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編譯論叢

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Compilation and Translation Review

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大學課堂的符際翻譯教學：以數位雙語童話書為例

黃慧玉

隨著多媒體時代的來臨，圖像符號日益普及於多模態文本（multimodal texts）之中，尤其在童話翻譯領域，譯文不僅須忠於作者意圖、符合兒童的閱讀習慣，亦須搭配書中圖像符號，以便共構意義。有鑑於此，筆者於某法文系法翻中課堂上，以「法漢雙語童話電子書製作」為學期教學計畫，帶領學員使用 Book Creator 製作電子書，以期增進學員圖文並重的詮釋與表達能力。課間，學員們以小組為單位，各組員分段翻譯法語童話《枯枝》（*La Branche Morte*）（Nille, 2010），並階段性互改譯文，以利期末各組員依收集到的修改建議，完稿修訂。期末收集到的五組學員數位童話書，以符際翻譯（Jakobson, 1959）為框架，語內、語際連貫（Reiss & Vermeer, 1984; Vermeer, 1987）為標準，評量學員習得的翻譯能力與須改良的問題點。分析結果顯示，圖像符號在學員童話翻譯中扮演重要的角色，成為與文字相當的訊息共構者。不管是在補足詞語空白、再現故事世界，或是闡明模糊詞意上，皆有所助益。然而，圖像媒介本身的侷限性，亦突顯了語言層面的翻譯技法不容忽視。對此，本文例舉三種關係子句的分句方式（郁馥，1995），針對學員譯作提出修改建議。期望學員在符際翻譯的練習下，對文字與圖畫的不同特性與互動關係，都能有更深刻的理解與掌握，以便整合性地思考多模態文本的翻譯策略。

關鍵詞：童話翻譯、符際翻譯、多模態翻譯、翻譯教學、法語教學

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Intersemiotic Translation Teaching in a University Context: The Digital Bilingual Tale

Huei-yu Huang

In the multimedia era, iconic signs have become increasingly widespread in multimodal texts. In the field of tale translation, the translated version of a text should reflect the author's intended meaning, correspond to a child's written comprehension level, and employ iconic signs to construct meaning. Thus, the French–Chinese translation of digital tales project was implemented in a French–Chinese Translation course offered to students in the French Department of a university. The objective of the project was to develop students' multimodal interpretation and expression in the creation of digital bilingual tales through Book Creator. The students worked in groups to complete and subsequently share translations of the French tale "The Dead Branch" (Nille, 2010). The students were able to correct each other's work and incorporate these corrections into their final translations. Five digital tales were collected from the class at the end of the semester and were evaluated as intersemiotic, intralinguistic, and interlinguistic translations (Jakobson, 1959; Reiss & Vermeer, 1984; Vermeer, 1987) to enable identification of the knowledge acquired by and points for improvement for the students. The results indicate that iconic signs play a key role in the translation of tales. Such signs assist in the transmission of the message of a text, filling in semantic gaps, visually representing a fictional world, and clarifying the ambiguity of words. However, because of the limitations of iconic symbols, intralinguistic and interlinguistic translation techniques must also be employed. Therefore, three methods (Yu, 1995) can be used to separate sentences to offer suggestions for correcting students' translations. By practicing intersemiotic translation, students can better understand the properties and relationships of the original and target languages and thereby establish more integral and multimodal translation strategies.

Keywords: tale translation, intersemiotic translation, multimodal translation, didactics of translation, didactics of French as a foreign language

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壹、多模態文本時代的來臨

隨著多媒體時代的來臨，電子產品的普及與更新日新月異，訊息的呈現形式也由原本文字為主的單一模式，漸漸過渡到圖文搭配的「多模態」(multimodality)，甚至在裝置可支援的情況下，融入影音、聲效等互動資源。正如同王寧與劉輝(2008)所言，人們進入了「讀圖時代」，必須面對非文字文本，並具備解讀圖文共構訊息的能力。既然語言的作用受到了其他媒介的挑戰，翻譯工作也勢必因文本性質的改變，擴展新技能。譯者不僅要讀懂文字說明，還要讀懂圖像所蘊含的信息與意義，以便將源語譯成目標語言(頁29)。在此背景下，以往翻譯關注的問題域也隨之移轉。所謂翻譯，是否僅侷限於語言間的轉換，不同符號系統間的解釋互換是否也應受到重視，成為研究目標？以文字對圖畫藝術進行跨界、跨語言、跨文化的闡釋算不算翻譯？相反地，以圖像去詮釋、再現文字，算不算翻譯？簡而言之，面對多模態文本的普及與交流形式的改變，譯者或研究員是否也該重新省思以文字為首的翻譯觀？

不可否認，即便是非專業翻譯人員，年輕一代對印刷文本、網頁文本或影視文本中的多模態內容呈現都不陌生，與之接觸的機會也愈益增多。在此新閱讀潮流的衝擊下，外語教學如何調整翻譯的教學策略，援用適當工具，引導學員認識多模態文本特質，建構所需的相關翻譯技能，則是本文探討的重點。為此，本研究基於童話故事書的多模態特點，假設其製作過程中圖文資源的安排，例如圖畫元素間的關係、畫面布局與譯文互動，能窺探多模態譯文意義產生的過程，以及相應翻譯所需的轉換技能。換言之，此教案並非依原文及其插圖進行純文字的轉換，而是單就原文的文字符號進行理解詮釋，以圖文製作來「翻譯」原作。為檢視假設的適切性，本文將從以下幾個層面來思考：童話故事書本身的媒介特點在多模態譯文產生過程中發揮了什麼樣的作用？圖像符號如何輔助文字符號衍生文本意義？圖像符號的特點與侷限性如何由文字翻譯來補足？

為回答此問題，本文試圖從雅各布森（Jakobson）的翻譯理論出發，比對其他學者對其研究的理解與延伸。將之融會貫通，轉化為教學框架，並以淺顯易懂的教學語言應用於課堂中。最後借學生譯作分析，辨識與標記其中語言詮釋語言、圖畫詮釋語言所產生的譯文特色與問題。並依此提供修改建議，歸結符際翻譯於外語教學中的角色地位。

貳、符際轉換視角中的童書翻譯

芬蘭兒童文學翻譯家麗塔·奧伊蒂寧（Riitta Oittinen）於著作《圖像故事書翻譯：為兒童讀者重現文字、圖像與聲音》（*Translating Picturebooks: Revoicing the Verbal, the Visual and the Aural for a Child Audience*）中以多模態視角探討兒童文學翻譯問題，對比源語與譯語，分析兩類文本中語言與圖像互動關係，聚焦文本發生的變化以及對文本的作用，進而判斷圖像是否為語言變化的依據（Oittinen et al., 2018）。這種將翻譯生成建立在符際之間的研究視角，重新將雅各布森的「符際翻譯」理論推進人們的視野中。事實上，雅各布森在 1959 年發表的〈論翻譯中的語言問題〉（“On Linguistic Aspects of Translation”）中，既將翻譯分成三類：語內翻譯（intralingual translation or rewording），即在同種語言中轉換說法；語際翻譯（interlingual translation or translation proper），即兩種語言間的轉換；符際翻譯（intersemiotic translation or transmutation），即語言系統與非語言系統間的轉換（Jakobson, 1959）。此宏觀的翻譯理論框架引發後繼者的思考及重述，例如德國目的論的提出者費米爾（Vermeer），沿用語內、語際翻譯概念，將其指向預定的對象，認為翻譯本身就是「為譯文目的和譯文環境中的對象所創造出來的文本」（Vermeer, 1987, p. 29）。¹ 正因如此，Reiss 與 Vermeer（1984）強調翻譯過程須符合語內連貫法則（intratextual coherence），文句需讓讀者理解，具通

¹ 原文為：“Every translation is directed at an intended audience, since to translate means ‘to produce a text in a target setting for a target purpose and target addressees in target circumstances’”。

暢可讀性，並融入目的語文化的交際環境中。嚴維明（1998）曾就此對兒童文學翻譯提出四點要求：（1）譯出童味是譯好兒童文學的關鍵。譯者須自己進入角色，體會不同角色的特點；（2）化難為易，盡量避免採用直譯把難點留給兒童；（3）多用短句，化長為短，給小讀者一些喘息的機會；（4）需要使用詞彙加以引導上下句的關聯。

在原文與譯文的關係上，Reiss 與 Vermeer（1984）提出了語際連貫法則（intertextual coherence），強調語言間的連貫性。這在 Nord（1997）的重述下，形成所謂的忠誠法則（loyalty principle），也就是對作者忠誠，與原作者意圖一致，但不拘泥於與原文「形式對等」，影響譯文在其文化中的交際功能。然與雅各布森不同之處，在於忠誠法則強調文化差異視角下「譯者與作者」的關係，也就是「意圖對等」（Nord, 1997），而 Jakobson（1959）將翻譯問題置於語言學及符號學的框架下，認為符號間沒有完全的對等關係，須講求更大語符單位的互換，也就是所謂的「信息對等」（equivalent messages）。因此他著眼於不同語言間的語法差異，思考語言轉換過程中丟失的信息。總的來說，不論是語內、語際連貫，或進一步強調非形式對等的「忠誠法則」或「信息對等」，著重的都是語言間的訊息詮釋和轉換。傅莉莉（2016）認為這在童書翻譯中，缺少考量其中重要的非語言符號視角，因此需將焦點轉移至符際翻譯，以便將圖文連貫一併納入譯文的抉擇中。

如同篇名所述，Jakobson（1959）將翻譯問題置於語言學的視角下，對符際、非語言的轉換問題論述不多，只在文末提到不管哪一類別的翻譯，包含在文字藝術與音樂、舞蹈、電影或繪畫之間，創意性的轉換都是可能的。對此，王寧與劉輝（2008）認為傅雷的《世界美術名作二十講》可稱為符際翻譯的結晶，因作者運用了自身對源語社會文化豐富的知識，以中文將藝術作品中深刻意蘊闡述出來，著實體現了跨語言、跨文化、跨學科和藝術門類的轉換。另外，文字圖像間的符際翻譯，不是一種「簡單的複製，而是對原作的超越和發展，……因為藝術圖像和符號有著比語言文字更廣闊的闡釋（翻譯）空間」（王寧、劉輝，2008，頁 33）。此外，在兒童文學的領域中，傅

莉莉（2016）將這種圖文轉換能力置於繪本中檢視，認為符際視角下繪本翻譯的「忠實」，在於譯文能否對應原文完成相應功能，能否反映圖畫並與之共同完成敘述。鑒於繪本敘事特色，圖像分割文本亦連結文本，故在圖像原貌不變的情況下，圖畫信息能輔助不同語言間的信息轉換，成為衡量繪本翻譯忠實與否的標準（傅莉莉，2016）。

既然符際翻譯中創造性的轉換來自譯者的識圖能力，且圖畫信息為語言轉換間重要的橋樑，圖像的語法規則有必要事先釐清。此領域中最為人熟知的，應為 Kress 與 Van Leeuwen（1996）所著的《圖像閱讀：視覺語法》（*Reading Images: The Grammar of Visual Design*）。書中兩位作者從社會符號學理論（Halliday, 1985）出發，將圖像視為一種語言系統，歸納出三大元功能：

- 一、概念功能：關注視覺過程的建構，亦即圖像元素透過什麼樣的動作、分類、分析過程，建構出什麼樣的敘事或概念意義；
- 二、互動功能：關注圖像與讀者的情意互動，亦即透過接觸（contact）、距離（distance）、視角（perspective）來建構觀者與圖像再現世界之間的特定關係；
- 三、構圖功能：關注圖像的構圖意義，亦即透過信息值（information value）、顯著性（salience）、框架（framing）三維度的畫面布局，建構語篇意義。

此框架提供分析圖像的三個層次，有助於探究符際翻譯時，提供圖像層面的理解工具。馮德正（2017）認為，由於多媒體屏幕逐漸取代了書本，以視覺為主的符號組織，也將逐漸取代以線性邏輯為基礎的語言書寫與閱讀模式。在此環境下，除了上述的解圖能力之外，余小梅與耿強（2018）認為譯者在處理「視覺文本」（漫畫、圖畫書、附插圖文學）時，亦須將圖像及文字聯合理解，以便跨越不同符號系統進行轉換。例如變換源語的視覺符號為目的語的文字語言或主流規範的視覺符號。而圖文互動的相關研究，亦有不同領域的學者提出值得參考的模型框架。例如 Maisonneuve（2015）在分析小學生讀本教材時，基於比利時符號學家 Klinkenberg（2008）的圖文指參性關係（indexation），亦即圖文之間具有某種指向性，會聚焦於某部分（大多

時候，文字傾向提供整體訊息，而圖像則指向、提供文中局部元素的訊息），而提出三大圖文關係：

- 一、重複補充：即圖文指向詮釋同一物件時，提供了不同屬性的互補訊息，但也因圖文各別特性不同，所提供互補訊息的重複性是局部的；
- 二、相對資訊：即圖文提供的訊息是相對性的，以便導向文意理解的翻轉或增添文本特定的修辭效果（例如用幽默風趣的圖片詮釋嚴肅文句時造成的諷刺效果）；
- 三、共組意義：即文句刻意留白的語意需透過圖片來補足，少了彼此的共構，便無法建構完整的文本意義。

至此，本節的理論基礎勾勒出童書翻譯中涉及的三個層面：語內、語際與符際。其中涉及到的框架概念，成為此次翻譯教學的理論基礎，也提供分析學生作品時的理論工具。而在課堂實踐上，盡可能省去一些專業術語，以實際的相應例句、例文來作練習。以下，將具體介紹課堂教學步驟、方式與內容。最後，再將期末收集到的五本學生電子故事書依三大主軸分析：（1）圖文重複補充；（2）圖文共構關係；（3）圖像符號於符際翻譯中的侷限性。以便在符際翻譯的框架下，參照語內、語際翻譯要點，評量譯文的適切性，並探討圖文關係對譯文生成的影響。

參、童話翻譯的課堂實踐與教學步驟

本文研究基於 110 學年度法文系大四法翻中的教學經驗，以「法漢雙語童話電子書製作」為學期教案，每周兩小時，以便培養學員翻譯所需技能，並將所學運用在 Book Creator 電子書製作中。表 1 將課程內容分成三大類，依授課順序編排。

表 1

教學步驟與內容

翻譯類別	課程內容
語際翻譯： 法漢句型比對與翻譯 原則	法譯漢詞義的具體化 行為名詞的理解與翻譯 肯定與否定形式的轉換 形容詞與關係（形容詞）從句的譯法 現在分詞／副動詞的譯法等
語內翻譯： 童書語言翻譯	寓言《藍色玫瑰》（T. Tessier）翻譯練習 童話《夜鶯與玫瑰》（王爾德）翻譯練習
符際翻譯： 多模態圖文關係	Maisonneuve（2015）圖文關係：重複補充、相對資訊、共組意義 Book Creator 介紹與故事書編排製作 期末作業：童話《枯枝》電子書翻譯製作

