# Issues in Chinese Nepali Sound Translation: An Equivalence Based Dualistic Approach 

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#### Abstract

This paper sheds light on the phonological issues of Chinese-named entities transliterated into Nepali in contrast to the Source language phonology, Hànyǔ Pīnyīn (pinyin), and the target language phonology. We compared 500 transliterated nouns related to their pronunciation to the source language employing speaker and listener-oriented experiments on phonological similarity. We found out that the prevailed sound translation approaches are strictly inclined to pinyin. The priority over phonological equivalence is completely neglected in preserving the source language phonological units and their nativization in target language orthography. The prevalent issues like phonological gaps, inconsistencies, mis-syllabification, etc. arose. We purpose phonological-based Dualistic Equivalence Approach (hybrid transliteration approach)based on Nepali Chinese bilinguals' perceptual similarity to address the existing issues mainly where the monotonous sound alignment in between source language, pinyin, and target language breaks down.


Keywords: Chinese-Nepali Sound Translation, Phonological Issues, Equivalency, Segmentation

## Introduction

Named entities with little or no semantic content are generally transferred in translation. This is often described separately under "transliteration", "phonological translation," and "transcription" in western translation theories. The transfer of sound in the approaches mentioned above always lies at the margins since "transliteration." That is often defined as the process of transcribing the alphabet or character of one language to the other language, which strictly denotes the conversion of Source language(SL)
character（orthographic）into target language（TL）character rather than sound segments．＂Phonological translation＂mostly stresses the preservation of SL sound effects in prosody（Newmark，1988，and Catford，1965），and ＂transcription＂focuses on the recording／transcribing of SL physical sounds using the International phonetic alphabet（IPA ）．Is it possible to translate／transcribe all the sounds or characters of one language to the other？ Do those translated sounds in academic books are readable （understandable）for both language community people？How be the phonological gaps maintained？To address such queries about sound translation，we use＂transliteration＂as an umbrella term．In a broad sense， according to（Al Khuli，1982），transliteration is a process of finding asymmetry between SL and TL to get a mutual letter correspondence by putting SL sound in TL letter．The SL sound or phonological units and TL graphological units should be phonologically relatable and equivalent or near equivalent in transliteration．

Since no two languages exhibit identical equivalents sounds（Nida，1964）， the fundamental job of a translator is to seek the closest possible equivalent （approximation）of SL sound in transliterated words，which represents，reflects， and inroads the conditions of translation equivalence to the total translation （Catford，1965；Febriani，et al．2021）．Based on the definitions mentioned above，transliteration can be redefined as borrowing and converting SL phonological units into equivalent or approximant TL phonological units by putting them in a familiar TL writing system．Along with the translation of Buddhist masterpieces in the late Han Dynasty（206 BC to AD 220），the Chinese Buddhist poets not only transliterated a large number of Sanskrit named entities Mair and Mei，（1991）．They also developed the prosody－based syllable system for transliterating Buddhist Gathas（Branner，2003）．The study on Sanskrit－Chinese（old）translation strategies and issues have been conducted by numerous Chinese researchers（such as Yúmǐn－俞敏，1984；Chǔ Tàisōng－储泰松，1998；Chí Zhìpíng－遲治平，2002，etc．），But the studies on transliterated Nepali named entities and vice versa in and from classical Chinese sources－ especially Chinese Monks＇biographies and travelogues extended from the 7th to 15th centuries（e．g．，＂Nepal＂－尼波羅／尼八剌／尼巴辣，＂Licchavi＂－呫婆種，＂Malla＂－玛刺，＂Amśuvarma＂－碩學聰叡，＂VaiśāП＂（river）－毘舍離，＂Narendradev＂－那陵提婆 ，＂Madanarāma＂－馬達納羅摩，＂Balabahu＂－八魯布，，etc．from Datang Xiyu Ji，as cited in Kotyk，（2015）were not paid attention much．In recent decades，a few Chinese biographies，Chinese language textbooks，Novels，short stories，and Chinese dictionaries，etc．，have been translated into Nepali．Still，the studies on Chinese Nepali transliteration and vice versa are scanty．

Named entities in the translation are often neglected in literary translation， as they do not carry any semantics meanings．In my view，at the very least，the misspelled／mis－transliteration of the names of important people that are familiar in both language community，names in Language textbook which has pedagogic implications is malicious．The development of Pinyin and Pinyin

Fangan (pinyin syllables) in 1982 comes as a boon in breaking the script barrier in Chinese to non-Chinese transliteration and other academic fields. Especially in reading and typing its logographic writings, which is undeniable. However, the Pinyin and its phonetic realization in SL and TL (especially non-English ) are not always arbitrary (discussed in Chris and Chao, 2007). The translator or used approaches in sound translation fail to address the phonological gaps in transliteration. That does not only generate ambiguities and inconsistencies, the mis-spelled transliteration, e.g., "Zhōu Ēnlái" as "चाउ एन-लाइ//tsav en lai/ completely distorts the original sound, alleviate cultural sensitivity for both language community. Therefore, the translator must bridge the existing phonological gaps and equivalence due to greater phonological correspondence in both languages and both directions with consummate ease.

We view the transfer of sound as the dual practice of phonological translation and transliteration. They focus on the phonological gaps and equivalent. They also related the issues and established a correspondence between SL and TL phonological units in transliterated words. We assume the initials (onset consonant) related phonological gaps and equivalence issues can be addressed through the distinctive phonological features. But, the Transliteration of Rhyme (including medials, nucleus vowels, and syllabic ending) and related phonological issues can only be addressed through SL contextual features (phonological environment in SL). Simultaneously, the equivalence between the number of SL syllables, form, and size in a word should also be maintained in transliterated words.

## Research Methodology

A list of 500 transliterated Named entities: proper names, seasons, festivals, and locations with Chinese character (hanzi) and Pinyin were randomly collected from 6 Chinese Nepali translated language textbooks, the article from three Nepali widely circulated newspapers, and the article from an online portal of CRI Nepali Service in between June and November 2020. For the speech corpus, a Nepali language teacher (entirely unfamiliar with the Chinese language) at Tribhuwan University, a Chinese bilingual (English), and a Nepali bilingual post-graduate student of Beijing Normal University (three persons) were surveyed. The speech corpus of those 500 words was recorded using Feipeng (recording software ) and transcribed using the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA).

This project's main objective is to find out the issues in sound translation and maintain phonological equivalence between transliterated words and their SL phonological units, demonstrate the richness of SL phonology, and enhance the transliteration quality. We employed the Dualistic Equivalence Approachspeaker and listener oriented experiment on phonological similarity to ensure
the utterance more intense and effective to that of SL sound, syllable form, etc. For that, first, the recorded corpus data (SL pronunciation and the pronunciation of transliterated words) by Chinese and Nepali (unfamiliar to each-others language) speakers were observed. Then the errors or differences in correspondences with the similarity and differences were shorted out. Those data (SL nouns with pinyin) in which the sound alignment breaks were given to Nepali Chinese bilingual speakers to pronounce and data were recorded. Finally, the word pronounced by Nepali Chinese bilingual, and that was also understandable to Chinese native speakers, were taken as approximate equivalence to the SL pronunciation.

Only the relevant phonological units to the sound translation issues from the corpus data were discussed. The segments to be compared are Initials, Finals, Syllable and Syllabification, and Word boundaries. The translated part ( semantic marker) in half transliterated nouns are neglected.

