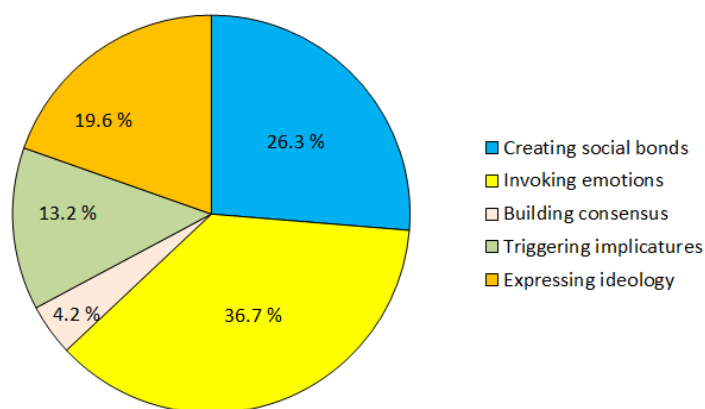


Figure 3. Frequency of interpersonal domains by NM

According to the results presented in Figure 3, invoking emotions was found to be the most frequently used interpersonal strategy with a percentage of 36.7% of all the used NM. Following are creating social bonds (26.3 %), expressing ideology (19.6%), triggering implicatures (13.2%) and the least was the strategy of building consensus with the percentage of 4.2%.

The subsequent phase involves examining the translation strategies deployed by Vietnamese translators when dealing with NM in ST. As mentioned before, CDA is applied to both the ST and

the TT, which are taken as the products of text production, i.e. the ST producer's motivated choices in the ST language and culture and the translator's motivated choices for the production of a new TT in a new language and culture. There are two probable translation strategies on the basis of the text type and purpose of the translation: dynamic or static translation strategy.

- Dynamic approach: the translator must convey information with certain changes in the TT (omissions, additions, permutations and substitutions)

- Static approach: the translator conveys information in the TT with no significant changes according to word-for-word translation strategy

Table 5 presents the frequency of dynamic and static strategy utilized by Vietnamese translators in translating the five categories of NM. 60.5% of NM are translated statically and 39.5% are translated dynamically. A clear comparison is illustrated in figure 3.

Table 5. Translation approach to NM

Non-defining modifiers	Dynamic	Static
Adjective phrases	96	297
Verb phrases	37	11
Prepositional phrases	23	18
Appositions	41	22
Relative clauses	39	13
Total	236 (39.5%)	361 (60.5%)

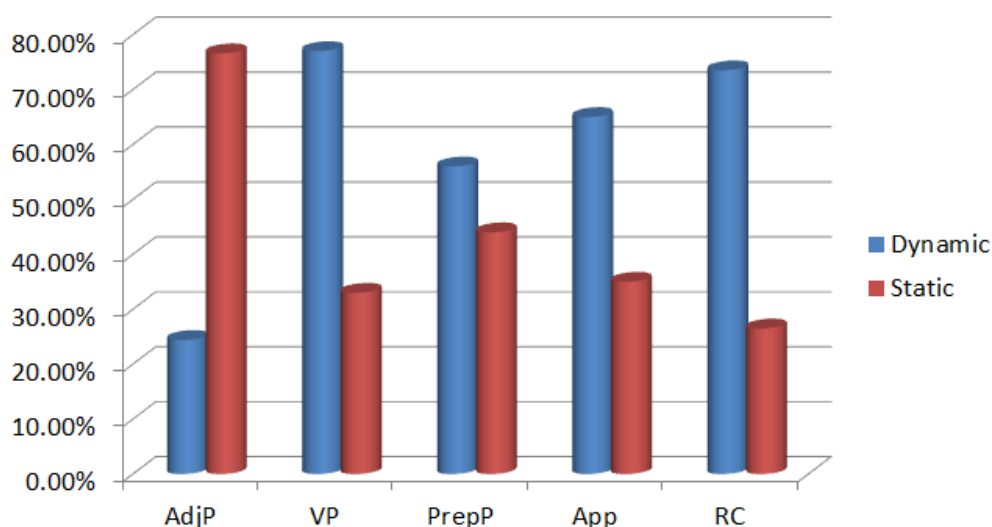


Figure 4. Translation Approach in categories of NM

Finally, the most important step is the comparative analysis of non-defining modifiers in ST and their translation in TTs to determine whether the translators strayed from the predominant ideology of the ST when dealing with non-defining modifiers.

Traditional grammarians describe non-defining modifiers as the linguistic elements which provide additional or parenthetical information on an already definite entity. Hence, they become

optional and can be omitted without affecting the definite notion of the head noun. Political speech is undoubtedly the quintessence of persuasive speech. It can be argued that, once the overarching purpose of a political speech is defined as persuasion, every linguistic item in it is theoretically interpersonal communication. In political speeches, no word is gratuitous, no phrase is formulated just for the sake of itself, and every linguistic choice is actually the result of the speakers' deliberate behaviour.