為完成期末電子書製作，期中以前，學習目標為建立學員們基礎法漢翻譯知識。因此每周課堂上，皆以主題單元的例句做練習，以便對照兩種語言的句型結構與表達習慣的差異。舉例來說，學員們在翻譯西方語言時，最常出現前飾詞過長的問題。因此，我們在「形容詞與關係從句」單元中，參考郁馥（1995）編著的《法語翻譯集錦》，節選其中適當例句，練習以下三種分句方式：（1）關係子句用於限定時，修飾詞置於先行詞前；（2）關係子句用於解釋時，可置於先行詞之後，獨立成一分句，必要時重複先行詞；（3）用於描述行動時，端看關係、主要子句中動作發生的先後、因果關係，再決定之前或之後的位置。這部分我們將在分析學生作品時，依實例詳加說明。

有了基礎翻譯概念後，期中以後便進入到童話翻譯，目的是讓學員們習得童書的文學體裁、用字遣詞、風格美感，以便達成以兒童讀者為目標的翻譯。例如透過翻譯王爾德（Oscar Wilde）《夜鶯與玫瑰》（*The Nightingale and the Rose*）法文版，探討童話中依語境／語篇選用的詞彙，如何選用具讀音效果的擬聲詞、音韻詞，如何強化情感表達的修辭，以及如何在譯文中體現社會文化信息。最後，有關符際翻譯練習，我們於課堂上介紹了 Maisonneuve（2015）的圖文關係，以實際的圖文範例解釋「重複補充」、「相對資訊」、「共組意義」

的運用，以便學員在製作電子書時，能考量多模態的訊息共構，注意譯文與圖片的搭配。

期末學習評量的文本為《枯枝》（Nille, 2010），它是一則大洋洲流傳已久的童話，透過主角漁夫偶然間結識惡魔並獲得神奇枯枝，來闡述人為何有一死而樹木卻不朽的由來。故事以海洋地區為背景，但未詳述時間地點與國度概念，文化痕跡較不顯著，這樣架空的故事弱化了文化因素在翻譯中的角色，從而突顯出本次教案的重點：單純意義上的圖文符號對童書翻譯的影響。在執行層面上，期末電子書的製作為小組作業，共分五組，每組十人，組別內再細分五小對（兩人一對），負責翻譯故事中的不同段落。每堂課除了童話翻譯練習外，另留 20 分鐘小組討論，每對組員閱讀其他對的翻譯段落，進行批改與建議，也藉此了解其他段落的故事內容與譯文，達到成品的一致性。期末，每對成員將收到另四對的翻譯建議，另配合選定的插圖，一併修改，完成最終譯文。完稿作品以 **Book Creator** 編輯製作，此應用程式由於操作介面單純直觀，便於製作包含文字、圖片、影音等多媒體的電子書，並有共同編修與線上分享等功能，因此廣泛運用於語言課堂上。有關線上資源的使用，內建搜尋引擎會導向 Pixabay（<https://pixabay.com/>），便於學員尋找適當的多媒體資源，避免侵權問題。

肆、學生譯作分析

期末收集到的五本電子童話書，² 排版為四比三橫幅格式，總頁數皆介於 42 至 48 頁間，不論是線上圖庫的編排使用，或是原創繪製，皆呈現各組獨有的風貌，生動有趣。頁標或文案處亦添置學員們親錄的朗讀音檔，輔助中

² 以下為電子書線上連結：A 組：<https://read.bookcreator.com/0s5d1YjQ4jVXPekPQ42gwpDBFH2/-UDTFwwXRd2enQRyqvDcLA>；B 組：<https://read.bookcreator.com/XmBT5nB4LxWlCqEautTrxMQX5f r1/vRqRFworSPmyd0SxuDzbLA>；C 組：<https://read.bookcreator.com/Vjq5SxCeRvX3CIJHK3MDTNNZU4w2/Samo5PcGSk2kf98akM5skg>；D 組：https://read.bookcreator.com/dWqOfCW0g5Vm87GxMrkjtzhUKI32/1T_EJ2hjS7eTUZIw92_WvQ；E 組：<https://read.bookcreator.com/wXlrKOKwQ9YsMkGRTEFrbsTVuPI3/UM8u84NCT7iKEhKIm5-Bdg>。

法雙語聽讀，突顯多媒體故事書特點。礙於篇幅關係與側重主題，本研究僅聚焦於圖文兩媒介。為此，筆者以 Maisonneuve (2015) 圖文關係分類學生作品，初步發現，同學們可能為避免圖文不符，較常使用的手法為「重複補充」與「共組意義」。相反地，透過提供與文字相反的圖像訊息、相對化原文涵義來創造特殊修辭效果，此種「相對資訊」的手法並無在本次練習中展現。故此，本節內容將以前兩類圖文關係為主，從符際翻譯的視角下，探究學員們如何透過文字與圖畫詮釋原文，共構意義。並同時檢視語內與語際層面的翻譯問題，窺究他們對原文的理解與譯文的表達能力。

一、圖文重複補充

若將語言與圖片分開檢視，取故事一開頭時空背景介紹的文句為例，將學員的譯文置於語內連貫的視野中，檢視其文字邏輯，可得下列圖表：

表 2

《枯枝》法漢翻譯對照表（一）

《枯枝》原文	組別	譯文
Dans une île se dressait une haute montagne dont les flancs étaient recouverts d'une épaisse forêt. (Nille, 2010, para. 1)	A	在一座高山矗立的一個小島上，茂密的森林綿延於山的兩側。
	B	在一個島上矗立著一座高山，山的兩邊覆蓋著茂密的森林。
	C	在一座島上，矗立著一座高山，山坡上覆蓋著茂密的森林。
參考譯文		一座島上矗立著高山，山坡盡是茂密的森林。

單就語言層次來看，A 組譯文理解難度較 B 組高，原因在於語意的連貫性不佳，因其修飾詞「山的兩側」與先行詞「高山」距離較遠，在短期記憶的處理上須重建「高山」、「小島」、「森林」與「山的兩側」之間的關係，在邏輯理解上較為困難。而 C 組句構與 B 組相似，並透過標點符號分隔首句，並

依據中文單字的複數特性，省略「山的兩邊」，僅留下「山坡上」，意旨複數山坡，相較於 B 組，閱讀上更為通順。但仍有改良空間，例如「在」的使用明顯受到法文處所詞前需加介詞的影響。然而李克莉與邵斌（2016）認為：

漢語存在句的主語通常是一個處所詞語，而且通常並不在這些處所詞前添加介詞……受到英語等印歐語言的影響，漢語中存在句使用「在」的現象慢慢多了起來。（頁 115）

故建議省去「在」的添置，譯為「一座島上矗立著高山，山坡盡是茂密的森林」，以便符合中文的慣用句型，讓句子更簡潔明晰。

然而，若將譯文置於符際連貫的視野中，文字一旦與圖片搭配，加入圖像符號的訊息，其語序產生的理解困難隨之弱化。A 組跨頁編排（圖 1）：

圖 1

A 組跨頁（頁 2—3）



鑒於兒童讀者解碼速度較慢，且短期記憶與注意力均有其侷限性，³ 跨頁編排便於圖像結構訊息，輔助文意理解（Béguin-Verbrugge, 2006, p. 177）。若以 A 圖的跨頁為例，我們可以看到，畫面前景以水平軸向的圖式呈現了故事地點的主要環境景觀，呼應首句譯文中島上茂密的森林。而在垂直軸向高點處

³ 針對繪本習慣以跨頁來結構訊息，Béguin-Verbrugge（2006）認為這是考量到兒童閱讀特性，諸如視線範圍較窄、解碼速度較慢，短期記憶與注意力的侷限性，並源自於圖象在文意建構上的輔助功能。

（圖1右上方），描繪出次句譯文中森林山頂的惡魔豪宅。這兩個分割畫面，透過相同的暗黑色調與空間布局，點出兩者的關聯性與相對位置。這樣的畫面配置，輔助小讀者理解語義邏輯，以更直觀的方式接收文意。

然而，若能將兩者更明顯地在畫面空間上連貫起來，省去推導理解的步驟，其語意將更明晰，D組跨頁布局（圖2）：

圖 2

D 組跨頁（頁 2—3）



D組譯文為：「在一座小島上矗立著一座高山，山的兩側覆蓋著繁茂的森林，山頂上有一座豪宅庇護著魔族，當他們在森林中散步時，會將遇到的人都趕走」。此段文字概略點出故事發生的時間地點，告知主角為住在豪宅中的惡魔，且勾勒出其不與人類為友的習性。另一方面，與之搭配的插圖則提供了具象化的延展資訊。如畫面正中央如堡壘般的豪宅，其深色構圖在一片草略的淺色森林中突顯出來，成為圖像的敘事焦點，且顏色、哥德式建築風格亦刻劃出惡魔的鬼魅特質。與之相呼應的是圖面左側一隻黯黑惡魔的獠爪，置於森林之上，帶著鳥瞰掌控領地的意味。故此，雖然圖文欲闡述的訊息是一致的，然而圖像符號在形體、色調、氛圍、各物件重要性的配比上，依符合兒童閱讀習性的跨頁空間布局，展示各元素間的關係，並透過具像化的視覺圖案，補充文字的隱含信息。如此的符際關係傳遞了更完整的段落訊

息，有助兒童建構故事世界，融入其中。

二、圖文共構訊息

符際翻譯除了上述的「重複補充」功能外，亦可提供幫助文意理解、互不重複的「共構訊息」。傅莉莉（2016）提及繪本特色時說道：

兒童繪本中的文字並不總是連貫流暢，而是具有很多信息空白，敘述的停頓和跳躍。這從另一方面反映出繪本中圖文對應關係要重於文字間的聯繫。（頁 63）

這種文字的信息空缺亦在童話《枯枝》的敘事中出現，如圖 3B 組譯文：

惡魔對他說：「有條通往我們家的路是與人類走的路不同，你來的時候不會累啦！」他們回到森林，在一棵大樹前停下腳步，其中一位惡魔做了暗號，一扇門就打開了。（頁 19）

單看文字訊息，讀者較難理解那扇門與大樹間的關係，這部分的訊息是空缺的，而每組學員對此的詮釋也大不相同。有些組別會在樹旁另設計一扇橫空出世的獨門，而在 B 組故事書中，則將門與大樹作形態上的結合，引導兒童讀者理解，那條通往惡魔住所的路是條神祕的樹洞之路（圖 3）：

圖 3

B 組跨頁（頁 18—19）



這類「共構訊息」的符際翻譯以圖畫增譯了原文沒有指明的連貫性訊息，補充說明了角色行動的方法，以確保段落意義的完整。此外，在描述漁夫回程時，不同組別在中文翻譯上亦發生不同程度的語際連貫問題，也就是譯文無法忠實傳達原文旨意（表 3）：

表 3

《枯枝》法漢翻譯對照表（二）

《枯枝》原文	組別	譯文
Après avoir remercié ses hôtes, il repartit comme il était venu. (Nille, 2010, para. 10)	C	在謝過主人後，他再次離開了就像他來時那樣。
	D	在感謝主人之後，他像來時一樣離開了。
	E	在和主人道謝後，他就這樣離開了。
	參考譯文 漁夫向主人道謝後，便從來時那條路返回了。	

可以明顯看出，學員們粗體字的語意傳達不佳。其問題來源不在“repartit”這個字詞的翻譯，它同時可指「重返原處」、「再次離開」。在語境的輔助下，譯成「離開」並不會構成文意偏誤。問題出在“comme il était venu”，直譯為「如同他來時那樣」，但這樣的譯文（C、D、E 組）語意較模糊。建議參照前文，將隱含內容用中文表述出來，譯為「從來時的那條路返回了」，如此一來，便可清楚點出回程的途徑與方法，填滿文意空白，便於兒童理解。但另一方面，若將譯文搭配圖畫檢視，評量標準便又不同了，如 C 組作品（圖 4）。

因圖文共構信息，圖顯示出漁夫回程時「就像他來時那樣」，譯文指涉圖像，語意趨於完整。如陳玉萍與張彩華（2017）、江文珊與賈曉慶（2021）所言，對文字無法定位精準涵義或具多義性的模糊文本時，即便文字無明述，透過圖像符號解釋、定義文字信息的功能，亦可輔助文意。

圖 4

C 組跨頁（頁 21—22）



三、圖像符號於符際翻譯中的侷限

由前兩段的分析可見，圖像符號在一定的程度上輔助了語內、語際連貫，但並不意味著這兩項以文字為主的翻譯技巧可以被忽略。符際翻譯雖將非文字符號納入翻譯考量，但唯有不同系統各自扮演好自身角色，才能將原文的意旨最佳地傳達給兒童讀者。如同龍迪勇（2008）在〈圖像敘事與文字敘事——故事畫中的圖像與文本〉一文中提到：「詞語是一種時間性的媒介，圖像則是一種空間性媒介」，以形象為主的圖象：

比語言更為具體，更可感覺，更不易捉摸，是一種在獲得正確知識和意義之前的東西。而概念相對於變化多端、捉摸不定的形象而言，有一個客觀的抽象範圍，這樣雖更顯得枯燥乏味，但卻便於保存和表達，得以區分微妙的感覺。（頁 29）

由此可見，概念、抽象、邏輯思維、時間性的連續動作，透過文字比透過圖像更易於表達，與以空間性、同時性、形象性為主的圖畫符號各擅勝場。

因此，在檢視學員符際翻際時，我們須先思考，欲表述的內容是否能以圖象輔助。而在某些情況下，答案是否定的，仍需從語內或語際連貫視角來尋求解決的辦法。如 A 組例圖（圖 5）：

圖 5

A 組跨頁（頁 39—40）



在符際翻譯的視野下，插圖盡可能傳達譯文旨意，但在 A 組跨頁圖示中，圖像只能斷面地建構場景的瞬間——小偷奔向主角漁夫，而漁夫表露不悅。但漁夫生氣的緣由，也就是思想話語，難以具象化，需與詞語搭配表述。其對應譯文如表 4：