## Findings and Discussion

Phonological gaps

The gaps in Chinese Nepali transliteration, e.g., (1) the difference in the number of SL and TL vowel and consonant characters (here pinyin for Chinese and Devanagari for Nepali) and their corresponding phonemes, (2) phonetic variation of the same character in both languages, (3) the missing sounds that are present in SL or in SL syllable but absent or be a loss there in TL and vice versa, (4) syllable form, and size, etc. are the existing gaps that add complexity in establishing phonological equivalence. Table 1: gives a contrast between Chinese and Nepali consonant characters with phonemes.

| Place $\&$ <br> Manner  <br> articulation of  |  |  | Stops |  |  |  | Affricates |  |  | $\left.\begin{array}{\|l\|} \hline \mathrm{Na} \\ \text { sal } \\ \mathrm{s} \end{array} \right\rvert\, \begin{aligned} & \\ & \hline \mathrm{Vd} \end{aligned}$ | Lat eral | $\begin{array}{\|l\|} \hline \text { Tri } \\ \text { II } \end{array}$ | Fricativ es |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | VI |  | Vd |  | VI |  | Vd |  |  |  | VI |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | d |  |
| Labials |  | $\begin{array}{\|l} \hline \begin{array}{l} \text { Pinyi } \\ \mathrm{n} \end{array} \\ \hline \end{array}$ | b | p |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | m |  |  | f |  |
|  |  | IPA | P | $\mathrm{p}$ |  |  |  |  |  | m |  |  | f |  |
|  | N | Dvn. | प् | फ् | ब् | भ् |  |  |  | म् |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | IPA | P | $\mathrm{p}$ | b | $\begin{aligned} & \hline b \\ & h \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  | m |  |  |  |  |
| Den tals | C | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Pinyi } \\ & \mathrm{n} \end{aligned}$ | d | $\dagger$ |  |  | z | C |  | n | I |  | s |  |
|  |  | IPA | $\dagger$ | $\dagger^{\text {h }}$ |  |  | ts | ts h |  | n | I |  | S |  |



Table 1. Chinese Nepali Consonants contrast
(Where C=Chinese, N=Nepali, vl/vd=voiceless/voiced)

Nepali has comparatively more consonants (phoneme/character) than Chinese. Only the 17 Chinese consonants (out of 22) ( $\mathrm{p}, p^{h}, t, t^{h}, t s, t s^{h}, k$, $\left.\mathrm{kh}, m, n, \eta, l, r, s, s, \int, h\right]$ ) have an elusive one-to-one correspondence to Nepali consonant phonemes/ characters. All TL retroflex stops voiced stops and affricates ( $\left[b, b^{h}, d, d^{h}, d z, d z^{h}, t, t^{h}, d d^{h}, g, g^{h}\right]$ ) are absent in SL as all the obstruent in Chinese is voiceless.

As SL retroflex and palatal affricates ([ts, tsh, t6, t6h] and labiodental fricative [ f ] is absent in TL . It is necessary to link the gap but finding an exact equivalence/parallel for absent phonological segments in translation is impossible, as there is always some loss of information (Crystal, 1991). However, finding near equivalence or approximation between the source text and the target text(sound/sound units) items (at least some of them) is relatable to the same features of substance, which can be helpful to bridge the gaps in translation (Catford, 1965). Nepali affricate [ts,tsh] and labial [ph] share most of the distinctive features with Chinese affricates [ $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{s}}, \mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{s}} \mathrm{h}, \mathrm{t}_{6}, \mathrm{t}_{6} \mathrm{~h}$ ] and fricative[f] respectively. On the other hand, even the Nepali Chinese/English bilinguals do not differentiate them in back-translation. Moreover, affricates in both languages show dual characteristics, e.g., Chinese palatal [ $\dagger 6$, t 6 h ] only make a distinction dental [ $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{ts} \mathrm{h}]$ followed by front glide and the retroflex [ $\dagger \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{h}$ ] are
often replaced with dental by native speakers (Duanmu, 2000). Similarly,
 (Acharya, 1991).

The number of Vowel characters and their phonetic value varies in both languages. Table2 gives a contrast between Chinese and Nepali vowel character and their respective phoneme.

|  | Front |  |  | Central |  | Back |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Unround |  | $\begin{gathered} \text { Rou } \\ \text { nd } \\ \mathrm{N} \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | Unround |  | Unround <br> C | Round |  |
|  | C | C |  | C | N |  | C | N |
| High | $\begin{aligned} & \text { i } \\ & \text { [i] } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \dot{\prime \prime} \\ & {[y]} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { ई }[i] \\ & \text { इ [ }[\mathrm{I}] \end{aligned}$ | i [ $1 ; 1$ ] |  |  | U [U] | $\begin{aligned} & \text { ऊ }[\cup] \\ & \text { उ }[v] \end{aligned}$ |
| Mid |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { ए } \\ & {[\mathrm{e}]} \end{aligned}$ | ऐ | $\begin{aligned} & e \\ & {[\partial, \partial]} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { अ } \\ & \text { [ə] } \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | e [ $\gamma$ ] | $\begin{aligned} & 0 \\ & {[0,0]} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { ओ } \\ & \text { [०] } \end{aligned}$ |
| Low | [ $\varepsilon$ ] |  |  | a [a] | $\begin{aligned} & \text { आ } \\ & {[a]} \end{aligned}$ |  | (a) |  |

Table 2. Chinese Nepali Vowel contrast

Chinese vowel characters (pinyin): / i, ü, u, a, e, o / represent 10 different phonetic values, where /i/ represents: [i,, l ] ; /a/ represents: $[a, a, \varepsilon]$ and /e/ represents:[ $\gamma, \boldsymbol{\partial}, \boldsymbol{\imath}]$ (Norman, 1988). Chinese high vowels may appears as a medial (pre-peak glide:[j,w,y]) and nucleu [i, u, y], [i, u (o)] may appear at syllabic ending (post-peak glide) followed by a non-high vowel and form a diphthong (Achary, 1991); [i, u] as nucleus are lowered before[n], [i] gets centralized [...] followed by apical affricates and retroflex ; [ə] becomes [e, o] before [i, u] respectively; [a] remains unchanged followed by [n]and [u], but becomes [a] at zero coda syllable and [ $\varepsilon$ ] in between [i]and [n]. Besides, Chinese pinyin do not show long and short vowel markers, but has phonemic significance (Acharya, 1991). Such arbitrariness and gaps in between SL pinyin and their phonetic value has created difficulty to be consistent in choosing the most equivalent vowel character among 6 Nepali monopthongs: [ə], [a], [ I , [ $u$ ], [e], [ o . In addition, Nepali orthography only possess separate character for high vowels vowel length distinction, and 2 dipthongs, but vowel length due to the intervocalic [h] deletion makes clear long short contrast (Adhikari and Neupane, 2020), and has phonemic significance in syllable division, stress in the word etc. that brings semantic changes. Nepali is semi-syllabary language, that's why the vowels in it's writing systems are categorized as (1) independent vowel letters: अ [ə], आ [a], इ [ I$]$, ई [i], उ [ [ ], ऊ [u], ए [e], ऐ [əェ / ei ], ओ[o], अ才 [əu] ,(2) dependent vowel signs (Matras/non inherent vowels)that exist in combination with a consonant letter, e.g., प् p/ +
 the dipthongs with schwa and high vowels ([ər, ə૪]) are written in a single combining letter, others are mostly written in combining vowel letters.

The gaps appears in conversing (representing) the existing 13 Chinese
dipthongs and tripthongs: ai[ai], ei[ei], ao[ao], ou[ou], ia[iA], ie[ie], ua[UA], uo[uo], üe[yદ], iao[iau], iou[iou], vai[uai], vei[uei] into 10 Nepali dipthongs: [әг], [ai], [əv],[av], [er], [or], [ev], [ov], [UI] and[iv] (Adhikari and Neupane, 2020) with appropriate letter or letters as Nepali lacks falling dipthongs and tripthongs.

Chinese and Nepali possess a maximum of 5 characters in their written form (pinyin syllable and monosyllabic word in Devanagari): CG(V)CC and $C C C(V) C$, respectively, which leads to lots of controversies about the size and form of the syllable in both languages, e.g., (1) Consonant cluster /ng/ at syllabic ending that actually represents a single phoneme([n]), (2) the missing of schwa vowel in between glide and high vowel, e.g., gui [gwər]), (3) the consonant clusters in written Nepali which do not form a consonant cluster in spoken form. However, both languages share the common syllable form (C)
( $G$ ) $V(X)$ (where $C=$ Consonant, $G=$ glide/Medial, $V=$ main vowel (monophthong/ a long vowel), $X=$ syllabic final) that makes twelve types of a permissible syllable: V, CV, VV, VC, GV, GVV, GVC, CVV, CVC, CGV, CGVV, CGVC (Acharya, 1991, and Pokharel, 1989) in their spoken form. All basic vowels (6 vowels) constitute the syllabic peak (v) alone or with the pre-peak [j, $\mathrm{w}, \mathrm{u}]$ or post-peak glide ( $[\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{u}]$ ) or single consonant in the margin.