The analysis reveals three important issues that translators should carefully consider while translating NM in political speeches.

Firstly, omitting the translation of non-defining modifiers in the TT has had an impact on the underlying message conveyed in the ST, resulting in readers of the TT not fully grasping the politician's ideology originally expressed in the ST by means of non-defining modifiers.

(1) ST: Half a century later, we are thrilled to have here tonight the famed NASA Flight Director who led Mission Control during that historic endeavor: *the **renowned** Gene Kranz*.

TT: *Nửa thế kỷ sau, chúng ta vô cùng phấn khích khi có mặt tại đây vào tối nay vị Giám đốc Hàng không nổi tiếng của NASA, người đã chỉ đạo Trung tâm điều khiển trong nhiệm vụ lịch sử đó: **ông Gene Kranz**.*

In ST, "renowned" contributes to the politician's ideological message of celebrating and honoring individuals who have played pivotal roles in historic achievements while also building anticipation and excitement among the audience.

Secondly, the vocabulary type chosen by a speaker or writer affects the minds and the attitudes of the readers and the listeners differently. The types of words that a writer uses can activate particular presuppositions, reveal the speaker's attitudes, require reader agreement for interpretation, and so forth.

The most frequent category of NM is Adjective phrases which are/include emotive language/lexicalization in ST. Emotionally expressive adjectives, as non-modifiers, should be translated conscientiously within the overarching ideology of discourse and maintain overall coherence in TT.

President Trump's *Arab Islamic American Summit Address* reflects an ideological approach of fostering positive relations with Saudi Arabia, emphasizing the country's importance as a regional ally, and demonstrating cultural respect and diplomacy. It aligns with his broader foreign policy objectives and his administration's stance towards key Middle Eastern allies.

In the following text, President Trump's ideology towards Saudi Arabia is conveyed through his expressed gratitude and admiration for the country and its leaders by linguistic means of NM.

(2) ST: I would like to thank King Salman for his ***extraordinary*** words, and the ***magnificent*** Kingdom of Saudi Arabia for hosting today's summit. I am honored to be received by such gracious hosts. I have always heard about the splendor of your country and the kindness of your citizens, but words do not do justice to the grandeur of this ***remarkable*** place and the ***incredible*** hospitality you have shown us from the moment we arrived.

TT: *Tôi xin được cảm ơn đức Vua Salman vì những lời phát biểu xuất sắc của ông, và Vương quốc Ả Rập Saudi tuyệt đẹp đã dâng cai tổ chức cuộc hội nghị ngày hôm nay. Tôi rất tự hào khi*

được tiếp đón bởi những người chủ nhà rất ân cần như vậy. Tôi luôn nghe nói về sự rục rờ của đất nước này và sự tử tế của những người dân, nhưng lời nói không thể miêu tả hết được sự hùng vĩ của địa điểm đặc biệt này và sự hiếu khách tuyệt vời mà các ngài đã dành cho chúng tôi từ lúc chúng tôi đến đây.

Finally, placement of information within a sentence and their order, i.e. which one comes first and which last can directly change the message of the sentence and affects the listener or the reader comprehension or as mentioned before. What the speaker or writer puts first will influence the interpretation of everything that follows.

In the translation submitted, the translator changed the place of the theme whether intentionally or accidentally and thereby the idea which induced in the source text reader may not be transferred to the target text reader.

(30 ST: Last month, at the grave of her husband, Michael, a CIA officer and Marine who died in Mazar-i-Sharif, Shannon Spann said these words of farewell: “Semper fi, my love.”

TT: *Tháng trước, Shannon Spann đã nói lời chia tay “Luôn trung thành, tình yêu của em” tại mộ chồng mình, Michael, một sĩ quan CIA và Thủy quân đã qua đời tại Mazar-i-Sharif.*

IMPLICATION AND CONCLUSION

To put it in a nutshell, in TS, CDA is applied to both the ST and the TT, which are taken as the products of text production, i.e. the ST producer’s motivated choices in the ST language and culture and the translator’s motivated choices for the production of a new TT in a new language and culture. There are two probable translation strategies on the basis of the text type and purpose of the translation: dynamic or static translation strategy.

The main aim of this study was to prove the hypothesis that CDA is a helpful implement in the translation process of political texts, especially when dealing with non-defining modifiers. The framework developed in this study could be viewed as an elective, additional resource or a collection of directives for analyzing source text and target text in the translation of deeply culture-specific political texts characterized by substantial power dynamics and ideological conflicts among communicative participants with a special focus on non-defining modifiers.

This comparative analysis, rooted in Translation Studies with a Critical Discourse Analysis perspective, offers translation students a broader perspective for recognizing and understanding texts in relation to factors like ideology, power dynamics, and cultural and historical contexts, highlighting the presence of underlying ideological biases even in seemingly “optional” linguistic elements of non-defining modifiers and emphasizing the need for translators to be conscious of the discursive choices they make during the translation process to better comprehend politically biased texts and their persuasive strategies.

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