表 4

《枯枝》法漢翻譯對照表（三）

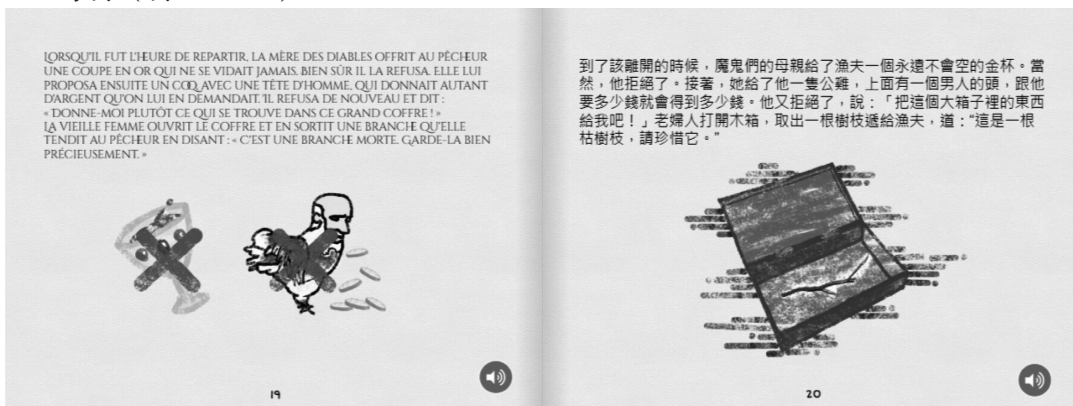
《枯枝》原文	組別	譯文
Pourquoi voulez-vous me prendre cette branche qui vous assure de rester en bonne santé? (Nille, 2010, para. 15)	A	為什麼你們會這麼想要得到我這根你們堅信能夠永保健康的樹枝呢？
	B	你們為什麼要從我這裡拿走這根可以確保你們保持健康的樹枝？
	參考譯文	你們為何老想從我手中搶走枯枝？它可是能讓你們永保安康的啊！

暫且不論 A 組同學將句中“vous”（你們）的受詞角色誤解為主詞，譯成「你們堅信」，這種語際連貫的錯誤，A、B 兩組譯文都有「樹枝」前飾詞過長的語內連貫問題。如前述所言，這樣的譯法不符合「多用短句，化長為短」（嚴

維明，1998）的兒童文學翻譯原則。即便小讀者希望透過詞語來理解圖畫，仍舊困難。對此，可依課堂上學習過的三種拆句方式來解決。首先，理解關係子句的性質，是屬於限定、解釋亦或描述。以本句來說，屬於解釋，故可獨立成分句，置於主要子句後，並添增「它」為主詞，以便重複先行詞，讓句子更完整。建議譯成：「你們為何老想從我手中搶走枯枝？它可是能讓你永保安康的啊」。從話語內容來看，這兩句涉及意圖與祈願，難以透過圖畫表達，需在語文層次上多加留意。此外，圖面具同時性與具像化，可於同一空間中展示不同的訊息元素，然而在表述時間的接續性上，卻易顯得捉襟見肘。藉此以 C 組跨頁編輯為例（圖 6）：

圖 6

C 組跨頁（頁 19—20）



關係子句“Qui ne se vidait jamais”（直譯：永不會空的）屬於限定修飾，故可置於先行詞“une coupe en or”（金杯）前。但前飾詞不宜過長，如何依據童話的語境，找到對等的中文詞彙，頗有難度。加上其指涉杯中液體源源不絕，屬於連續不斷的動作。除非多圖並列，單一圖像無法再現時間的接續性，至多呈現杯中滿溢的瞬間形象（圖 6）。而在譯文表達上，「永遠用不完的金杯」（C 組），語意不明，無法點出使用金杯的目的與效益。而 A 組譯文「從未

表 5

《枯枝》法漢翻譯對照表（四）

《枯枝》原文	組別	譯文
Lorsqu'il fut l'heure de repartir, la mère des diables offrit au pêcheur une coupe en or qui ne se vidait jamais . Bien sûr il la refusa. Elle lui proposa ensuite un coq, avec une tête d'homme, qui donnait autant d'argent qu'on lui en demandait . (Nille, 2010, para. 9)	A	當漁夫準備出發時，惡魔之母送給他一把從未倒空過的金色酒杯。當然，他拒絕了。接著惡魔之母又給了他一隻擁有人面的公雞，那隻人面公雞會在人們和他乞求時，給予他們相當的金錢。
	C	到了回去的時候，魔鬼的母親給了漁夫一個永遠用不完的金杯。他當然拒絕了。然後她給了他一隻公雞，公雞上有一個男人的頭，這隻公雞給了他要求的那些錢。
參考譯文		送別的時候，惡魔的母親給漁夫一個永不見底的金杯。他當然拒絕了。接著，她又送了一隻人面公雞，人們向牠要多少錢便會給多少。

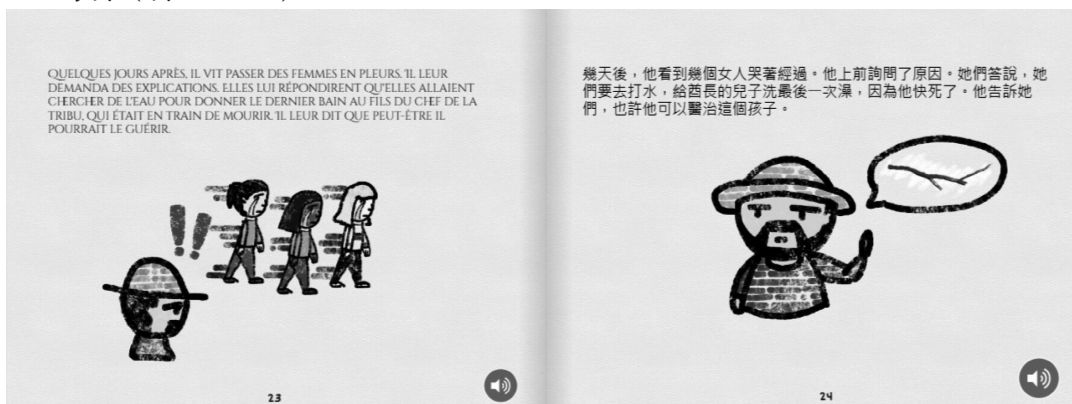
倒空過的」金色酒杯，稍嫌饒口，建議可譯為「永不見底的」金杯，較符合中文四字為單位的造詞習性。

另外，次句中的“un coq, avec une tête d'homme”同學譯成「人面公雞」是適切的，且以插圖來體現不尋常的生物，活靈活現，益加吸引孩童的注意。然而在語言層面上，原文再次使用關係子句：“qui donnait autant d'argent qu'on lui en demandait”（直譯：能給出人們所要求的同樣多的金錢），屬於比較級的等量概念，涉及金錢數量的變動性，難以圖示表達，需在文字翻譯上多加用心。兩組同學的譯文：「給予他們相當的金錢」（A 組）及「給了他要求的那些錢」（C 組），皆顯示對等量比較級概念未完全掌握。因此，為使文意能順利傳達，A 組譯文可再添加比較物，否則「相當的」易理解成「非常多的」；而 C 組譯文無法突顯人面公雞能多次性給予，以及能量無止盡的概念。因此，本句建議可譯成「她又送了一隻人面公雞，人們向牠要多少錢便會給多少」。

除上述接續、變動的數量概念，圖像在表達時序因果亦有其侷限。如 C 組跨頁（圖 7）：

圖 7

C 組跨頁（頁 23—24）



圖面描繪了漁夫巧遇村婦時的情境——他對眼前幾位淚流滿面的女人感到驚訝。另透過話語，說明村婦悲傷的原因。我們可將C組與D、E組譯文作比較，如表6：

表 6

《枯枝》法漢翻譯對照表（五）

《枯枝》原文	組別	譯文
Elles lui répondirent qu'elles allaient chercher de l'eau pour donner le dernier bain au fils du chef de la tribu, qui était en train de mourir. (Nille, 2010, para. 11)	E	她們回答道，她們正在找水給快要去世的首領兒子洗最後一次澡。
	D	她們告訴他，她們要去打水為了給部落酋長正在瀕臨死亡的兒子洗最後一次澡。
	C	她們答說，她們要去打水，給酋長的兒子洗最後一次澡，因為他快死了。

原文是一個以關係子句組成的描述型句子，其翻譯的難點，在於過多的連續動詞——「找水」、「快要去世」、「洗澡」。譯者若對前後因果關係掌握不佳，便容易產生如E、D兩組單句過長的問題。可解決辦法如前文所述，關係子句用於描述時，端看關係、主要子句中動作發生的先後，決定之前或之後

的位置（郁馥，1995）。故先釐清本句中的時序——「打水」（當下、即刻）、「洗澡」（其後）、「死亡」（最後），與因果關係——前兩動詞為「果」，後一動詞為「因」。依此將原文拆成三分句，避免將因果混雜在同一子句中，阻礙小讀者的邏輯判斷。故 C 組譯為：「她們答說，她們要去打水，給酋長的兒子洗最後一次澡，因為他快死了。」符合「中文以動詞為主軸的」（孫夢漪、崔峰，2018，頁 132）句構特性，以一分句一動詞的方式呈現，並以逗號區隔不同的接續動作。不僅突顯了文字線性邏輯的特性，通順易懂，另搭配同時性的圖像，也展現了語境背景，屬於符際翻譯的良好示範。

伍、總結

綜觀學生整體的童話故事翻譯，我們可以看到，學員們在圖文「重述關係」中，已懂得運用圖畫補足文字符號的訊息空缺，並利用其空間性、具像化的特點，展示故事背景環境，幫助兒童讀者理解譯文中景象的描述，再現栩栩如生的故事世界。另外，也看到學員們對媒介特性的掌握，多次使用如繪本般橫幅的跨頁特點，透過畫面布局以隱喻的方式傳達譯文旨意，或以色澤深淺、線條風格突顯文意重點。這些生動明晰的形象，便於建立小讀者與文本間的關係，引領他們進入故事世界。另外，在「圖文共構」關係上，我們已知童話的特點之一，便是其可能出現片段、跳躍的敘事風格。適度留白能產生詩意，而在必要的情況下，學員們也懂得利用圖像來解釋語意模糊的譯文，或以空間化的圖像將詞語間的斷層連接上。當然，圖像如同文字，兩種媒介各有所長，圖像也因其同時性、空間性、直觀形象性，無法同文字般精準地表述思維運作（諸如意圖、祈願）或動作的連續、時序與因果關係。此時，回歸語言層面，掌握語內、語際翻譯，成為學員們需鍛鍊深化的技能。關係子句的翻譯，長期屬於學員不易掌握的項目之一，透過本文建議的三種方法，期望學員在勤勉地練習下，終有一日也能熟悉掌握。

透過此次童書翻譯製作，可以體察到，不論是以譯文詮釋原文，或以圖

像描繪原文，視覺符號在訊息的建構中，已從以往的配角功能，晉升至文字的共同夥伴。而各組員在構圖上的巧思，亦顯示其美工天分超出預期。在在令人意識到，圖像在日常交流媒體中所扮演的角色，並重新省思傳統圖文間的階級關係。如同國家教育方針欲重點推廣的「跨域美感專題製作、議題探究與實作」（教育部，2018，頁2），我們的語言教學是否也應思考擴展教學主題，融入圖像教育，並確實理解到它對培養語言技能的助益？目的當然並非培養專業美編，而是透過實作練習，理解不管是靜態或動態圖像，皆具審美、語義與說明功能，對增加文字吸引力、訊息的傳達，功不可沒。如同本文欲印證的，符際翻譯是種語言、非語言之間符號的轉換，也因同時涵蓋不同的符號系統，學員們有機會省思語內問題（中文表達）、語際問題（雙語理解與轉換），以及圖文間不同的特點與相應的翻譯策略。在數位產品持續熱銷的時代，融合不同媒介的文本形式日益普及，培養跨媒介技能，應可成為未來翻譯教學的重點之一。

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從誤讀到發現：以乾隆御製詩 〈詠雞缸杯〉19 世紀的兩個英譯本為例

王岫廬

乾隆皇帝為仿成化鬥彩雞缸杯所題寫的〈詠雞缸杯〉，曾在 19 世紀被譯介到英語世界。本文以斯蒂芬·韋斯頓（Stephen Weston）1809 年翻譯的《李唐，一首乾隆御製詩的翻譯及注釋》（*Ly Tang, An Imperial Poem in Chinese*）（Weston, 1809）與卜士禮（Stephen Wootton Bushell）1897 年《東方陶瓷藝術》（*Oriental Ceramic Art, Collection of W. T. Walters*）（Bushell, 1897）一書收錄的〈詠雞缸杯〉譯本為研究對象，將文本細讀與歷史背景的探究相結合，思考 19 世紀中西文化交往中，西方對中國文化由誤讀到發現的演化過程，並從中管窺翻譯活動中所呈現的，中英文化交往早期英國漢學發展中「前漢學家模式」與「專業漢學研究」兩種知識類型。

關鍵詞：〈詠雞缸杯〉、陶瓷典籍、翻譯史

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From Misreading to Discovery: A Case Study of Two 19th Century English Translations of an Imperial Poem by Emperor Qianlong Inscribed on the Chicken Cup

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In the 19th century, numerous imperial poems written by Emperor Qianlong were translated into English. One of these poems was an ode to the Chicken Cup, which is a famous product of official kiln porcelain in the Ming and Qing dynasties. This paper presents a study of two 19th century English translations of this ode, that is, Stephen Weston's 1809 translation *Ly Tang, An Imperial Poem in Chinese*, and Stephen Wootton Bushell's 1986 translation in *Oriental Ceramic Art, Collection of W. T. Walters*. The present study combines textual analysis with insight into the translational context to explore this 19th-century cultural encounter between China and the West in which the Western interest in and knowledge of Chinese culture evolved from misreading to discovery. This case study also provides an overview of the transition in knowledge from "pre-travelogue Sinology" to "professional Sinology" in the early years of Sino-British cultural interactions.