### 3.2 Phonological Inconsistencies

### 3.2.1 Inconsistencies in Transliterating Initials (onset consonants)

Table 3: presents the voiceless-voiced inconsistencies of the SL stops and affricates in transliterated words. The left two columns show the expected Transliteration with IPA.

| Nouns in Pinyin |  | Transliterated Nouns |  | Issues | Should Translite | ated |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bólínchá <br> n | po.lin.tsh an | $\begin{array}{ll} \hline \text { बो लिन } \\ \text { छान } \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{ll} \hline \text { bo } \\ \text { tshan } \end{array}$ | $[p] \rightarrow[\mathrm{b}]$ | पोलिन <br> छान | po.lin.tsh <br> an |
| Báiyáng diàn | par.jan.t jœn | $\begin{array}{ll} \hline \text { बाई } & \text { याङ़ } \\ \text { त्येन } & \end{array}$ | bai.jang.t jen |  | पाइयाङ <br> त्यान् | par.jan.t jan |
| Běishān | per.san | पै शान | рәi Jan | $[\mathrm{p}] \rightarrow[\mathrm{p}]$ | पेइशान | pei.fan |
| Běidàih é | $\begin{aligned} & \text { per.tar.x } \\ & \partial \end{aligned}$ | पै ताई ह | pər tai hə | $\begin{aligned} & {[\mathrm{p}] \rightarrow[\mathrm{p}],} \\ & {[\mathrm{t}] \rightarrow[\mathrm{t}]} \end{aligned}$ | पेइताइ ह | $\begin{aligned} & \text { per.taı. } \mathrm{h} \\ & \partial \end{aligned}$ |
| Běijīng | pei.tcin | पेकिङ्ग/बेइ <br> जिङ्ग/ पैचिङ | pe.king/ bei.dzin/ pər.tsin | $[p] \rightarrow[p, b]$ | पेइचिङ बेइजिङ | pei.tsin |
| Bóhǎi | po.xai | बो(पो) हाई | bo(po) <br> hai | $[\mathrm{p}] \rightarrow[\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{b}]$ | पोहाइ | po.hai |
| Dézhōu, | †ə.tsəu | द (त) चौ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { də (tə) } \\ & \text { tsəu } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & {[\mathrm{t}] \rightarrow[\mathrm{d}],} \\ & [\mathrm{t} \mathrm{~s}] \rightarrow[\mathrm{t}] \mathrm{s}] \end{aligned}$ | तचौ | tə.tsəu |


| Duānwǔ | twan.u | तुअन उ | tv.an v | $[t] \rightarrow[\dagger]$ | त्वान्ऊ | twan.u |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Dàxīng | ta.bin | दा(ता)सिङ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { da(ta) } \\ & \text { sin } \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $[t] \rightarrow[\mathrm{d}, \mathrm{t}]$ | ताशिङ | ta.Jin |
| Chéngd ù | t6 $6^{\text {¢ }}$ ¢.tu | छन्दु | tshən.du | $[t] \rightarrow[\mathrm{d}]$ | छङ्दू | tsh^n.tu |
| Guǎngz hōu | kwan.ts əu | ग्वान्झाउ/ ग्वाङ्झाओ/ ग्वाङ्ग च्होउ | gwan.dz ${ }^{\text {h }}$ av/dzª. o/gwang .tshou | $\begin{aligned} & {[\mathrm{k}] \rightarrow[\mathrm{g}]} \\ & {[\mathrm{ts}] \rightarrow\left[\mathrm{dz} \mathrm{Z}^{\mathrm{h}},\right.} \\ & \mathrm{tsh}] \end{aligned}$ | गवाङ्चौ | gwan.ts əช |
| Gānsù | kan.su | गान्सु | gan.su | $[\mathrm{k}] \rightarrow[\mathrm{g}]$ | कान्सू | kan.su |
| Zhūgě Liàng | $\begin{array}{\|l} \hline \text { tsu.ky } \\ \text { ljan } \\ \hline \end{array}$ | चु क ल्यङ्ز | $\begin{array}{ll} \hline \text { tsu } & \text { kə } \\ \text { ling } \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & {[\mathrm{t} \mathrm{~s}] \rightarrow[\mathrm{ts}],} \\ & {[\mathrm{k}] \rightarrow[\mathrm{k}]} \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | चूक <br> ल्याङ | tsu.kə ljan |
| Jiā Yáng | tcja.jan | चिया याङ | tss.ja jan | $\left[\mathrm{t}_{6}\right] \rightarrow[\mathrm{ts}]$ | च्यायाङ | tsja.jan |
| Jilín | tci.lin | जि <br> लिन/चीलिन | dzi lin /tsi lin | $[t ¢] \rightarrow[\mathrm{dz}]$ | चीलिन | tsi.lın |
| Xí Jìnpíng | $6 i$ t6in. ${ }^{\text {hin }}$ In | सी जिन फिङ /(चिन)पिङ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { sidzin. } \mathrm{ph}_{\mathrm{I}} \\ & \eta \\ & \text { (tsin) } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & {[t 6] \rightarrow[t s,} \\ & d z] \end{aligned}$ | सी चिनफिङ | si tsin. $\mathrm{P}^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{I}$ 万 |
| Zhèngdì ng | t¢^n.tın | चन तिङ | tsən tın | $[t s] \rightarrow[\mathrm{t}]$ | चनतिङ | tsən.tın |
| Zhōngku í | $\begin{aligned} & \text { tsun.khw } \\ & \text { әI } \end{aligned}$ | चोङ़ ख्वइ | tsong khwəi |  | चुङख्वै | tson. ${ }^{\text {hnw }}$ әІ |
| Zhāngm ù | tsan.mu | च्हाङ़मु | tshang.m <br> v | $[t s] \rightarrow[t s h]$ | चाङमम | tsan.mu |
| Zhèjiāng | tso.tcjan | च्ह चियाङ | †sЋə tsijan |  | चच्याङ | tsə.tsjan |
| Zhāngn án | tsan.nan | झाङनान | dzªng.n an | $[t s] \rightarrow\left[d z^{\text {n }}\right]$ | चाङनान् | $\begin{aligned} & \text { tsan.na } \\ & \mathrm{n} \end{aligned}$ |

Table 3. Chinese unaspirated voiceless and transliteration

Note: Where dot mark "." represents syllable boundary, space between Chinese syllables represents the separated part (syllable), which is either Surename, semantic marker, or the structured semantic name that consists of more than three syllables (will be discussed in 3.4). The spaces in transliterated words that do not correspond to SL spaces are transliteration errors.
As mentioned in Table 3, SL voiceless [p] in Bólínchán, Báiyángdiàn, and Bóhǎi is transliterated into voiced [b], but it preserved SL sound in Běidàihé and Běishān. The same voiceless phoneme in Běijing is transliterated as [p] and [b] inconstantly.] t[ in Daxing, Chéngdū is transliterated into voiced [d], but it is transliterated into voiceless [ $t$ ] in Dézhōu and Duānwǔ. Voiceless [ $k$ ] in Zhūgě Liàng is preserved as it is in SL, but it is transliterated into voiced [g] in Guǎngzhōu and Gānsù. [ts] in Jiāyáng is transliterated into voiced [dz], but it is transliterated into voiced and voiceless [dz, ts] in Xí Jìnpíng and Jilín. [ts] in

Zhāngnán is transliterated into aspirated voiced [dzh, but [ts] is multi--transliterated into [ts, dzh, tsh] in Zhāngmù, Guǎngzhōu, Zhèjiāng, and Zhōngkuí. Transliteration of an SL single initial (C) into a consonant cluster ( $[t s h]$ ( $[t s+\uparrow]$ ) is not appropriate as CC is un-permissible in SL and TL syllables.

Table 4: shows the aspirated-unaspirated inconsistencies of the SL stops and affricates in transliterated words.

| Nouns in Pinyin |  | Transliterated Nouns |  | Issues <br> $\left.\mathrm{k}^{\mathrm{h}}\right] \rightarrow$ <br> [ $\mathrm{k}^{\mathrm{h}}$ ] | Should Transliterated |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| kǎitǐ | $k^{\text {har.thi }}$ | खाइ थि | $\mathrm{kh}^{\text {ar }} \mathrm{th}^{\text {I }}$ |  | खाइथी | $k^{\text {har.t.thi }}$ |
| tángkǎ | than. ${ }^{\text {h }}$ a | थान्का | than.ka | $\left[k^{\mathrm{h}}\right] \rightarrow[\mathrm{k}]$ | थाङ्खा | than. ${ }^{\text {ha }}$ |
| Kūnmín g | khun.mi $\eta$ | कुनमिङ/ खुनमिन | kun.min <br> / <br> khun.mi <br> n | $\begin{aligned} & {\left[k^{h}\right] \rightarrow[k]} \\ & {\left[k^{h}\right]} \end{aligned}$ | खुनमिङ | khon.min |
| Pān Yuè | phan.ye | पान युए | pan jue | $\left[p^{n}\right] \rightarrow[p$ | फान् य्वे | phan.jue |
| pānzhīh uā | phan.tsp. <br> xWA | पान चिर ह्वा | pan tsir hwa | ] | फान्चह्वा | phan.tsi.h wa |
| Tiān'ān mén | thjaen.a n.mən | तियानआ <br> न मेन | tı.jan an men | $\left[{ }^{\text {th }}\right] \rightarrow[t]$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { थ्यान-आन } \\ & \text { मन } \end{aligned}$ | thjan an.mən |
| Téngxù | thən.6yn | थङ्ग स्युन | theng sjun | $\left[{ }^{\text {hn }}\right] \rightarrow\left[{ }^{\text {h }}\right]$ | थङस्स्यून | thən. Jjon |
| Tángsē ng | than.sən | चान्थेंग | tsan.the 7g | $\left[{ }^{\text {n }}\right] \rightarrow[t s]$ | थाङसङ | than.sən |
| Wǔtái Shān | u.that.s an | उटाई | v.tai.Jan | $[t h] \rightarrow[t]$ | उथाइ शान | u.thai fan |

Table 4. Chinese voiceless aspirated and transliteration

SL voiceless aspirated $\left[\mathrm{k}^{\mathrm{h}}\right]$ is preserved in kǎitǐ, but it is transliterated into unaspirated ([k]) in tángkǎ. [kh] in Kūnmíng is transliterated into [k] and [k]. [ph] in Pān Yuè (or Pān Ān), Pānzhīhuā is transliterated into unaspirated voiceless [p]. The SL pronunciation [ $t^{\mathrm{h}}$ ] is preserved in the Transliteration of Téngxùn, but it is transliterated into unaspirated [ $t$ ] in Tiān'ānmén. The same SL sound, $\left[t^{\mathrm{h}}\right]$ in Wǔtái Shān and Tángsēng is mis-transliterated into retroflex [t] and dental affricate [ $\dagger \mathrm{s}$ ] respectively. Chinese do not have retroflex stops at all.

Table 5: presents the inconsistencies in transliterating sibilants.

| Nouns in Pinyin |  | Transliterated <br> Nouns |  | Issues | Should be <br> Transliterated |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Shānhǎi | san.xaı. | शान हाइ | Jan haı | [s] $] \rightarrow[$ | शानहाइ | Jan.haı |


| guān | kwan | कान | kwan | ת. | कान | kwan |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Shénnó ng | sən.nชn | शन नोङ़ | fən nong |  | शन्-नुङ | fən.non |
| Shāndō ng | san.tın | सान तोङ | san ton | $\begin{aligned} & {[s] \rightarrow[ } \\ & s] \\ & s] \end{aligned}$ | शानतुङ | san.ton |
| Shēnzh èn | sən.tsən | सेनचेन | sen.tsen |  | शनचन | sentsen |
| Yù Shān | yu.san | यु सेन् | jus sen |  | यू शान | ju.fan |
| Xí Jìnpíng | 6i.tcin.p <br> hin | सी <br> जिन(चिन) <br> फिङ/पिङ | $\begin{array}{\|l\|} \hline \text { si } \\ \text { dzIn.phin( } \\ \text { tsin) } \\ \hline \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & {[6] \rightarrow[ } \\ & s] \end{aligned}$ | शी <br> चिनफिङ | J.tsin. ${ }^{\text {h }}$ 万 |
| Xizàng | 6I.tsan | सी चाङ़ | si tsang |  | शीचाङ | fitsang |
| X Xīnjiāng | sin.tsua <br> 万 | सीन च्वाङ्ग | $\sin$ tswang |  | शिनच्याङ | fin. tswan |
| Qīng XRíng | $\begin{array}{\|l} \hline \text { tern.t6i.lI } \\ \eta \\ \hline \end{array}$ | छिङ्ड सी लिङ्ग | tsing si ling |  | छिङ <br> शीलिङ | tshin fil lin |
| Xuánzà ng | swan.ts an | गान्चांग | gan.tsang | $\begin{aligned} & \hline[6] \rightarrow[ \\ & \mathrm{g}] \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | श्वानचाङ | Jwan.tsan |

Table 5. Chinese sibilants and transliteration

As mentioned in table 5, Chinese retroflex sibilant [s] in Shānhǎiguān, Shénnóng is transliterated into palatal [], but it transliterated into dental [s] in Shāndōng, Shēnzhèn, Yù Shān. There is controversy whether SL retroflex makes closer equivalence to TL [J]] or [s]. Palatal [] is almost transliterated into dental [s] as in Xí Jìnpíng, Xizàng, Xīnjiāng, Qīng Xiíng, etc., which distorts the original sound. Though Nepali always makes a clear distinction between dental and palatal sibilant orthographically. The phonological distinction is found while followed by high vowels/glide. Transliterating SL sibilants into stops [g] and [th] in Xuánzàng, Tángsēng ( see table 4) is inappropriate.

### 3.2.2 Inconsistencies in Transliterating Finals

## 1. Finals without medial

Chinese open mouth finals lack medial and may occur with or without coda. SL vowel letters within a similar phonological environment are often transliterated differently and inconsistently. Table 6: shows the Chinese vowels (monophthongs and rising diphthongs) in open finals and inconsistencies in their transliteration.