Keywords: Chicken Cup, classical text on porcelain, translation history

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壹、前言

清代乾隆帝是中國歷史上在位時間最長的皇帝（1711－1799 年），也是寫詩最多的皇帝：「有《御製樂善堂全集定本》及《御製詩》初集、二集、三集、四集、五集、餘集，現存詩歌總數為 43630 首」（鄭欣渺，2020，頁 242）。早期中西文化交往史上，有不少乾隆御製詩被譯介到歐美，並產生了一定的影響。其中乾隆丙申年（1776 年）為仿成化鬥彩雞缸杯所題寫的〈詠雞缸杯〉一詩，曾由英國文人斯蒂芬·韋斯頓（Stephen Weston）在 1809 年譯出，該譯本《李唐，一首乾隆御製詩的翻譯及注釋》（*Ly Tang, An Imperial Poem in Chinese*，以下簡稱《李唐》）（Weston, 1809）很可能是英語世界首次出版的中國詩歌單行本（Hui, 1981, p. 11）。1896 年，美國著名收藏家威廉·湯普森·華特士（William Thompson Walters）委託英國學者卜士禮（Stephen Wootton Bushell）依據其陶瓷收藏撰寫《東方陶瓷藝術》（*Oriental Ceramic Art, Collection of W. T. Walters*）（Bushell, 1897）一書，書中亦收錄了卜士禮翻譯的〈詠雞缸杯〉。本文透過對韋斯頓與卜士禮翻譯的乾隆御製詩〈詠雞缸杯〉的探究，思考 19 世紀中西文化交往史中，西方對中國文化由誤讀到發現的演化過程。

貳、「就中雞缸最為冠」

中國陶瓷發展史上，明代成化年間（1465－1487 年）的彩瓷是公認的歷朝釉上彩之冠。景德鎮御窯廠燒製的成化鬥彩雞缸杯，是明代成化年間鬥彩標誌性的工藝名品，「造型新穎，畫工精緻，胎體輕薄，釉色明麗」（李硯祖、孫建君，2002，頁 2）。郭子章《豫章陶志》有載：「成窯有雞缸杯，為酒器之最，上繪牡丹，下畫子母雞，躍躍欲動」（轉引自藍浦、鄭廷桂，1996，頁 63）。清唐衡詮《文房肆考》亦云：「成窯以五彩為上，酒杯以雞缸為最」（轉引自熊寥，2000，頁 381）。萬曆《神宗實錄》裡有「御前有

成化彩雞缸杯一雙，值錢十萬」（朱琰，1991，頁 84）之說。因雞缸杯名貴精美，後世仿製不息。明代嘉靖、隆慶、萬曆與清朝康熙、雍正、乾隆年間的官窯仿品，被稱為「官仿官」（陳振濂，2021，頁 83）。乾隆朝燒製的粉彩雞缸杯比成化款略大，杯身加高，圖案在洞石、牡丹、雄、雌及雛雞之外，新增加了人物與乾隆御製詩〈詠雞缸杯〉，有「乾隆丙申御題」字樣，款識為篆書「大清乾隆仿古」六字。可見，雞缸杯可謂融詩、書、畫、印等諸美於一器之微。圖 1 為大英博物館館藏雞缸杯圖片。

圖 1

大英博物館館藏雞缸杯正面及背面圖



資料來源：取自 The British Museum (https://www.britishmuseum.org/collection/object/A_PDF-A-823)。

乾隆一生創作了大量詩歌，其中「直截了當地以陶瓷為主要詠題對象（標題）的詩歌就至少有 249 首」（侯樣祥，2020，頁 126—127）。將御製詩題寫於瓷面的做法在乾隆時期頗為盛行，有研究者發現：

乾隆時一改古瓷題於底部的做法，而大量地運用於瓷面，並以配畫詩的形式出現，詩意亦由詠嘆之美而轉為對畫面的感悟和釋義，從而使瓷藝風格發生重大轉變。（鄭欣渺，2020，頁 246）

作於乾隆丙申年的〈詠雞缸杯〉正是這樣一首題於瓷杯上的配畫詩。杯外壁以粉彩繪童子戲雞，一側可見童子作金雞獨立狀，憨態可掬，對面一隻色彩妍麗的雄雞；另一側繪母雞帶領數隻雛雞覓食，情趣盎然；另有牡丹、山石點綴其間。母雞與雛雞一側上方，以墨彩書寫乾隆皇帝御製詩〈詠雞缸杯〉：

李唐越器人間無，趙宋官窯晨星看。
 殷周鼎彝世頗多，堅脆之質於焉辨。
 堅樸脆巧久暫分，立德踐行義可玩。
 朱明去此弗甚遠，宣成雅具時猶見。
 寒芒秀采總稱珍，就中雞缸最為冠。
 牡丹麗日春風和，牝雞逐隊雄雞綢。
 金尾鐵距首昂藏，怒勢如聽賈昌喚。
 良工物態肖無遺，趨華風氣隨時變。
 我獨警心在齊詩，不敢耽安興以晏。
 乾隆丙申御題

這首七言詩比較長，將藝術風尚的變遷與朝代更替並置，既讚美了雞缸杯工藝的卓絕，又及時借題自警。詩的前四句簡要回顧中國製瓷史，從晚唐越窯祕色瓷、到罕見的宋朝官窯瓷器，再到明代宣德成化年間工藝至臻，又以一句「寒芒秀采總稱珍，就中雞缸最為冠」表達自己對雞缸杯視若珍寶的喜愛。接下來四句則描繪雞缸杯本身的畫意與工藝：風和日麗的春天，母雞帶著雛雞，雄雞色彩絢麗，像是等待賈昌¹來喚它，整體畫面惟妙惟肖、宛如天成。全詩末句「我獨警心在齊詩，不敢耽安興以晏」中提到的「齊詩」，暗引《詩經·齊風》《雞鳴》一詩之典，「雞既鳴矣，朝既盈矣」，以雞鳴提醒君王早朝。在品鑑雞缸杯的同時，乾隆也告誡自己身為國君要牢記治國安邦的責任，不可玩物喪志、耽於享樂。

¹ 賈昌是盛唐時期的鬥雞神童，他 13 歲入宮，以馴雞得寵於唐明皇 40 年，唐代民謠曾諷刺賈昌曰：「生兒不用識文字，鬥雞走馬勝讀書。賈家小兒年十三，富貴榮華代不如」（轉引自徐元，1986，頁 62）。

參、語言的想像

就筆者所見，〈詠雞缸杯〉最早的英語譯本是英國文人韋斯頓 1809 年出版的《李唐》。在韋斯頓的年代，歐洲漢學已經有了較大的發展，但英國漢學發展相對遲緩。如范存忠（1991）所言：「在 18 世紀的後期，歐洲大陸已經有幾個像樣的漢學家，但是英國，除了瓊斯還找不到第二個人」（頁 179）。

韋斯頓也算不上漢學家，他在東方學方面的成就主要是關於波斯語言文化的研究。但值得注意的是，韋斯頓「很可能是最早嘗試將中文直接翻譯成英文的學者之一」（Pei, 2020, p. 72）。1792 年，韋斯頓成為英國皇家學會會員，與熱心東方事務的約瑟夫·班克斯爵士（Sir Joseph Banks）、小斯當東（Sir George Staunton）等人相交甚密，很可能在與他們的交往中接觸了來自中國的文字與藝術品。韋斯頓翻譯出版的中文資料相當零碎，其原文亦有不少源自朋友們的東方藏品。如《高宗御製凱歌三十章》（*The Conquest of the Miao-Tse: An Imperial Poem Entitled a Choral Song of Harmony for the First Part of the Spring*）（Weston, 1810），是譯自小斯當東的藏書；《范希周》（*Fan-hy-cheu: A Tale in Chinese and English*）（Weston, 1814），是與小斯當東合譯而成；《班克斯夫人藏杯所題中國風景詩樣本》（*A Specimen of Picturesque Poetry, in Chinese, Inscribed on a Cup in the Possession of Lady Banks, and Dedicated to Her Ladyship by the Translator--S.W.*）（Banks & Weston, 1820），則是受班克斯夫人所託而翻譯的一首瓷杯上的題詩。翻譯《李唐》，也是因為韋斯頓偶然見到了一隻瓷杯上的題詩：

I must now say a word of the poem which I present to the public, and how I came by it. I found it on a China cup, with the figures which accompany it; and feeling a wish to know what it meant, principally indeed on account of the author's name, I set about a translation of the characters, and concluded with guessing at the sense they intended to convey; and having satisfied

myself, leave my readers to give, with a better knowledge of the genius of the language, an improved version. (Weston, 1809, p. 3)²

中國皇帝乾隆的名字，在 18 世紀晚期的歐洲已經廣為人知。1770 年法國耶穌會士錢德明（Joseph-Marie Amiot）翻譯出版《御製盛京賦》（*Éloge de la Ville de Moukden et de ses Environs*）（Amiot, 1770）之後，大文豪伏爾泰（Voltaire）也折服於這位東方皇帝的詩才，稱其詩作充滿仁義與美德（Voltaire, 1853, p. 181）。1804 年，擔任馬戛爾尼（George Macartney）訪華使團主計的約翰·巴羅爵士（Sir John Barrow）在其著名的《中國行紀》（*Travels in China*）（Barrow, 1804）一書中，還不忘讚美「已故的乾隆皇帝是當代最傑出的詩人之一」（p. 187）。而韋斯頓對乾隆的主要興趣，卻並非因其詩才，而在於另一項較少為人所提及的功績：編纂辭典。

《李唐·譯者序》開篇，韋斯頓談及：

乾隆三十六年十二月二十四日刻印的、由乾隆皇帝下令編撰並親自御批的《漢語辭典》……有韃靼語注釋的《漢語辭典》與牛津大學聖約翰學院、大英博物館和英國皇家學會所藏的漢語辭典相比，別具價值。

(Weston, 1809, p. 1)

韋斯頓此處所言，應為乾隆敕修的滿漢合璧辭典《御製增訂清文鑑》（乾隆 36 年武英殿刻本）。其實，這並不是一部《漢語辭典》，而是乾隆在康熙敕撰《御製清文鑑》基礎上，增補、修訂並增加注音而成的滿漢字典，其目的在於規範滿文的使用。在韋斯頓眼中，「韃靼語（即滿文）是一種實用的、能學會的、有語法的語言」（Weston, 1809, p. 1），對歐洲人來說比漢語更容易學，因此乾隆編撰這部辭典或可成為英國人接近漢語的一條可行路徑。

韋斯頓時代的英國，漢英詞典的編纂尚未正式開始，³ 懂漢語的人寥寥無

² 筆者翻譯：我現在必須談談呈現給諸位的這首詩，以及我是如何遇見這首詩的。我在一個中國瓷杯上發現了這首詩，杯子上配有圖畫；主要因為作者的名字，我想知道這首詩的意思，於是就著手開始翻譯這些文字，最後猜測它們想要表達的意思；我自己心滿意足之餘，也想讓讀者們更好地了解漢語之美，並據此自己能得出一個更好的譯本。

³ 人們通常認為，第一本漢英字典是英國傳教士馬禮遜（Robert Morrison）編纂的《華英字典》（*A Dictionary of the Chinese Language*），由東印度公司出版，1815 年出版第一卷，歷時十餘年，到 1823 年才出齊（徐式穀，2002，頁 128）。

幾。許多關注中國文化的學者只能依靠其他歐洲語言譯本的轉譯來了解中國。作為一名語言學家，韋斯頓自信能透過包括「韃靼語」在內的其他語言，⁴ 去接近漢語，甚至能進行翻譯。在《李唐·譯者序》中，韋斯頓著力介紹了中國文字的特點。在他看來，漢語是一種「原初語言」（a primitive tongue），沒有字母與音節，依靠綴字成句。漢語名詞沒有性和格的變化，語態與時態的表達也不嚴謹（Weston, 1809, pp. 4-7）。為了展示「漢語結構的晦澀與複雜」（the darkness and intricacy of Chinese construction），韋斯頓舉了一個頗奇特的例子，即和珅的絕筆詩：「五十年來幻夢真，今朝撒手謝紅塵。他時睢口安瀾日，認取香烟是後身」。⁵ 韋斯頓翻譯此詩的方法是，先弄明白每個漢字的意思（圖2），然後透過自己的聯想和推斷，將那些字字對應的直譯詞彙串珠成句，最後再整理出大致釋譯。

圖 2

韋斯頓翻譯和珅絕筆詩中兩句

the	ta	vu	} Fifty
time	se	shee	
river	yu	nien	years
mouth	keu	lay	come
made	ching	yeu	young
overflow	lan	mung	dreaming
day	je	chiu	truth
remember	ky	kin	This
take	chiu	chao	morning
aromatic	siang	sa	disengage
smoke	yen	shee	hands
is	se	to	throw off
after	hew	hung	red
body	shing	ching	dust

資料來源：Weston（1809, p. 9）。

⁴ 在翻譯〈高宗御製凱歌三十章〉一詩的時候，韋斯頓查閱了大英博物館館藏的，以拉丁語與德語編纂的漢語字典（Weston, 1810）。

⁵ 作為清廷接待英國馬戛爾尼使團的重臣，和珅在 17 世紀末 18 世紀初的英國人心目中頗為重要。英國使臣馬戛爾尼、斯當東等人，曾多次稱讚和珅精明能幹，有捷才而健談（馮佐哲，1998，頁 346）。這可能是和珅絕筆詩得以很早流傳到英國的原因之一。

表面看來，韋斯頓這一譯法，和 20 世紀初美國詩人龐德（Ezra Pound）參考歐尼斯特·費諾羅薩（Ernest Fenollosa）筆記翻譯《華夏集》（*Cathay*，又譯《國泰集》）的做法形式上看似相仿，而兩者實質迥然不同。龐德時代的漢學研究已經有較大的發展，他在翻譯中完全可以查閱馬禮遜（Robert Morrison）編的《華英詞典》（Morrison, 1815），對每個漢字的英譯有較為準確的把握。但龐德對於查字典本身並沒有太大的興趣，在 1928 年給父親的信中，龐德曾這樣說：

Given infinite time I MIGHT be able to read a Chinese poem, thass to say I know how the ideograph works, and can find'em in the dictionary or vocabulary, BUT I shd. scarcely attempt it unless there were some urgent reason. (Pound, 2008, p. 17) ⁶

龐德對於「字字對譯」這一做法的興趣，與其說在字義，不如說在字形。他看重作為詩歌手段的漢字，嘗試再現漢字中訴諸視覺想像的意象美。這一詩學追求與 19 世紀初韋斯頓的翻譯意圖大不相同。在漢英字典尚付闕如的時代，韋斯頓希望借助已有的歐洲漢語字典，通過「字字對譯」為英語讀者積累漢英對照的語料樣本，幫助他們學習漢語，為他們展示用「字典式翻譯法」綴字成句，並據此揣摩漢語文本意義的可能性。

因而對韋斯頓而言，原文的文采或詩學價值並非翻譯選材的首要考慮。和珅的絕筆詩這一奇特的文本，也能吸引他進行翻譯的嘗試。這首詩篇幅不長且語境訊息較為明確，韋斯頓用「字典式翻譯法」揣摩出原詩大意，⁷並引用維吉爾（Publius Vergilius Maro）《埃涅阿斯紀》（*Aeneid*）第五部第 740 行的詩句：“*tenues fugiam ceu fumus in auras*”（Weston, 1809, p. 9），⁸為該詩加上了一個恰當而巧妙的跨文化互文的註腳。然而，在翻譯〈詠雞缸杯〉這

⁶ 筆者翻譯：給我無限的時間，我也許有能力讀得懂一首中文詩。我的意思是，我知道表意符號的運作機制，也會查字典或詞表。但是我很少這樣做，除非有什麼迫切原因。（粗體為原文中的強調）

⁷ 韋斯頓對和珅絕筆詩的釋譯如下：「五十年前我青年時期的夢想，如今被證明為並不真實。今早，我放手灑下這紅色泥土。在黃河泛濫之時，那天，我記得自己收到了芬芳祭祀品的輕煙，那便是我的來生，或我即將化身的形態」（Weston, 1809, p. 9）。

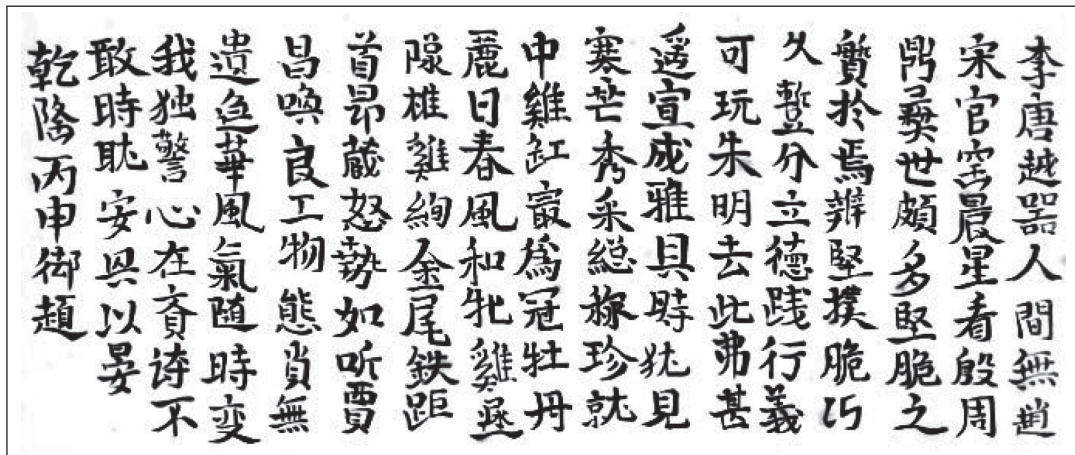
⁸ 筆者翻譯：他說完，便化作空中的一縷輕煙。

一篇幅較長、且含有豐富文化訊息的文獻時，韋斯頓這種字字對譯的做法就顯得相當笨拙，且造成了嚴重的翻譯錯誤。

《李唐》的開篇，韋斯頓首先按照雞缸杯上的樣式，抄錄了這首乾隆御製詩（圖3）。⁹而後，韋斯頓採用了音譯、字字對譯、詩句意譯三者並置的做法（圖4）。作為一名從未去過中國的「手扶椅上的東方學家」（armchair orientalist）（St. André, 2006, p. 200），韋斯頓的漢語知識主要靠查閱字典而得，他對中國文學與文化傳統所知甚少。譯文出現的第一個明顯問題是詩句分行的錯誤。漢語題詩通常不用標點，但是如果讀者對中國古典詩式略知一二，便不難斷句。韋斯頓誤以為杯上每一列八字為一行，甚至將最後「乾隆丙申御題」也當作是一行詩。斷句錯了，整首詩的意思就弄亂了。其次，韋斯頓也缺乏中國歷史常識，看不懂詩中提及的朝代，如李唐、趙宋、殷周、朱明。「李唐」被誤譯為一個人名，「朱明」二字被拆譯為「朱紅色」與「清

圖 3

韋斯頓《李唐》封二收錄的〈詠雞缸杯〉



資料來源：Weston（1809）。

⁹ 許之衡曾在《飲流齋說瓷》中提及雞缸杯上的題詩，指「所題詩字體有兩種，一種字較小體近虞王之間，一種字較大楷法凝重又頗似顏魯公矣」（許之衡，1924，頁241）。韋斯頓書中抄錄的毛筆字跡，雖不似原杯工整，但就韋斯頓留下的漢字書寫紀錄來看，也比他本人的中文書法要高明許多，這應該是專門請人抄錄的。

圖 4

韋斯頓《李唐》譯本示例

REFLECTIONS OF LY TANG

BY

KIEN LUNG.

COLUMN I.

1 Ly	Ly*	<i>The Sense in a collected view.</i>
2 Tang	Tang	
3 Yue	said	Ly Tang, idle and unemployed, in a vacant and joyless hour spake thus:
4 Ky	tool	
5 Jin	Man	
6 hien	idle	
7 vu	not	
8 siao	cheerful	

COL. II.

1 Sung	dynasty	Behold the Sun, star of the morning, rise on my furnace, and shine round my hall under the protection of an imperial dynasty.
2 Kuon	royal	
3 Yao	furnace	
4 Xin	morning	
5 Sing	star	
6 Kan	see	
7 Tien	hall	
8 Cheu	all around	

* Ly is a name, and joined with Tang in this place. Ly, by itself, means pruna, fruits, and is composed of tree and son.

資料來源：Weston (1809, p. 13)。

明」，「趙宋」、「殷周」也譯得莫名其妙。此外，乾隆原詩中對中國製瓷工藝發展的描繪，更是完全超出了韋斯頓能夠理解甚至想像的範圍。以「寒芒秀采總稱珍」一句為例，原詩形容明代宣德成化年間瓷器，「寒芒」指瓷器的釉光，而「秀采」則是鬥彩的顏色，「總稱珍」，是指兩樣的工藝都已經至於臻美。韋斯頓將「寒芒」拆譯為「寒冷」與「忙碌」、將「秀采」解釋為「採集花朵」，最離奇的是將「稱珍」譯為「跳進大海找珍珠」。韋斯頓對此句的意譯，變成了令人啼笑皆非的一句：“You may gather flowers in abundance, and plunge into the ocean in search of pearls, but cold and fatigue will be the end of both” (Weston, 1809, p. 16)。¹⁰ 這簡直算不上誤譯，而可謂是徹底的胡編亂造。韋斯頓自己後來也意識到這個譯本的荒唐，於 1816 年的重譯

¹⁰ 筆者翻譯：你可以採集許多花草，也可以去海裡尋找珍珠，但兩者都會讓你又冷又累。

此詩，改標題為〈瓷器上的中國詩〉（“A Chinese Poem on Porcelain”），並「修正了換行和文化訊息方面的錯誤，使之成為一個可接受的譯本」（Pei, 2020, p. 77）。

《李唐》作為詩歌翻譯無疑是失敗的，但這份文獻中漢英字字對譯的紀錄卻並非完全無效。它形象地記錄了中英交往的早期，一個對漢語感興趣的英國文人，試圖利用字典的釋義去理解或想像一首漢語詩歌的全過程。韋斯頓真誠而錯誤地認定，漢語並不是一門難以掌握的語言：

All that is necessary for an Englishman to make him Chinese scholar enough to translate any common work in prose, ... is a good eye for Chinese characters, and a knack of decyphering them, or finding the key by dissection, as children learn geography. Then he must have a dictionary explained in some European language which he understands, and arranged according to the keys, that shall tell the meaning of the characters as it is composed, and show how to analyse it, or take it to pieces. (Weston, 1810, p. 17) ¹¹

韋斯頓甚至曾利用自己手頭上有限的文獻，在同一時期編纂出版了《英漢詞典示例》（*Specimen of a Dictionary in English and Chinese*）（Weston, 1812b）和《小字林》（*Siao Çu Lin; or a Small Collection of Chinese Characters Analysed and Decomposed*）（Weston, 1812a）這兩本帶有工具書性質的小型漢英對照辭典。若將韋斯頓的翻譯與辭典編纂的工作放在一起，我們不難看出兩者的意圖在本質上是一致的：韋斯頓希望在漢字與英語單詞之間搭建對等的橋樑，幫助英國人接近漢語這門古老而神祕的語言，將字詞串珠成玉，在想像中實現某種理解的可能性。

¹¹ 筆者翻譯：對於一個英國人來說，要使他成為足以翻譯任何普通散文作品的中國學者……所需的是對漢字的良好觀察、解讀漢字的技巧，或者像兒童學習地理那樣通過劃分找到偏旁部首。然後，他必須有一本辭典，這本辭典應以他所理解的某種歐洲語言寫成，並根據偏旁部首來編纂，這將能解釋漢字組成的含義，並說明如何分析與拆解漢字。

肆、收藏的志趣

和韋斯頓這位「手扶椅上的東方學家」相比，〈詠雞缸杯〉的另一位譯者卜士禮則是貨真價實的中國通。雖然卜士禮從未自稱為漢學家，但「在漢學研究的準確性方面，他的貢獻遠勝於其他不少自以為是的漢學家」（Parker, 1901, p. vi）。18 世紀歐洲新興的科學話語益發強調第一手的觀察，為旅行與旅行敘事在呈現異域「真實性」方面賦予不言而喻的特權（St. André, 2006, p. 189），卜士禮獨特的文化身分也可被視為其譯本可靠性的重要保證。

卜士禮 1844 年出生於英格蘭肯特郡（Kent），1868 年獲得倫敦大學醫學博士學位，同年，經倫敦傳道會（London Missionary Society）北京醫院創始人威廉·洛克哈特（William Lockhart）推薦，擔任北京英國駐華使館公使官員專人軍醫，並曾兼任京師同文館醫學教習，後旅居中國 30 餘載，直至 1900 年退休返英（Pearce, 2005, pp. 17-25）。卜士禮的職業為他深入了解中國的文化和藝術提供了便利。正如他後來在《東方陶瓷藝術·導論》中所言：

I have obtained access, in the exercise of the duties of my profession, to several palaces and private houses, and have in this way had many opportunities of seeing the treasures of native collectors, which usually are so rigidly closed to foreigners. (as cited in Bushell, 1897, p. 1) ¹²

在華期間，卜士禮勤奮學習中國語言、歷史和藝術，在工作之餘潛心研究中國古物，受中國金石學家如潘祖蔭、吳大澂等人啟蒙，在中國陶瓷、青銅器、古錢幣以及西夏文解讀等方面均有建樹。值得注意的是，18 世紀英國知識精英階層對異域珍奇的收藏興趣，不完全出於炫奇好異的目的，在社會功利主義觀念的興起與培根式實驗哲學思想的影響下，藝術鑑藏的趣味發生了從「品鑑賞玩」到「格物致知」的轉變（王岫廬，2021，頁 143）。當時，法國傳教士殷弘緒（Père D'Entrecolles）與漢學家儒蓮（Stanislas Julien）已

¹² 筆者翻譯：在履行我（作為醫生的）職責時，我得以進入了幾座宮殿和私人住宅，從而得到很多機會看到本國收藏家的珍寶，而這些珍寶外國人一般絕無可能看到。

經開始向歐洲譯介中國陶瓷藝術的文獻，¹³但英語世界依然極度缺乏這方面的知識。負責大英博物館藏品的奧古斯塔斯·沃拉斯頓·弗蘭克斯爵士（Sir Augustus Wollaston Franks）曾感慨：

Notwithstanding, however, the numerous works that have been published, it is probable that we have as yet, but an imperfect notion of the age, history and meaning of much that appears in collections of Oriental porcelain, and until some European residing in China, well-versed in the subject, and well acquainted with the Chinese language, has obtained access to the stores of native collectors, we shall to a certain extent, working in the dark. (Franks, 1876, p. viii) ¹⁴

卜士禮的出現，不啻於是照亮這「黑暗中摸索」的一道亮光。1886年，卜士禮在《北京東方學會會刊》（*Journal of the Peking Oriental Society*）第一卷第三期發表文章〈本朝代以前的中國瓷器〉（“Chinese Porcelain Before the Present Dynasty”），詳細介紹了明朝收藏家項元汴編撰的《歷代名瓷圖譜》，並譯出書中所錄宋元明瓷器82種批注解釋，首次向西方展示了中國陶瓷收藏編目的方法（Bushell, 1886）。從此文中可見，卜士禮對中國歷史朝代及陶瓷器型的變化以及釉色、裝飾、色彩、工藝的演變有較為全面的了解。文中談及成化年間瓷器之珍貴，卜士禮還專門譯出朱琰《陶說》中所引《曝書亭集》中的一段文字：

嘗以月之朔望，觀京師慈仁寺集。貴人入市，見陳瓷碗，爭視之。萬曆窯器，索白金數兩。宣德、成化款者，倍蓰。至雞缸，非白金五鎰市之不可，有力者不少惜。以陶器而得玉之上價，其貴重如此。

¹³ 1712年，法國傳教士殷弘緒（Père D'Entrecolles）在寫給法國基督教總會的書簡中，介紹了景德鎮製瓷技藝，並節譯了元代蔣祈《浮梁縣志·陶記》的部分內容。1856年法國漢學家儒蓮與薩爾維達（Louis-Alphonse Salvetat）對《景德鎮陶錄》的翻譯，則真正開啟了中國陶瓷典籍西譯的歷史。

¹⁴ 筆者翻譯：儘管已經出版了不少著作，但我們對東方瓷器藏品的年代、歷史和意義可能並沒有一個清晰的概念。除非有居住在中國、精通這一主題，諳熟漢語的歐洲人能從當地收藏家手中收購藏品，我們的工作在某種程度上只是在黑暗中摸索。

On the days of new moon and full moon I often went while at the capital to the fair at the Buddhist Temple **Tz'ŭ ên ssŭ**, where rich men thronged to look at the old porcelain bowls exhibited here. Plain white cups of **Wan li** porcelain were serval tael of silver each, those with the marks of **Husuan té** or **Ch'éneg hua** twice as much and more, up to the tiny cups decorated with fighting cocks, which could not be bought for less than a hundred taels of the purest silver, pottery being valued far more highly than precious jade.