| Nouns in <br> Pinyin |  | Transliterated <br> Nouns |  | Issues | Should be <br> Transliterated |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| niányè <br> fàn | njaen.yع <br> ffan | न्यान ये <br> फान | njan ye <br> phan | $[\mathrm{e}] \rightarrow[\mathrm{je}]$ | न्यान-ए <br> फान |
| njan-eph <br> an |  |  |  |  |  |


| Zhōu <br> Ēnlái | tรəช.ən.l aI | चाउ <br> एन-लाइ | tsau en-lai | $\begin{aligned} & {[ə \mho] \rightarrow[a \mho],} \\ & {[ə \mathrm{a}] \rightarrow[\mathrm{en}]} \end{aligned}$ | चौ <br> अनला <br> इ | †səu ən.lai |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Dèng <br> Xiǎo <br> píng | $\dagger \wedge$ sjau. ${ }^{h_{I}}$万 | देङ/दङ <br> स्याओ <br> फिङ/पि <br> ङ | dən <br> sja.ao pIn | [əŋ] $\rightarrow$ [en] | $\begin{aligned} & \text { तङ } \\ & \text { श्याउ } \\ & \text { फिङ } \end{aligned}$ | d^n $\int j a v$ pIn |
| Hòu yànqí | хәบ jaen.tøhi | होउ यान्छी <br> हौ याङ्की | hov jan.tshi hər jan.ki | $[\mathrm{OU}] \rightarrow$ [ə๐] | हौ <br> यान्छी | Һə๐ jøen.tshi |
| Běishā <br> n | per.san | पै शान | рәт fan | [ei] $\rightarrow$ [ i ] | पेइशान | pei.fan |
| Húběi | xu.per | हुबेई | hu.bei | [ei] $\rightarrow$ [ei] | हूपेइ | hu.per |
| Máo <br> Zédōn g | mav.tə. ton | माओ <br> चतोङ/तु <br> ङ, <br> माओत्से <br> तोङ | ma.o tsə ton/ ton maot. se ton | $\begin{aligned} & {[\mathrm{au}] \rightarrow[\mathrm{ao}],} \\ & {[\mathrm{v}] \rightarrow[o n, \text { ø }]} \\ & ] \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { माउ } \\ & \text { चतुङ } \end{aligned}$ | mav.tsə. ton (ton) |
| Cǎoshū | tshau.su | छाओ शु | tsha.o.ju | $[\mathrm{au}] \rightarrow[\mathrm{ao}]$ | छाउशू | tshav.ju |
| niángā <br> o | njan.ka <br> v | न्यान काओ | njan ka.o |  | न्यानकाउ | njœn kav |

Table 6. Vowels in open mouth finals and Transliteration
[e] in niányèfàn is transliterated into [e], but the formal initial [j] followed by corresponding vowels ([y] by [i, e] ) get merged in Nepali (see table 11). Moreover, the [je] sequence is unusual in Nepali orthography. Nucleus [ə] in a closed syllable is transliterated into [e] in Zhōu Ēnlái, Dèng Xiǎopíng, Tiān'ānmén (see 4) Shēnzhèn (see table 5), etc.
[ei ] which is pronounced as [er] in Chinese, but it transliterated into [əi, ei] in Běishān, Běidàihé (see table 3), and Húběi. It is multi-transliterated into [e, ei, əi ] in Běijīng (see table 3). Similarly, [ai] in Zhōu Ēnlái, Běidàihé, Báiyángdiàn, Bóhǎi (see table 3), Wǔtái Shān (see table 4) Zhōu Ēnlái is transliterated into [ai]. [ O ] proceed or followed by corresponding glide [ $\mathrm{W}, \mathrm{u}$ ] is [ $\partial$ ], but it is transliterated into [ou] corresponding to SL pinyin in Hòu Yì shì rì, fěnzhēngròu, shǒu suì. It is transliterated into [au, əu, ao] in Guǎngzhōu (see table 3), but [av] in Zhōu Ēnlái. Similarly, [au(o)]is transliterated as [ao, au, av] in Máo Zédōng, cǎoshū, and niángāo. Strictly speaking, pinyin /o/ proceed by low vowels ([a, ə]) is [u]. Moreover, /ao/ cluster don't form a diphthongs in Nepali, the transliteration of pinyin /ao/ as [ao] or [au] in Nepali divides Chinese monosyllable into di-syllable.

## 2. Finals with Medial

Finals with /i, ü, u / ([j, u, w] and [i,y,u] as medial and nucleus) are known as
even-teeth finals, puckered- mouth finals, and closed-mouth finals, respectively. The common problems in transliterating vowels in them are (1) inconsistencies in transliterating nucleus [i, u ] of zero coda syllable into short and long vowels [ $\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{U}, \mathrm{v}]$, (2) transliterating SL medial into vocalic ([i, U]), (3) missing of the nucleus in between medial and high vowels.

Table 7: shows the inconsistencies in the Transliteration of SL pinyin /i/ (medial/nucleus) in even teeth finals.

| Nouns in Pinyin |  | Transliterated Nouns |  | Issues <br> $[\mathrm{i}] \rightarrow[\mathrm{I}]$ | Should beTransliterated |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| suānní | swan.ni | $\begin{array}{ll} \hline \text { सु } & \text { आन } \\ \text { नि } \end{array}$ | su an ni |  | स्वान्-नी | swan.ni |
| Shídé | งฺ.tə | श द | ¢ə də | [] $\rightarrow$ [ə] | शीत | Ji.tə |
| Shíjiāzhuā ng | Sl.tgia.tswa <br> $\eta$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { शीचिया } \\ & \text { च्ह्वाङ } \end{aligned}$ | fi.tsi.ja tshwan | $\begin{aligned} & \hline[\mathrm{l} \rightarrow \text { [i],[ia] } \rightarrow[ \\ & \text { ija] }] \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | शीच्या <br> च्वाङ | Ji.tsja tswan |
| jiā yang | tcija. jan | चिया <br> याङ/ <br> च्या याङ़ | tsi.ja <br> jan/tsja. <br> jang | $\begin{aligned} & \text { [iad] } \rightarrow[\mathrm{j} \mathrm{ja}] /[\mathrm{ja} \\ & ] \end{aligned}$ | च्यायाङ | tsja.jan |
| jiǎgǔwén | t¢ja.ku.wən | $\begin{aligned} & \text { च्या कु } \\ & \text { वन } \end{aligned}$ | tsja ku wən | [ia] $\rightarrow$ [ja] | च्याकू वन | tsja.ku wən |
| Yixiàn | i.cjan | यी सेन् | ji sen | [jæn] $\rightarrow$ [en] | यी श्यन | ji.jjœn |
| Yānshān | iœn.san | येन सान | jen san | [ja] $\rightarrow$ [je] | यानशान | ja๕n.jan |
| Zhōngqiūji <br> é | tsur.t6hjəu. t 6 j $\varepsilon$ | चोङ्ञ <br> छ्यौ/ <br> चोङ <br> छिउ | tsong <br> tshjou <br> tse <br> / tson <br> tshiv | $\begin{aligned} & {[\mathrm{vn}] \rightarrow[\mathrm{ong}],} \\ & {[\mathrm{iou}] \rightarrow[\mathrm{j} \partial \mathrm{l}][\mathrm{I}} \\ & v] \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { चोङ } \\ & \text { छ्यौ } \end{aligned}$ | tsun.tshjə <br> v |
| Tángxiōng | than.6jun | थाङ्ग स्योङ़ | thang <br> sjong | [ivn] $\rightarrow$ [jon] | थाङ श्योङ | t'an.sjon |
| Liáoníng | ljav.nın | लियाउनि <br> ङ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Ir.jao.ni } \\ & \text { ng } \end{aligned}$ | [iau] $\rightarrow$ [ijav] | ल्याउनि ङ | ljav.nın |
| Cāng Jié | tshan.t¢. $\varepsilon$ | छाङ्ग चे | tshang tse | $[i \varepsilon] \rightarrow[\mathrm{e}]$ | छाङ•चे | tshan.tse /jə |
| Zhū Bājiè | tş pa.t¢¢¢ | चुपा जिये | tsu.pa <br> dzije | $[i \varepsilon] \rightarrow[\mathrm{ije}]$ | चू पाचे | tsu pat.sjə |

Table 7. Vowels in even-teeth finals and transliteration

Necleus [i] in zero coda syllable is not only transliterated into short vowel ([r]) as in suānní, kǎitǐ, tàijíquán (see 8) and long vowel ([i]) in Hòu yànqí, Xí Jìnpíng, Xizàng (see 5), it is often transliterated into [i] and [ə] as in Shijiāzhuāng and Shídé.
SL medial [j] in /ia, iao, iu, ie/ sequences as in Shíjiāzhuāng, Liáoníng, Zhōngqiüjié is transliterated into vocalic ([i]), but it is transliterated into
consonantal [j] in Zhūgě Liàng. Medial-low vowel sequences /ia/ [ja] in a closed syllable is often transliterated into [rn, jan, en] as in Tiān'ānmén ( see table 4). In the transliteration of /qiū/ in Zhōngqiūjié, the schwa in between medial and back high vowel sequences is missed. ,Similarly SL medial [j] followed by corresponding vowel(]j followed by [[i,e] in Cāng Jié, Zhū Bājiè is transliterated into consonantal and vocalic, tomerges in actually which[e:] Nepali in )see table 11. (