(Bushell, 1886, p. 98) (粗體為原文強調)

卜士禮此段譯文準確而忠實，用黑體標注出的寺廟名和年號等專有名詞，也顯示出譯者具有豐富的在地知識（local knowledge）。但從譯文可推斷此時卜士禮應該尚未見過雞缸杯，他似乎只依據字面的意思推想杯上的圖案，因而錯將「雞缸杯」譯為：“the tiny cups decorated with fighting cocks”（以鬥雞圖裝飾的小杯子）。¹⁵ 無論如何，中國收藏家們對雞缸杯的極度推崇，一定已經給卜士禮留下了深刻的印象。

卜士禮的漢語能力以及其在中國陶瓷方面的專業學識引起了西方專業學者與收藏家的注意。經弗蘭克斯爵士推薦，英國南肯辛頓博物館（South Kensington Museum）（即維多利亞與艾伯特博物館〔Victoria and Albert Museum〕前身）委託卜士禮搜集採購中國藝術品，僅 1882—1883 年卜士禮就為其購得陶瓷藏品 233 件，開創了英國博物館首個中國藝術重要藏品系列（Pearce, 2005, p. 21）。與此同時，卜士禮原本「出於個人使用需求」而翻譯的《陶說》，吸引了美國出版商威廉·麥凱·拉梵（William M. Laffan）的興趣。1890 年，拉梵邀請卜士禮修改完善《陶說》譯文出版，「以彌補當時英語世界缺乏可參考的中文原版陶瓷英譯書籍的缺憾」（Bushell, 1910, p. vii）。美國大收藏家華特士聽聞此事，約請卜士禮前來巴爾的摩（Baltimore）品鑑自己的藏品並

¹⁵ 《東方陶瓷藝術》一書關於明成化年間瓷器的介紹，其中也有相當篇幅介紹雞缸杯。卜士禮此處重譯了《曝書亭集》中提及雞缸杯的段落，將「雞缸杯」從 1886 年譯本中的“the tiny cups decorated with fighting cocks”改為“chicken cup”。此時的卜士禮應該已經親眼見過與「雞缸杯」圖案相似的鼻烟壺，知道雞缸杯上的圖畫並非鬥雞的場面。

為之編寫圖錄。卜士禮在編撰中，不但描述了藏品本身及年代背景，還查閱並翻譯了中文陶瓷典籍的相關記載，¹⁶歷經數年最終寫成十卷本《東方陶瓷藝術》（Johnston, 1999, p. 106）。

一八九七年出版的《東方陶瓷藝術》是英文世界乃至西方關於中國陶瓷研究的開拓之作，書中有 116 張彩色插圖和 437 張黑白插圖，詳細呈現了華特士藏瓷精品，其中並無雞缸杯，但在「中國陶瓷的分類和題款」一章，有相似圖樣與題詩的鼻烟壺（圖 5）。

圖 5

《東方陶瓷藝術》第 64、65 號插圖



資料來源：Bushell（1897, pp. 30-31）。

¹⁶ 有研究者指出，卜士禮在書中提及的中國陶瓷典籍 68 部，基本涵蓋了先秦至清末，涉及陶瓷的各類著作（黃巍鋒，2020，頁 122—123）。

卜士禮翻譯了鼻烟壺上的乾隆御製詩〈詠雞缸杯〉（譯本全文見附錄），也提及韋斯頓英譯本《李唐》，並在後章對雞缸杯印鑑的討論中，稱自己的譯文比韋斯頓「怪誕的」（grotesque）翻譯要好得多（Bushell, 1897, p. 44）。這個論斷顯然符合事實。卜士禮不但漢語水平很高，而且精通陶瓷史，原詩中所提及朝代、器物的專名、中國製瓷工藝的發展、以及關於雞缸杯圖案的描繪均準確譯出。以原詩開頭詩節「李唐越器人間無，趙宋官窯晨星看。殷周鼎彝世頗多，堅脆之質於焉辨」為例，卜士禮譯為：

Yueh-chou porcelain of the Li dynasty of T'ang is no longer extant: /The imperial ware of the Chao house of Sung is rare as stars at dawn. /Yet the ancient ritual vessels of Yin and Chou abound in the present day: /Their material, bronze, is stronger; vessels of clay are more fragile. (Bushell, 1897, p. 31)

原詩中指涉的中國朝代得到了準確的轉譯，如「李唐」被譯為“Li dynasty of T'ang”、「趙宋」被譯為“Chao house of Sung”。此外，我們可以看出譯者對中國古代器物的材質與功用也相當熟悉，如將「鼎彝」譯為“ancient ritual vessels”，並在翻譯中補充說明這些禮器的材質為“bronze”（即青銅），以區別於其他以陶土燒製的器具。這樣一來，原詩中「堅脆之質」的意義在譯本中也更為顯化，有助於讀者的理解。在翻譯「寒芒秀采總稱珍」一句時，卜士禮準確將「寒芒」「秀采」二詞分別譯為“brilliant polish”與“perfect coloring”，表明他具備關於明代宣德成化年間瓷器的釉色特點的相關知識。

與韋斯頓英譯本《李唐》相比，卜士禮的譯詩除了更為準確之外，還有一點尤其值得我們注意，即卜士禮對全詩最後一行「乾隆丙申御題」給予了極大重視。為了幫助西方讀者看懂瓷器銘文上的紀年，卜士禮用了整整兩頁詳細解釋中國傳統天干地支紀年法，列出了公元紀年與之比對的詳表，再列出一頁公元紀年與中國朝代之對應表，而後列出元、明、清三個朝代的皇帝年號。畢竟，他編撰此書的重要目的之一，是為了幫助西方收藏家了解東方陶瓷，辨識藏品價值，器物的紀年標識無疑是極為關鍵的訊息。特殊的翻譯

目的決定了卜士禮在翻譯〈詠雞缸杯〉一詩時，將重點放在一般詩歌翻譯者可能最忽視的題款處。正如拉梵在《東方陶瓷藝術》之〈序言〉中所評論的：

一個只在語言方面有造詣的漢學家翻譯與陶瓷相關的文獻時，可能會非常深刻而博學，但卻無法表達其真正的含義。如果他面前有中文描寫的實際器物，又精通中國瓷器藝術，那麼他的翻譯就會有完全不一樣的特點，會更具有指導意義。（Laffan, 1897, p. iii）¹⁷

伍、從誤讀到發現

從文學史的角度來看，乾隆御製詩〈詠雞缸杯〉並不是一首特別重要的詩歌作品，但由於乾隆這一東方帝王的身分、以及該詩題詠對象在中國陶瓷藝術史上的重要地位，這首詩也被賦予了特殊的價值。19 世紀〈詠雞缸杯〉的兩個譯本，在一定程度上對應著中英早期文化交往史上英國漢學發展的過程。

關於西方漢學發展的歷史階段，學界有不同的分期方式。張西平（2001）認為，西方漢學經歷了「遊記漢學時期」、「傳教士漢學時期」、「專業漢學時期」三個不同的發展階段。遊記漢學時期指的是隨著 15、16 世紀新航路的開闢，歐洲傳教士、商人、旅行者經海路來到中國，這批人「通過旅遊和在中國的短暫經歷所獲得的表面性認識」（張西平，2001，頁 101）構成了西方漢學的萌芽。相比之下，英國跟中國發生直接往來的時間要晚很多，直到 18 世紀末才開始派遣傳教士如馬禮遜、米憐（William Milne）、托馬斯·珀西（Thomas Percy）、塞繆爾·伯奇（Cyril Birch）和外交官喬治·托馬斯·斯當東（Sir George Thomas Staunton）等人來華。這批人將關於中國的語言知識與風俗文化等資料「用報告、遊記、日記和信札等形式送回英國」（陳

¹⁷ 筆者翻譯。

友冰，2008，頁 34），奠定英國早期漢學的基礎。其實，在這些英國人到達中國之前，英國本土已經出現了零星的有關中國的研究。熊文華（2007）將 17 世紀至 18 世紀看作英國漢學史上的「前漢學時期」：

當時關心中國事情的人大多為學者、自然神論者和啟蒙主義者，他們多數人不懂漢語，也沒有來過中國。研究是自發和分散的，靈感和素材主要來自西方來華傳教士的傳教報告和信件以及從拉丁文、法文和西班牙文轉譯的中國典籍。（頁 1）

換言之，「前漢學時期」的英國學者「更願意依靠二手資料，甚至是道聽塗說來了解中國，而不是對中國進行專門的研究」（張西平，2011，頁 243）。這種情況一直持續到 19 世紀初，英國本土甚至連懂漢語的學者也找不出幾個，當時許多東方學者都是先接觸到印度或波斯的語言，再拓展到對其他亞洲語言的學習和掌握。首次將〈詠雞缸杯〉譯為英語的韋斯頓，原先的專長是波斯語及阿拉伯語，而不是漢語（St. André, 2006, p. 196）。畢竟對西方人來說，漢語並不是一門容易習得的語言，最早進入中國內地的耶穌會士羅明堅（Michele Ruggieri）、利瑪竇（Matteo Ricci）等人，都曾感慨過學習漢語的困難。在很長一段時期，歐洲早期漢學家們都幻想能找到「中文之鑰」（Clavis Sinica），希望能發現某種揭示漢語基本結構的密鑰，從而加快學習漢語的繁瑣進程，以便最終解開普世語言的奧秘（Mungello, 1988, pp. 188-226）。韋斯頓的翻譯活動，與其說旨在為英國讀者再現某個中國文學樣本，毋寧說一種破解漢語密碼的嘗試。正如歐洲漢學家們最終並沒有找到「中文之鑰」，韋斯頓的翻譯也明顯失敗了。但《李唐》不失為一份有意義的歷史文獻，它記載了中英早期語言接觸的歷史上，一名英國文人曾試圖跨越語言的藩籬並試圖向其讀者展示一種漢語學習的可能性。

整個 19 世紀，英國漢學研究得到長足的發展。1807 年，馬禮遜受倫敦傳道會遣派來華傳教，他不僅是最早來華的新教傳教士之一，也是英國漢學研究的先驅者，在漢語研究、辭書編寫和聖經翻譯方面有重要貢獻（熊文華，2007，頁 26）。鴉片戰爭以後，中國門戶被迫開放，在事實上強化了中西文

化交流。來華英國傳教士、外交官、旅行者激增，他們中誕生了許多成就卓著的漢學家，其中理雅各（James Legge），德庇時（J. F. Davis）和翟理思（Herbert Alien Giles）為中國典籍翻譯做出了巨大貢獻，被稱為「19世紀英國漢學三大代表人物」（陳友冰，2008，頁35）。在文本翻譯之外，我們不應該忽視，中國器物的收藏與研究也成為海外漢學的重要組成部分。19世紀末20世紀初，歐美收藏家購藏中國文物也漸成風氣和規模，同時，西方列強的武裝侵略與文化掠奪也造成中國大量文物流失或散佚。梁繩禕（1941）曾痛心指出：

敦煌古卷、散在英法。殷墟甲骨、並見日英。昭陵石刻、遠輸費府近代名畫、早渡倫敦。大典殘本、分存於七國。流沙墜簡、多儲於英都。資料所在、學術以興。……資料搜集、為學問之始而非其成。然文獻無征、宣尼興歎。孤本神物、隨舶西東。乃外國漢學著之大利、而中國國學者之不幸也。（頁32—33）。

不少對中國文明感興趣的西方學者開始積極收藏中國文物，趙成清（2014）言：「斯坦因、伯希和、卜士禮、大維德等人都是在東西方不平等的社會語境中充當了中國文物藝術的鑑賞收藏家」（第九段）。中國珍品流失海外令人痛心，但這事實上也直接促進了西方對中國藝術及文明研究與興趣。就本研究中所討論的譯者卜士禮而言，他並非出於獵奇心理而購買中國藝術品的西方商人，也不同于瘋狂劫掠皇室珍寶的八國聯軍，而是「為了探究一個不同的文明而購藏的」（白謙慎，2020，頁100）。對中國歷史與藝術懷有真誠興趣，歷經長期實地考察與典籍研習，讓卜士禮翻譯〈詠雞缸杯〉時，對其指涉的陶瓷藝術史與文化典故了然於心，以舉重若輕的生花妙筆，譯得準確而通暢易懂。

張西平（2011）指出：

西方最早關於中國的記載和知識是非常凌亂的，並未形成一個系統的知識體系，內容散見在西方關於中西文化交流的歷史書籍之中。特別是在早期，中西文化交流史和西方漢學史是融合在一起的。（頁11）

對乾隆御製詩〈詠雞缸杯〉在 19 世紀初和 19 世紀末兩個譯本的考查，讓我們得以管窺中英文化交往早期英國漢學發展中的兩種知識類型。韋斯頓身處前漢學時代，他的翻譯活動在一定程度上反映了當時英國知識分子對中國充滿異想天開與異國情調的想像。語言的藩籬是依然是這一時代文化交流互通的最大障礙，「即使在嚴肅的著作中，也有種種令人啼笑皆非的細節」（周寧，2004，頁 6）。卜士禮的翻譯活動則佐證了 19 世紀末 20 世紀初專業漢學研究的進展。經過前漢學時代對中國的想像、傳教士時代對中國語言文化的譯介，專業漢學家們向西方學術界貢獻了更為精確而專門化的中國經驗與漢學知識。我們需要仔細分辨那些細瑣而意味深長的歷史物事，才能更好地理解西方對於中國從「想像」到「知識」，從「誤讀」到「發現」的過程，而這一過程，也許並不應該被「東方主義」視角化約為一種帝國主義意識形態的文化挪用或消費，正如諾瑟·佛萊什（2010）所言：「漢學家的意圖和中國的真相，正是後世漢學家必須面對的謎團」（頁 9）。

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附錄

卜士禮翻譯的乾隆御製詩〈詠雞缸杯〉

Yueh-chou porcelain of the Li dynasty of T'ang is no longer extant:
 The imperial ware of the Chao house of Sung is rare as stars at dawn.
 Yet the ancient ritual vessels of Yin and Chou abound in the present day:
 Their material, bronze, is stronger; vessels of clay are more fragile.
 But though strong and rude they last, the weak and polished perish:
 So honest worth wears well in daily life, and should be ever prized.
 The Chu dynasty of Ming, going back from to-day, is not so far remote:
 And the artistic gems of Hsüan and Ch'êng may be seen occasionally.
 Their brilliant polish and their perfect coloring are universally lauded;
 And among them the 'Chicken Winecups' are the very crown of all.
 The Mutan peonies under a bright sun opening in the balmy spring;
 The hen and chicken close together, and the cock in all his glory,
 With golden tail and iron spurs, his head held straight erect.
 In angry poise ready for combat, as if he heard the call of Chia Ch'ang.
 The clever artist has rendered all the naturalistic details
 In a style handed down from old time, varying in each period:
 But I will think only in my own mind of the ancient Odes of Ch'i,
 And not dare to cherish my own ease when it is time to rise early.

*Composed by the Emperor Ch'ien-lung' in the cyclical year
 ping-shên, and sealed by him.*

(Bushell, 1897, p. 31)

王際真翻譯選集與中國文學的「現代化」重寫

黃賽賽

翻譯選集作為一種重寫，可在目的語文學中塑造源語文學形象。王際真編譯的《中國現代小說選》（*Contemporary Chinese Stories*）（Wang, 1944）收錄的小說富於寫實，在內容上側重剖析、諷刺社會問題並批判國民性，呈現「中國的另一面」；在形式上突顯西方小說技巧對中國現代小說的影響，呈現「西方的時尚形式」。相較原文，譯文對小說的修辭技法、小說結構及作家個人技巧等藝術表現也進行了重寫。《中國現代小說選》塑造了「五四」及其後中國新文學在精神與方法上「現代化」的形象，意在展現富有現代意識、追求革新的中華民族形象。但選集也同時固化了中國現代小說「成就乏善可陳」，只是西方文學單向影響下的產物這個刻板印象。

關鍵詞：翻譯選集、《中國現代小說選》、現代化、重寫

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本文是浙江財經大學東方學院院級重點課題「20 世紀 40 年代中國現代小說英譯選集與中國文學形象建構研究」（編號：2022dfyzd005）的階段性成果。

Chi-chen Wang's Anthology of Translations and the Modernized Rewriting of Chinese Literature

Sai-sai Huang

Translations collected in anthologies are a form of rewriting and play a key role in developing the conceptualization of source text. *Contemporary Chinese Stories* (Wang, 1944), which was anthologized and translated by Chi-chen Wang, a May Fourth intellectual, was intended to be conceptualized as modernized literature and, therefore, to lead readers to perceive China to be a modernized nation. Many of the stories included in the anthology focus on alternative aspects of Chinese life; that is, they are realistic short stories intended to present the corruption of Chinese social order. The stories are notably influenced by Western fiction writing, that is, they are presented in the Western style that was considered fashionable at the time. The translator also rewrote the stories to improve the rhetoric, adjust the structuring, and improve upon weak aspects of the author's writing. Although the intention and methods used to create the anthology demonstrated China's literary achievement after the May Fourth Movement and presented China as a nation in pursuit of modernity and reform, the anthology also perpetuated the concept that modern Chinese stories are the products of Western influence and have little intrinsic value.

Keywords: anthologies of translations, *Contemporary Chinese Stories*, modernized, rewriting

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壹、引言

作為「重寫」的翻譯是許多研究的關注焦點，勒菲弗爾（André Lefevere）指出翻譯有可能是最有影響力的重寫，因為翻譯能跨越文化界限，在另一文化中展現源語作者、作品的形象，且除翻譯之外，選集編撰亦是重寫的重要形式（Lefevere, 1992, p. 9）。而翻譯選集（anthologies of translation）作為「最具啟迪性及銘刻性的文化傳播方式」，「可精簡、連貫地展現異國文學的形象」（Frank, 2004, pp. 13-14）。¹ 基特爾（Hans Kittel）指出翻譯選集構建的新的文本語境，進一步強化了文學翻譯「解讀與塑造」的功能，「譯文僅因入選某翻譯選集，該文本就間接地在更大程度上被轉換及修改」（Kittel, 1995, p. xv）。翻譯選集作為一種配置文集，其對文本的「安排」或「配置」所產生的價值和意義遠超過單獨文本的價值和意義的總和（Frank, 2004, p. 13）。編撰者的文學觀、選集編撰理念、選材與翻譯策略等因素賦予翻譯選集的最終面貌，使得源語文學作品庫中的部分成為源語文學的「形象代言人」（何敏，2021，頁 142）。翻譯選集可在目的語文學中塑造源語文學形象，且「塑造方法是可以合理地描述、分析並進行討論的」（Lefevere, 1995, p. 54）。

美國哥倫比亞大學東亞系教授王際真（Chi-chen Wang）是 20 世紀上半葉西方中國現代文學的重要譯介者，被譽為「中國現代小說的播火者」（王海龍，2007，頁 99）、「中國傳統文學與現代文學的傑出翻譯家」（Devitt, 2001, A08）。王際真於 1944 年由哥倫比亞大學出版的中國現代小說英譯選集《中國現代小說選》（*Contemporary Chinese Stories*）是 20 世紀 40 年代重要的中國現代文學選集。王際真中國編譯者的身分及選集對中國文學的系統譯介，使得這部選集「特別值得注意」（Milford, 1944, p. 274）。《中國現代小說選》的諸多書評載於《紐約時報》（*New York Times*）、《華盛頓郵報》（*Washington Post*）等西方主流媒體，且該選集的重要意義在於「中國現代

¹ 除非另行註明，引文皆由筆者自譯。

文學第一次由美國的大學出版社以學院派的面貌展示出來，並一度成為美國學生學習中國文學的權威教材」（李剛，2014，頁 68）。

王際真親歷中國新文化運動和多次學潮，雖於青年時期即赴美留學，但「他從根子上還是〔五四〕一代的知識分子」（夏志清，2009／2011，頁 99），其翻譯活動亦帶有五四知識分子對中國文學進步、現代化的訴求。鑑此，本研究以王際真的《中國現代小說選》為中心，呈現選集的編選內容及作品特徵，考察譯者為塑造源語文學形象而進行的翻譯重寫，試圖揭示選集背後王際真對中國文學的「現代化」重寫意圖。

貳、《中國現代小說選》的選材：「現代化」的文學

《中國現代小說選》（Wang, 1944）收錄了 1918 年至 1937 年 11 位作家的 21 篇小說，包括張天翼的〈路〉、〈老明的故事〉、〈笑〉、〈團圓〉，老舍的〈村兒輟學記〉，老舍的〈黑白李〉、〈眼鏡〉、〈抱孫〉、〈善人〉、〈柳家大院〉，巴金的〈家〉（第 33－34 章），沈從文的〈夜〉，馮文炳的〈阿妹〉，凌叔華的〈太太〉，茅盾的〈春蠶〉、〈一個真正的中國人〉，葉聖陶的〈李太太的頭髮〉、〈鄰居〉，魯迅的〈端午節〉、〈示眾〉，楊振聲的〈玉君〉。

一、小說選材：內容與形式

王際真在選集序言開篇即提及該選集中很多故事與其選編的《魯迅選集》（*Ah Q and Others: Selected Stories of Lusin*）²一樣，大多是讓「自視為好」的中國人尷尬的「中國的另一面」（Wang, 1944, p. vii）。入選作品的内容多為揭示中國社會各階層的生活現實，如底層民眾的悲苦與艱難（張天翼〈團

² 該選集是西方出版的第一本魯迅小說譯文集，王際真收錄了《吶喊》、《彷徨》中的 11 篇小說，包括〈故鄉〉、〈肥皂〉、〈離婚〉、〈在酒樓上〉、〈頭髮的故事〉、〈風波〉、〈阿 Q 正傳〉、〈孤獨者〉、〈傷逝〉、〈祝福〉、〈狂人日記〉。

圓〉、老舍〈柳家大院〉、茅盾〈春蠶〉），上流階級的偽善（老舍〈善人〉、茅盾〈一個真正的中國人〉），小知識分子的矛盾與悲涼（魯迅〈端午節〉、葉紹鈞〈李太太的頭髮〉），兒童教育及生活現狀（老舍〈村兒輟學記〉、馮文炳〈阿妹〉），國民性格的麻木與愚昧（老舍〈眼鏡〉、〈抱孫〉、魯迅〈示眾〉），封建家庭制度的弊害（巴金〈家〉、楊振聲〈玉君〉）等。

入選小說在內容上融會了反抗精神、憂患意識與民族意識，抨擊封建禮教和家族制度等社會弊病，而抨擊與批判的主要工具則是諷刺。選集總共 21 篇小說中，以諷刺與幽默見長的張天翼和老舍占了九篇，大部分入選作品都是諷刺性質的小說。如葉聖陶的〈李太太的頭髮〉在悲哀的平淡中，加進飽含深意的諷刺性，李太太卑微的投機僥倖心理影射了標榜革命的「國民政府」；魯迅的〈示眾〉中冷靜客觀的畫面式描述，與隱含作者悲憫地嘲諷看客的麻木形成有距離的反諷，〈端午節〉以輕喜劇式的諷刺，挖苦方玄綽式的「新式知識分子在新舊兩種文化衝擊下所顯露的懦弱與困窘」（於珊珊，2013，頁 93）；老舍的〈柳家大院〉第一人稱敘事者「我」佯狂似癲，亦莊亦諧的語調映襯底層市民看似合理實則無比荒謬的生活邏輯；〈善人〉則以無一貶詞而偽情畢露式的譏諷，塑造了穆女士的偽善家形象；茅盾〈一個真正的中國人〉以細膩犀利的筆觸，揭示了標榜「每一根神經纖維都貢獻給民族」（茅盾，1994，頁 324）的虛偽資本家面貌；凌叔華的〈太太〉則是一幅破落資產階級女性的滑稽諷刺圖。在諷刺帶來的幽默詼諧以外，讀者可以體會作者對國民性的反思及對封建體制的鞭笞。可以說，選集青睞諷刺藝術所展現出的文學魅力，展現出中國現代作家對社會現象的批判意識。選集的這一內容特色為許多書評家點明，路易士·弗勞奇格（Lois Frauchiger）在《海外書評》（*Books Abroad*）中指出小說以徹底的現實主義刻劃貧窮、迷信、腐敗及傳統的束縛（Frauchiger, 1945, p. 82）。美國的中國歷史學家瑪麗貝絲·卡梅隆（Meribeth E. Cameron）在《遠東季刊》（*Far Eastern Quarterly*）評論這些小說「猛烈抨擊了家庭制度、貧窮和迷信」，旨在「打擊腐朽的社會秩序」，展現「殘喘的陳腐社會制度依舊控制著人們，迫使生命走向沮喪或激

發人性絕對的罪惡」(Cameron, 1944, p. 385)。華裔學者陳榮捷(Wing-tsit Chan)在《紐約時報》上的書評指出小說「突顯了貧窮、迷信、軍閥的壓迫、陳舊家庭制度的腐敗、無人照看的孩子、乞丐、小偷、狗肉等中國一切的禍根，以及對這一切的激烈反抗」(Chan, 1944, A15)。

二十世紀20、30年代西方關於中國的出版物「幾乎都是強調中國的過去，關注的是已經埋葬了的問題與文化方式」，而「大部分的中國作家要麼貶低現代中國，要麼呈現其錯誤的一面以迎合外國讀者的情感」(Snow, 1937, p. 12)。王際真特別指出，多數西方人表現出中國傳統文化的崇尚和眷戀，卻對現代中國的社會現實一無所知。有些人認為中國是「一個只有過去值得稱讚的停滯文明」，或者視中國為「一個印象及完美的象徵」，他們「為北京宮殿的壯麗及對稱之美所著迷」，或者「非常喜歡所謂的中國生活方式」，喜歡「這片土地上懶散度日且快樂的老爺，終日勞累卻更加快樂的苦力和僕人」(Wang, 1941, p. ix)。儘管中國千瘡百孔，這些作品卻「告訴西方世界中國是一個多麼令人讚歎的國家，中國民族是多麼快樂的民族」(Wang, 1941, p. ix)。因此，王際真指出「中國的另一面」也意在解構彼時西方大眾的中國刻板形象，如「中國佬約翰」(John Chinaman)、「異教徒中國佬」(Heathen Chinese)、「傅滿洲博士」(Fu Manchu)、「陳查理」(Charlie Chan)，或是美國暢銷文學中「平靜古老的土地及土地上智慧勞作的農民」等受歡迎卻不真實中國的形象(Wang, 1941, p. vii)。

在寫作技巧方面，選集整體上展現五四及以後中國小說在創作結構、表現手法等文學形式上對西方小說的借鑑與融合。選集強調西方小說技法對中國現代小說的影響。王際真指出自己的編選取材「小說技巧的優劣」是考慮的重要因素，並在選集目錄的編排上「將受西方技巧影響最大的故事排在前面」(Wang, 1944, p. viii)，而小說技巧優劣的參照標準即為西方小說的格調與寫作技巧。《華盛頓郵報》社論作者約瑟夫·邁克·拉利(Joseph Michael Lalley)在對《中國現代小說選》的書評中指出「這些小說表現出一種〔西方的時尚形式〕，很明顯地受到當代歐洲和美國文學的影響」(Lalley, 1944, A08)。

二、選材背後：呈現中國文學的「現代化」

王際真的選材並非沒有招致質疑，如陳榮捷認為選集將「最偉大的現代女作家丁玲」排除在外是令人失望的（Chan, 1944, A15），也有評論指出入選小說「品質不一」（Prescott, 1944, A13）。王際真在序言中指出選集考慮了三方面內容，一是「小說技巧的優劣」；二是「作者的公認地位」；三是「小說對中國生活及問題的揭示」（Wang, 1944, p. viii）。此外亦考慮作家是否已有英文譯作。王際真解釋，若非魯迅最好的作品已收錄於其選編的《魯迅選集》中，他會選入更多魯迅的小說（Wang, 1944, p. viii）。王際真在選集的附錄中列出了三本中國現代小說英譯選集，即愛德格·斯諾（Edgar Snow）的《活的中國》（*Living China*），敬隱漁（Kyn Yn Yu）的《阿Q正傳及其他中國現代小說》（*The Tragedy of Ah Qui: And Other Modern Chinese Stories*）及《魯迅選集》。王際真強調當下選集沒有一篇篇目是與上述選集重複的（Wang, 1944, p. 235），且若非郭沫若、郁達夫、丁玲和冰心已有代表作收錄於上述選集，他會收錄至少各一篇（Wang, 1944, p. viii）。王際真的解釋也似乎透露了他的編選傾向，因為茅盾、沈從文、巴金、張天翼同樣已有作品收錄於上述選集，然而選集仍收錄了張天翼四篇小說，茅盾的兩篇，沈從文及巴金各一篇，可以說明他對上述作家的欣賞。王際真認為張天翼是「本集中最年輕、技巧最先進的作者」（Wang, 1944, p. 237），最主要的原因是張天翼小說的結構形態與傳統小說的巨大反差及對西方小說技巧的極大吸收。傳統中國小說「敘事拉雜」，「人物要麼在說教，要麼做一些毫無新意的評論」，而張天翼的小說「開場直接而富有戲劇性，專用對話來描述故事，段落短小」，「語言描寫真實自然」，「給人耳目一新之感」（Wang, 1944, p. 237）。王際真的選材也明顯與五四文學的典範性選本不同，對照《中國現代小說選》與《中國新文學大系第三集·小說一集》（茅盾，1935）、《中國新文學大系第四集·小說二集》（魯迅，1935）及《中國新文學大系第五集·小說三集》（鄭伯奇，1935）的目次，可以發現大系收錄的新文學革命第一個

十年（1917－1927 年）的五四小說經典，王際真一篇都並沒有採納。從入選的作家來看，重複的作家僅有入選《小說一集》的葉紹鈞，《小說二集》的魯迅、楊振聲、馮文炳和凌叔華。王際真在《中國現代小說選》序言中坦言：「除了魯迅的兩篇及《玉君》，幾乎剩下所有的小說都寫於第二個十年，³ 因為大部分的早期作品，作為小說沒有太大的內在價值」（Wang, 1944, p. viii）。

可以看出，王際真認為寫於第二個十年的小說在語言和技巧上優於前期。王際真解釋楊振聲的〈玉君〉之所以入選是「因其缺點而非優點」，可以展現新舊小說在語言和技巧上的過渡，「以使該選集盡可能地有代表性」（Wang, 1944, p. viii）。馮文炳發表於 1923 年的〈阿妹〉之所以入選，「主要是小說深刻地揭示缺乏關愛的童年悲劇」（Wang, 1944, p. 240），且王際真對馮文炳的詩化小說風格似乎並不欣賞，他認為：「小說故作簡潔平淡，常常使讀者不知作者用意所在。儘管〈阿妹〉讀起來平淡拘謹，我無法找到作者有比這篇更直率的作品了」（Wang, 1944, p. 240）。

另一方面，王際真重視小說對中國社會問題的揭示，入選作品大多體現了五四及其後作家藉小說傳播現代啟蒙精神、批判改革社會的創作意圖，旨在呈現中國現代小說在精神上的現代化。王際真認為，「任何真正具有代表性的中國現代小說選集都不可避免會展現中國社會的另一面」，因為小說自從中國 19 世紀末變革中，作為「喚醒人心」的強有力的武器以來「亦是變革的一部分」，表明了「過去幾十年來引領中國的尋求改變和革新的精神」（Wang, 1944, p. vii）。王際真指出儘管西方對中國傳統文學和藝術崇尚和眷戀，但傳統文學描繪的中國生活是「對生命的不真實、不具個體色彩的呈現」（Wang, 1941, p. ix），而中國現代小說的寫實與批判是小說在創作精神與思想上對傳統文學的顛覆，是作家具有現代化文學精神的體現。王際真認為「中國現代文學的產生直接源於西方的影響」，在這之前中國文學的形式雖有變