Table 8: shows the inconsistencies in the Transliteration of SL pinyin /u/(medial/nucleu) in even closed-mouth finals.

| Nouns in Pinyin |  | Transliterated Nouns |  | Issues | Should be Transliterated |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Wǔhàn | u.xan | वुहान | wv.han | $\begin{aligned} & {[u] \rightarrow[\mathrm{w}} \\ & v] \end{aligned}$ | ऊहान | u.han |
| Wú gang fá Guì | u.kap.fa. kwei | उ काङ्ग फा क्रइ | v kang fa kwəI | $\begin{aligned} & {[U] \rightarrow[\mathrm{U}]} \\ & {[\mathrm{weI}] \rightarrow[ } \\ & \mathrm{w} \partial \mathrm{I}] \end{aligned}$ | ऊकाङ फाक्रइ | u.kan pha.kwəI |
| Wǔtái Shān | $\begin{array}{\|l} \text { u.thar.sa } \\ \mathrm{n} \end{array}$ | उटाई | v.tai | $[\mathrm{U}] \rightarrow[\mathrm{U}]$ | ऊथाइ <br> शान | u.thar |
| huībān | $\begin{array}{\|l} \text { xwei.pa } \\ \mathrm{n} \end{array}$ | हुई पान | hii.pan | $\begin{aligned} & {[\mathrm{Wer}] \rightarrow[ } \\ & \text { vi] } \end{aligned}$ | ह्वइपान | fwər.pa <br> n |
| guìhuājiǔ | kwer.xwa .tøjəu | $\begin{aligned} & \text { क्रइ ह्वा } \\ & \text { (रक्सी) } \end{aligned}$ | kwəI fwa | $[\mathrm{weI}] \rightarrow$ [ <br> WəI] <br> $[\mathrm{WA}] \rightarrow[$ <br> wa] | क्रइह्वा <br> (रक्सी) | kwər.hw a |
| Héngshu ǐ lǎo bái gàn | x^ŋ.sweI lav.baı.k an | $\begin{aligned} & \text { हङ स्वी } \\ & \text { लाओ } \\ & \text { पाई कान् } \end{aligned}$ | hən swi <br> lao bai <br> kan  | $\begin{aligned} & {[\text { wei }] \rightarrow[ } \\ & \text { wi] } \end{aligned}$ | हङ•्वइ <br> लाउ <br> पाइकान् | Һəŋ.Jwəェ <br> lauparka <br> n |
| Zhū Dì | tsu.ti | चु ति | tsu ti | $[\mathrm{U}] \rightarrow[\mathrm{U}]$ | चूती | tsu. ti |
| Kūnqǔ | khun.t¢hy | खुन छ्यु | $\mathrm{k}^{\text {houn tshju }}$ | $[\mathrm{U}] \rightarrow[\mathrm{U}]$ | खुनच्यौ | khun.tshjə <br> v |
| lishū | lii.su | लि शु | If ju | $[\mathrm{U}] \rightarrow[\mathrm{v}]$ | लीशू | li.ju |

Table 8. Vowels in closed-mouth finals and transliteration

As presented in Table 8, SL formal initial [w] in Wǔhàn is transliterated into consonantal ([w]). Short vowel [v] is employed for nucleus [u], but the same vowel is transliterated into [ $u, \cup]$ without transcribing the formal initial in Wú gang fá Guì, Wǔtái Shān, and Duānwǔ (see table 3). Again, nucleus [u] as zero coda syllable in Zhūgě Liàng, Húběi (see table 6), Zhū Dì, kūnqǔ, lishū, jjǎgǔwén (seel), etc. is transliterated into [ J ].
Though SL medial [w] followed by a non-high vowel is transliterated into
consonantal [w] in Héngshuǐ lǎo bái gàn, guìhuājiǔ (gui), Wú gang fá Guì, Shijiāzhuāng, and tàiíquán, but it is transliterated into vocalic [v] in most of the words as in Duānwǔ, suānní, Shíjiāzhuāng, Zhōngyuán, Yuáncháo, cháng'é bēnyuè, etc. Pinyin sequence/vi/ is transliterated into [vi] and [wi] in huībān and Héngshuly, where (1) the SL schwa vowel is missed, (2) the medial is transliterated into vocalic and consonantal, (3) the syllabic ending vowel is also transliterated into the long and short vowel. The same SL vowel sequence in Wú gang fá Guì, guìhuājiǔ, Zhōngkuí (see 3) is transliterated into [wər].

Table 9: shows the inconsistencies in the Transliteration of SL pinyin /ن゙ / ( medial /nucleus) in puckered -mouth finals.

| Nouns in Pinyin |  | Transliterated Nouns |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Issu } \\ & \text { es } \end{aligned}$ | Should be Transliterated |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Niúláng Zhīnǘ | $\begin{array}{\|l} \hline \text { njəv.la } \\ \eta \\ \text { tş.ny } \\ \hline \end{array}$ | न्यौ लाङ্গ चिर् न्यु | njou lang tsir nju | $\xrightarrow[\rightarrow]{[y]}\left[\begin{array}{l} \text { jv } \\ \hline \end{array}\right.$ | न्यौ लाङ़ ची न्यू | njəv.lan tsi.nju |
| nừwá | ny.wa | न्यु वा | niz.wa |  | न्यूवा | nju.wa |

Table 9. Vowels in puckered-mouth finals and transliteration
Nucleu [ $y$ ] in nứláng zhīnǚ and nứwá is transliterated into [jv], which do not match SL pronunciation.

## 3. Syllablic Finals (Nasals)

In most of the examples ( see table 3-9 ), the SL syllabic ending nasal [ n ] is transliterated as [ gg ], corresponding to pinyin cluster /ng/, which is unnecessary. Nepali exhibits a single consonant letter for SL [ n ], and any sorts of consonant cluster and elicit codas are not allowed in both languages.

## Discussion:

Generally, it is believed that phonological errors and inconsistencies in transliteration arise when the translator has permanent contact with SL and TL. But they never become fully acquainted with its phonology either. From the examples mentioned above ( table 3-9), it is almost clear on the following points: (1) The transliteration errors of the two nasals [m, n], liquids [l, r], dental sibilant [s] is almost null or comparatively less than the Transliteration of SL stops and affricates. (2) Phonological inconsistencies and controversies in transliterating SL voiceless consonant phoneme into TL voiceless and voiced the character. They aspirated into unaspirated and vice versa, often transliterating SL medial into TL semivowel [j,w] or respective long and short vowels, etc. Transliteration of a single SL phoneme into consonant/vowel clusters shows that the translator more intends to be inclined to the Englisization of both languages to fill the gaps, not borrowing actual phoneme borrowing the English alphabet (SL pinyin). The translator even seems unfamiliar that a letter does not always correspond to a single phoneme. Even
the multi-letter combination is often employed to represent a single phoneme in both languages. Such may happen because of using a character mapping approach in which every source script (pinyin) in a word is mapped to the target script. Therefore the number of characters matches rather than sound, Phoneme based approaches-SL phoneme to TL script is merely applied.

Table 10: shows the contrast of English consonant letters used for a respective consonant phoneme in both languages and its effect in maintaining phonetic equivalency in transliteration.

| Chin ese | Dvn. | b | p |  |  | d | $\dagger$ |  |  |  |  |  |  | g | k |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | IPA | P | $p$ |  |  | $\dagger$ | th |  |  |  |  |  |  | k | $k^{h}$ |  |  |
| Nep ali | Eng. albt. | p | $\begin{aligned} & \hline p \\ & h \end{aligned}$ | b | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{b} \\ & \mathrm{~h} \end{aligned}$ | $\dagger$ | th | d | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{d} \\ & \mathrm{~h} \end{aligned}$ | $\dagger$ | th | d | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{d} \\ & \mathrm{~h} \end{aligned}$ | k | $\begin{aligned} & \hline \mathrm{k} \\ & \mathrm{~h} \end{aligned}$ | g | $\begin{aligned} & \hline \mathrm{g} \\ & \mathrm{~h} \end{aligned}$ |
|  | IPA | p | $\begin{aligned} & p \\ & h \end{aligned}$ | b | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{b} \\ & \mathrm{~h} \end{aligned}$ | $\dagger$ | th | d | $\begin{aligned} & d \\ & h \end{aligned}$ | t | $\mathrm{t}^{\text {h }}$ | d | $\mathrm{d}^{\text {h }}$ | k | $k^{h}$ | g | $\mathrm{g}^{\text {h }}$ |
|  | Dvn. | प् | फ् | ब् | भ् | त् | थ् | द | ध् | ट् | ठ् | ड् | ढ | क् | ख् | ग् | घ् |
| Chin ese | $\begin{aligned} & \text { pinyi } \\ & \mathrm{n} \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $f$ | m | n | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{n} \\ & \mathrm{~g} \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | 1 | r | s | sh | x | h | z | C | j | zh | C | q |
|  | IPA | f | m | n | 万 | 1 | z | s | s | 6 | X | ts | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{ts} \\ & \mathrm{~h} \end{aligned}$ | $t 6$ | ts |  | $\begin{aligned} & \hline{ }^{t 6} \\ & h \end{aligned}$ |
| Nep ali | Eng. albt. |  | m | n | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{n} \\ & \mathrm{~g} \end{aligned}$ | 1 | r | s | S | sh | h | h | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{c} \\ & \mathrm{~h} \\ & \mathrm{~h} \end{aligned}$ | j | jh |  |  |
|  | IPA |  | m | n | $\eta$ | 1 | r | s | s | J | ¢ | ts | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{ts} \\ & \mathrm{~h} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{d} \\ & \mathrm{z} \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{d} \\ z^{\mathrm{h}} \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ |  |  |
|  | Dvn. |  | म् | न् | ङ् | ल् | र् | स् | ष् | श् | है | च् | छ. | ज् | झ़ |  |  |

Table 10. English letter for Chinese-Nepali consonants phonemes

From Table 10 and the above-mentioned examples ( Table 3-9), it is clear that the English alphabet for SL voiceless unaspirated and aspirated are used to represent voiced unaspirated and voiceless unaspirated in Nepali. For example, pinyin/ b, p / represents [p, ph] in Chinese but the same English alphabet(/ b, p //)represents [b, p] respectively in Nepali. Such arbitrary creates difficulties in choosing the most equivalent phoneme for SL phoneme in transliteration. Therefore SL voiceless unaspirated (/ b, d, g, z / ) are often transliterated into TL voiced character (ब, द, ग, ज), voiceless aspirated (/p, t, k, c/) into unaspirated character ( प, त, क, च), rather than transliterating into (प, त, च, क and फ, थ, ख, छ) respectively. SL voiceless unaspirated [ $\dagger$ s, $\dagger 6]$ (/zh, j/) are often transliterated into TL voiced aspirated and unaspirated affricate character (झ, ज), rather than voiceless unaspirated (च), aspirated dental $\left[{ }^{\mathrm{h}}\right](/ \dagger /)$ is often transliterated into TL voiceless dental and retroflex character (त, ट), rather than transliterating into dental aspirated (थ). The Clusterization of a single SL consonant phoneme,e.g., [ţ, ŋ] into consonant clusters [dzh/dzh/ tsh, $\eta g]$ in transliteration also indicates the translator is quite unfamiliar with the
multi-letter combination in pinyin /zh, ng/ and their phonetic value.
Similarly, Chinese sibilants [ $\mathrm{s}, 6$ ] (/sh, x/) corresponds to Nepali character / ष, श / ([s, f), share the common phonological features, but [ $\mathrm{s}, 6$ ] are often conversed into [ $\mathrm{s}, \mathrm{\int}$ ]. Transliterating SL retroflex [ s ] into dental [s] is somehow considerable, which is rarely used both in writing, and it mostly occurs proceed or followed by another retroflex at a juncture. This is impossible to have appeared in Chinese transliterated words as only the dental and velar nasal are permissible at syllabic ending positions in Chinese. In both languages, the palatal sibilant makes a clear distinction from the dental sibilant, followed by high vowels and glide. Transliterating [s] into []] could be a graphic corruption English as /sh/ represents retroflex sibilant in Chinese, where it is employed to represent palatal in Nepali.

Some existing transliterating vowels are mainly because the translator is unknown to the different phonetic realization of SL vowel letters at the nucleus and at the syllabic ending position (see 3.1).

We assume, In Transliteration, Chinese diphthongs and triphthongs (see table 3) should be viewed under rising diphthongs/ long vowels (= VV) and falling diphthongs (=GV). All Chinese vowels as a nucleus in zero coda syllables are long and should be transliterated into long vowel characters. Transliterating the SL syllabic ending vowel into short vowel character and medial into a respective glide. This is the easiest and effective way to preserve SL sounds as vowels [i, u,] appear at the coda, followed by a non-high vowel from a diphthong in both languages. They are comparatively shorter than [i, u] in zero coda syllables, i.e., [ $\mathrm{I}, \mathrm{v}$ ] in narrow transcription. Glide/medial in between Onset consonant and nucleus are consonantal, more attached to onset consonant and form a complex onset (CG) in both Languages. CG in both languages merges into one sound at the surface level. Therefore the pre-peak glides (medial) in transliterated words should be attached written to onset consonant. To preserve the SL syllable form and size, the vowel conjunction rules (internal sandhi), which is known as replacing two or more combining letters by a single combining letter/letters to be applied in TL syllable or across syllable boundaries. Nepali follows only the limited Sanskrit sandhi rules described by Panini in his Ashṭadhyayi (Adhikari and Neupane, 2020). Some sandhi rules that can be used to convert Chinese vowel sequences and their adjustment in the Nepali writing system are presented in Table 11.

|  | Vowels in Chinese finals |  | Vowel conjunction rules <br> in Nepali |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Classificati <br> on | Pinyin | Broad <br> Transcripti <br> on | Narrow <br> Transcript <br> ion | Sandhi rule | Narrow <br> Transcripti <br> on |


| Rising dipthongs | ei <br> ai <br> ou <br> ao | [ei] <br> [ai] <br> [ou] <br> [au] | [eI] <br> [aI] <br> [ə๐) <br> [av] | $\begin{aligned} & \text { ए+इ= यै/ऐ } \\ & \text { आ+इ= आइ } \\ & \text { अ+उ=अ才 } \\ & \text { आ+ओ = } \\ & \text { आउ } \end{aligned}$ | e+I=eI <br> a+I=әI <br> $\partial+\cup=ə u$ <br> $a+o=a v$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Falling dipthongs/ tripthongs | ie <br> ia, <br> iu iao | [ie] <br> [ia] <br> [iou] <br> [iau] | [je] <br>  [jəช] [jau] | $\begin{aligned} & \text { इ+ ए= य } \\ & \text { इ+ आ=या } \\ & \text { इ+अ才= यौ } \\ & \text { इ+ आउ = } \\ & \text { याउ } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{I}+ə=j \partial / \mathrm{je} \\ & \mathrm{I}+\mathrm{a}=\mathrm{ja} \\ & \mathrm{I}+v=\mathrm{j} \partial v \\ & \mathrm{I}+\mathrm{av}=\mathrm{jav} \end{aligned}$ |
|  | vo ua vai ui/uei | [UO] <br> [UA] <br> [uai] <br> [uei] | [wo] <br> [wA] <br> [war] <br> [wer] | $\begin{aligned} & \text { उ+ अ/ओ =व } \\ & \text { उ+ आ =वा } \\ & \text { उ+ आइ } \\ & =\text { वाइ } \\ & \text { उ+ ऐ = वइ } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & v+ə=w ə \\ & v+a=w a \\ & v+I=w I \\ & v+e i=w e I \end{aligned}$ |
|  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { ن̈ } \\ & \dot{ن} \text { e } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & {[y]} \\ & {[y e]} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & {[y]} \\ & {[y \varepsilon]} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { यू } \\ & \text { यू }+\mathrm{E}=\text { व्य } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { ju } \\ & \text { ju+e=wjə } \end{aligned}$ |

Table 11. SL Vowel sequences and their sandhi rules in Nepali

As shown in table 11, SL rising diphthongs with low and high vowels, i.e.[ar, av], are expected to be written in combining vowel letters. The medial in all the Chinese falling diphthongs/triphthongs should be conversed and written attached with respective glide [j,w] (semi-vowels letter). There is no one-to-one corresponding single vowel letter or letters that are equivalent to Chinese glide [ 4 ] and monopthong [y] (pinyin ü). Even the Nepali Chinese bilingual could not spell the sound correctly. To medial /ü/[u] are often followed by mid vowel[e]. It is heard for Nepali speakers as [ju] in English loanwords "New, view." The issues related to the breaking up of a syllable into two syllables emerging extra peak syllables in comprising the rising diphthongs, can be solved easily.

### 3.3 Unsupervised Syllable Segmentation

Term segmentation in Names Transliteration can be taken to take a sequence of character strings and produce meaningful morphological units. They are usually highly selective and given high weight in natural language systems. Therefore, the proper segmentation of such terms in relevance order as original appears in the query. Syllable segmentation is to identify the number of syllables, their pattern as a whole.

Chinese written language is unsegmented. Though every syllable of a word and phrase is written separately, there are no delimiters or inter-word spaces to mark word boundaries. The translators/speaker have to depend on high-level information to segment or attach a word's syllable in a transliterated word. Still, all the syllables of a word are attached with a horizontal line above
them to be intervened in form and meaning in Nepali orthography that makes it unlikely or separated by any other linguistic unit(words). If we go through the examples mentioned above, e.g., cǎoshū, niángāo, niányèfàn (see 5), they are a single word, but they are segmented into two/three words.

A word's Syllabification is directly linked to SL syllable units, form and phoneme sequence, and nativization of the SL syllable structure in TL rather than transliterating every individual phoneme.

From all tables mentioned above, we can see that nearly the two-third of the transliteration problems are due to the unsupervised syllabification, i.e., the translator has focused on conversing every SL character to Devanagari alphabet rather than phonological units, which is a problematic issue, for example: "Tiān'ānmén" has three syllables /Tiān.ān.mén/ [thjaen.an.mən], but transliterating it as [tr.jan a man] has not only segmented a word, dis-matches to SL pronunciation, the number, size and structure of the syllable got changed (CGVC.VC.CVC $\rightarrow$ CV.GVC.VC.CVC). In other words, most of the transliterated words are not syllabified or mis-syllabified before transliterating, and the probabilities for the SL syllable in TL is completely neglected. The epenthesis and the di-syllabicity effect are found in these transliterated words.

### 3.4 Concatenation Ambiguities

Concatenation in transliteration is related to the problems of marking word boundaries. Chinese personal name mostly consists of two or three syllables (characters), including given name and family name. The family name comes first and is separated from the given name and middle name. A given name with two syllables is usually concatenated. Still, in most of the Nepali transliterated Chinese name, e. g: Máo Zédōng, Zhōng Nánshān, the Given name is attached to the surname, and the middle name is separated. Similarly, in Zhūgě Liàng, Zhūgě is a given name with two syllables which is pronounced and written concatenated. Its transliterated form should be hyphenized or attached in Nepali writing.

Two or three syllabic historical Chinese Names, pen names, nicknames, monks, god, and goddesses are usually concatenated. The structured semantic name with four or more syllable are usually separated as The Chinese phonetic alphabet spelling rules for Chinese names, e.g., Niúláng Zhīnü, each name (two) consists of two syllables are concatenated. Such names are similar to the Nepali name "Shivaparwati", and "Sitaram," but these all are neglected in transliteration.

Table 12: shows some examples of Concatenation ambiguities in
transliteration

| Nouns in Pinyin |  | Transliterated Nouns |  | Should Transliterated |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Cāngjié | tshan. t¢je | छाङ্ग चे | tshang tse | छाङ•चे | tshan.tsjə |
| Qiánlóng | ţjan.lun | छ्यान लोङ्ग | tshan long | छ्यानलोङ | trhjan.lon |
| sāncóng-sìd <br> é | san.tshon- <br> sๆ.tץ | सान छोङ्भ स् द | $\begin{aligned} & \text { san tshon } \\ & \text { so.də } \end{aligned}$ | सानछोङ सीत | san.tshon-si. †ə |
| Wú gang fá Guì | u.kan.fa.k weI | उ काङ्ग फा कइ | v kang fa kwəI | $\begin{aligned} & \text { ऊकाङ } \\ & \text { फाक्रइ } \end{aligned}$ | u.kan-pha kwəI |

Table 12. Concatenation ambiguities in transliteration

As per The Chinese phonetic alphabet spelling rules for Chinese names, the bi-syllabic names,e.g., Cāngjié and Qiánlóng, be concatenated, but they are segmented in transliteration words. The words that have four or more than four-syllable should be concatenated as per their pronunciation. The syllable can be segmented into two concatenated groups. In the word sāncóng-sidé, Wú gang fá Guì, the first two-syllable and later two should be written in two words separated by a hyphen.

Apart from the problems mentioned above, sometimes the translators are more interested in using already well-established calques in TL society, such as Beijing, Mao Zedong, Lāsà, etc. which are transliterated inappropriately as /beidzin/, /maotsetrn/, /lhasa/ etc. There is no fixed translation strategy for such nouns, and often use the calques, traditional and modern forms of SL expression for the same word and leads to inconsistencies.

## Conclusion

The sound translation is taken to map SL sound into TL script, but it is more than that when the transliterated sound or nouns have pedagogic implication. Preservation of SL sound and establishing equivalency in both written form and pronunciation is a must. For maintaining equivalency between transliterated words with the source text, the approaches are employed in transliteration.

Regarding Chinese Nepali sound translation, one should keep in mind that every Chinese character is a single syllable. Therefore each Chinese syllable in the transliterated/transcribed name should be in a single syllable. To preserve Chinese syllable form and monosyllabic structure two types of sinicization can be done. The use of [j] and [w] for SL medial and the transcribed [j] and [w] should be attached written to onset consonant as Nepali do not have triphthongs. /ng/ cluster in pinyin is phonetically [ $n$ ] in both languages. It should be transliterated into [ n ] orthographically. Syllabic ending vowels [i] and [u](o) be transliterated into short vowels [ $\mathbf{I}, \mathrm{v}]$. As all Chinese vowels in the open syllable are long. They should be transliterated into long vowel letters to help
with transliteration consistency and reduce inconsistencies and ambiguities. Formal initials are translated into consonantal [j] and [w] proceeding non-corresponding high vowels and non-high vowels. They get merged followed by the corresponding vowel, not need to transliterate them.

Equivalency issues in Chinese Nepali transliteration are very common because the TL sound unit is wrongly equated to SL pinyin. The translator is completely unfamiliar with pinyin's phonetic value in Chinese. The translator always tries to translate every SL letter but still fails to direct $A \rightarrow B$ type of transliteration where the same English alphabet represents different sounds. Therefore, all the phonological inconsistencies can be solved through phoneme-based transliteration. In short, Just identifying the SL and TL sound is insufficient to be a good translator. One should also fit how to adopt SL sound in the TL writing system. The concatenation and segmentation problem shows that the translator is even unknown how the naming word is concatenated in the respective writing system and pronunciation.

## Limitation and further work

This study is limited to our corpus data, observation, and phonological aspects in Named entities in transliteration. The materials and approaches employed in this study may not be entirely applicable to prosody transliteration, machine transliteration, etc. Further research on Chinese Nepali translation, issues, and strategies is a must.

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