³ 此外，選集中寫於第一個十年還包括凌叔華的〈太太〉（1925 年）及馮文炳的〈阿妹〉（1923 年）。

化，但「在精神與內容上仍是原來的樣子」，「西方文明物質表像背後是重要的反抗精神，崇尚順其自然的東方民族卻對這種精神較陌生」（Wang, 1934, p. 128），直至西方文明的影響使得中國文學被引入「歐洲文學的主流」（Wang, 1934, p. 127）。因此，王際真認為中國新文學作家呈現出的批判與反抗意識表明了文學精神與內容上的突破。例如王際真坦言對魯迅的崇敬在於「服膺魯迅批判中國歷史的精神」（轉引自王海龍，2007，頁110）：「在魯迅作品中，讀者將看到整個中國歷史中前所未有的對義憤品性、反抗精神的彰顯與表達」（Wang, 1941, p. viii）。王際真對巴金的《激流三部曲》評價也很高，他認為：

即使只按巴金當下的成就而言，他也是文學革命以來第一位偉大的長篇小說家，將《激流三部曲》僅列於中國人視為最偉大的小說《紅樓夢》之後，也不為過。（Wang, 1944, p. 239）

而小說之所以偉大，首要原因便是作品對封建家庭罪惡的反抗與控訴：「這是目前對中國舊家庭制度最有效、寫得最好的控訴小說，我自己讀激流的時候也是深深被打動」（Wang, 1944, p. 239）。王際真指出巴金「對自由有著熾熱的愛，對於各種壓迫和虛偽，有著同樣熾熱的恨」（Wang, 1944, p. 238）。對於巴金小說中毫不節制的抒情性，王際真則表示：「對於更加老練的美國讀者而言，巴金讀起來有點幼稚誇張，但是中國讀者並不這麼覺得，因為他們深刻認同、體會他的看法」（Wang, 1944, p. 239）。對於入選的〈家〉36—37章，王際真也特別指出「儘管我在一些地方做了刪節，但我非常謹慎，為的是不改變小說的人物和風格」（Wang, 1944, p. 239）。

總體而言，《中國現代小說選》收錄的多為具有批判精神的現實主義文學作品，整體上展現五四及其後中國小說在創作結構、表現手法等文學形式上對西方小說的借鑑與融合。而這些即為中國新文學的「現代化」特質，「〔五四〕以來小說的現代性在於，現代的思想主題獲得了現代的存在形式」（嚴家炎，2014，頁16），以「自覺的現實主義為主體的創作方法」是小說現代化的標誌（嚴家炎，2014，頁23），「作家濃厚的社會意識與廣闊的社

會視野及批判精神」亦體現了中國小說的現代化（劉柏青，2017，頁 85）。王際真意在呈現從內容到形式都具有現代意義的中國現代文學形象，展示中國文學與世界文學融會的現代化轉變。

參、譯文對小說藝術表現的「現代化」重寫

王際真同時作為選編者及譯者，除了在選材上體現文學的現代性，在翻譯中對小說的藝術表現亦進行「現代化」重寫。

一、小說修辭的重寫

小說修辭是小說家為控制讀者反映，說服讀者接受小說中的人物和價值觀念的方法、技巧和策略的活動（李建軍，2019，頁 17）。廣義的小說修辭是指小說本身是作為修辭性的講故事藝術，而狹義的修辭是指作家為幫助讀者而介入小說的手法和技巧（布斯，1961／1987，頁 428）。王際真在小說修辭層面上的重寫主要包含兩方面，一是對小說標題的重寫；二是對小說宏觀修辭上「講述」與「展示」部分的調整。

（一）小說標題的重寫

標題是小說文本的一部分，也是讀者接觸文本的第一部分。小說的標題不僅具有資訊功能，還有勸說功能，能調整讀者的注意力並在很大程度上決定讀者的閱讀取向。表 1 展示了王際真對小說標題的調整。

表 1

選集標題的重寫

原文標題	譯文標題
〈家〉（第 36—37 章）	The Puppet Dead
〈夜〉	Night March

（續下頁）

表 1

選集標題的重寫（續）

原文標題	譯文標題
〈老明的故事〉	The Inside Story
〈抱孫〉	Grandma Takes Charge
〈太太〉	The Helpmate
〈端午節〉	What's the Difference
〈示眾〉	Peking Street Scene

〈家〉的第 36—37 章截取的是覺新妻子瑞珣難產而死的片段，王際真用 “The Puppet Dead” 概括了覺新像傀儡一樣被封建家庭擺布的長子形象。沈從文的〈夜〉中敘述者緩緩回憶起一段往事：「我」和四個士兵在夜行山路卻差點迷路，後投宿一老者家中，最後發現老者家剛剛死去互為依靠的妻子。相較之下，“Night March” 比〈夜〉更為具體，譯者的重寫似乎意在讓讀者從較為鬆散的敘事中有所聚焦。張天翼〈老明的故事〉講述了老明參與的民間國防隊伍為編入正式軍隊發財，哄騙刁金生冒充土匪頭子並致其被槍斃的故事。故事中的老明，也是故事的講述者，在一群兄弟前將一樁賣弄人命的內幕勾當當成發跡祕訣炫耀。“The Inside Story” 較原標題更聚焦小說的主要內容和諷刺意味。〈抱孫〉屬於概括情節性質的標題，但譯者將標題改為 “Grandma Takes Charge”，與小說看似鬧劇實為悲劇的戲謔意味相呼應。“The Helpmate” 意指得力的伴侶，用其指代原文只知打牌、不善管理家務的破落資產階級太太，王際真應意在增強標題的戲謔意味。王際真對魯迅的兩篇小說標題也都進行了修改，“What's the Difference” 是原文〈端午節〉中主角方玄綽的口頭禪，王際真以此取代〈端午節〉，應是覺得原標題未能突顯原文主旨。而〈示眾〉是魯迅小說中比較獨特的一篇，全篇沒有小說傳統意義上的情節和典型人物，魯迅用冷靜、客觀的第三人稱物態化敘述手法，描摹出北京街頭常見的看客人物群像，王際真用 “Peking Street Scene”（〈北平街景〉），

翻譯可能意在契合小說的內容。

總結王際真對小說標題的修改，大致可以看出其修改目的，或是為達成標題與內容的契合，或是為突顯小說的立意。布斯（1961／1987）論及小說修辭作為「感動讀者的手段」（頁 105），認為「絕不要忘記標題的修辭」（頁 109），布斯意在指出標題作為一種修辭，其背後是作者直接指向讀者、宣告作品主題的意圖。王際真對標題的細緻修改則表明譯者面向西方讀者的意識，標題的修改亦是以西方小說的藝術標準對原文進行重寫。

（二）「講述」與「展示」的調整

譯文中另一種較為明顯的重寫體現在簡化小說的「講述」部分，突出「展示」部分。「講述」與「展示」顯示小說敘述者的介入程度。作為故事的敘事方式，「講述」即傳統小說表現出來的作者與讀者之間親切的講聽式關係，作者以明確的講述人身分進行全知性的整體通觀敘述，而「展示」則縮短讀者與人物的外在距離，讓人物直接站到讀者面前展示自己的動作和內心活動（李建軍，2019，頁 154）。王際真在翻譯時傾向於將小說中敘述者過多的「講述」部分刪除，突顯小說「展示」的藝術。

老舍的〈柳家大院〉以第一人稱的限知視角講述了北京大雜院中小王媳婦遭受公公一家凌虐而死的故事。敘述者「我」同為住在大雜院的鄰居，是一位街頭擺卦攤的算命先生。作者並無意控制敘事者的敘事許可權，由限知而無邊界地轉為全知，作者的義憤過盛，常常僭越了敘事者，並與敘事者合而為一。但在譯文中敘述者過多的講述得到有效的緩和。例如算命先生拿「文明」作為發洩的由頭在原文中出現 20 次，王際真只保留了九處，並對敘述者激情喧囂的評論性話語進行壓縮或刪除。

原文：

他鬧氣，不為別的，專為學學「文明」人的派頭。他是公公；媽的，公公幾個銅子兒一個！我真不明白，為什麼窮小子單要充「文明」，這是哪一股兒毒氣呢？早晨，他起得早，總得也把小媳婦叫起來，其實有什麼事呢？他要立這個規矩，窮酸！她稍微晚起來一點，聽吧，

這一頓揍！（老舍，2019，頁 292—293）

譯文：“With him it was a case of trying to show people that he was the father-in-law. Mother’s-, how many coppers is a father-in-law worth, let me ask you?” (Wang, 1944, p. 70)。

〈一個真正的中國人〉是茅盾 1937 年的作品，該短篇小說是典型的「橫截面」寫法，以老爺和太太的一天生活片段，揭露老爺「每一根神經纖維都貢獻給民族」（茅盾，1994，頁 325）的虛偽資本家面貌。原文在老爺和太太日常的對話間穿插大段敘述者的直接、主觀的解說，而在譯文中王際真則將這些解說刪除，傾向於以人物自身的語言客觀展示塑造人物的性格和品行。

原文：

「何苦呢！國家大事——」太太連忙笑了一笑，把下半句話縮住，她險些兒忘記了丈夫是每一根神經纖維都貢獻給民族的。

幸而老爺臉上沒有表情。然而眼光是定定的，足見憂慮之深而且遠。太太也忘記了照例的規矩，親自把牛奶杯和福建漆盤移到窗前一張空桌子上，並且惘然站在梳粧檯前，朝鏡子裡的自己打量了一眼。

「咳！原來昨晚上的謠傳應了驗！」老爺自言自語起來。「什麼和平解決，他媽的！」（茅盾，1994，頁 324）

譯文：

“Why distress yourself like this? After all it’s the Government’s-” But Taitai did not finish as she remembered just in time that her husband had now dedicated his services to the Nation. “So the rumor I heard last night was true!” Lao-yeh murmured to himself. “All this nonsense about solution by peaceful means! Their mothers’-” (Wang, 1944, p. 160)

現代小說的創作傾向和理論主張都強調展示的意義（李建軍，2019，頁 154）。「展示」是現代小說使用的主要敘述方式，被視為是藝術的，而「講述」作為傳統小說使用的主要敘述方式則是非藝術的。盧伯克（Percy Lubbock）指出：「小說家只有將其故事作為展示的事物，小說如此展示以至

於能自我講述，小說的藝術才真正開始」（Lubbock, 1972, p. 62）。

五四時期小說家們受「橫截面」的短篇小說創作理論影響，注重以「展示」的方式寫小說。而「說書人那樣的〔講述〕故事，更是作為舊小說的敘述方式被絕大多數小說家忽視甚至摒棄」（李麗，2013，頁 87）。顯然，王際真認為〈柳家大院〉中敘述者的義憤宣洩，或〈一個真正的中國人〉中敘述者的參與現實認知的觀察，是屬於傳統小說遺留的缺點而對其進行壓縮刪除。但實際上夾雜說書人調子的敘事方式表明了 30 年代小說作家對小說表現手法和表現空間的重新探索，小說家「重新認識到了故事的價值，〔講述〕這屬於傳統小說敘述方式的一脈，便在 30 年代以後得到了承續和發展」（李麗，2013，頁 91）。而老舍在小說中以說書人的口吻敘事，「不但沒有成為羈絆他短篇小說藝術成就的負累，反而變作他攀上藝術高峰的標杆」（李麗，2013，頁 87）。

二、小說結構的調整

小說結構是指作家創作時的結構意識，著眼於情節、性格、背景三要素，王際真對多數入選小說的結構做了調整，主要表現為情節的去旁枝或次要人物的弱化。

在沈從文的〈夜〉中，「我」和四個士兵投宿老者家裡後，大家圍火而坐逐一說故事消磨時間，老者只是靜靜聽著卻不說故事，在「我」的催促下，老者單獨帶「我」入房間，而「這裡床上分分明明的是躺著一個死婦人」（沈從文，2017，頁 131）。小說中的士兵平時看多殺人場面，而老者在深刻苦難中表現出的端莊與冷靜，刻劃了小說想表達的關於生命的價值與尊嚴的主題。但為了把幾個不同的故事串在一起，其「故事結構相當鬆懈，也是沈從文小說中較弱的一個」（夏志清，1961／2005，頁 145）。小說採用了故事與故事的鑲嵌結構，而鑲嵌結構突破事件中心、人物的中心等結構形式，「使小說的故事情節趨向淡化，從而使以故事情節緊密結合的小說機體，處於鬆散狀態」（韓立群，2019，頁 232）。為加強情節的嚴密性，王際真只保留

了一個眾人圍火夜談的嵌套故事，將其他三個士兵的故事概述為：“The stories of the other two soldiers and the corporal were neither exciting in themselves nor well told”（Wang, 1944, pp. 105-106），去除與小說主旨關係不甚密切的敘述。

〈春蠶〉描繪了主角老通寶一家為蠶事豐收耗盡心力，結果卻因豐收而欠債的故事。茅盾的短篇小說創作旨在反映整個社會的風貌及人事變遷，因此往往篇幅較長。〈春蠶〉的結構打破了短篇小說的形式，記載了一個相當完整的生產勞動過程，其結構是開放、可以不斷延續下去（陳思和，2000，頁9）。茅盾也提到自己創作理念帶來的難題：「我覺得所有自己熟悉的題材都是恰配做長篇，無從剪短似的。雖然知道短篇小說的做法和長篇不同，短篇小說應該是橫截面的寫法」（茅盾，1980，頁8—9）。

為突出短篇小說的中心人物塑造，克服小說「主題的模糊」（夏志清，1961／2005，頁115），王際真將原文中塑造樂觀少憂、接受新思想洗禮的小兒子阿多的相關情節刪除，譯文聚焦在老通寶身上「中國農民敬天畏神、勤奮堅毅的精神」（夏志清，1961／2005，頁114）。

王際真對小說結構的調整還出現在老舍的〈眼鏡〉、馮文炳的〈阿妹〉、楊振聲的〈玉君〉、茅盾〈一個真正的中國人〉等作品中。王際真這類的處理方式被稱為「園丁式」的修剪翻譯（管興忠，2015，頁63），體現了譯者以西方詩學觀為導向的翻譯策略。但這樣的翻譯卻是以犧牲原作充分性為代價的。如對於沈從文〈夜〉在小說結構上呈現的缺點，沈從文（2006）自己解釋道：

照一般說法短篇小說的必須條件所謂〔事物中心〕，〔人物的中心〕〔提高〕或〔抗緊〕我完全沒有顧到。也像有意這樣做……是因為我願意在章法外接受失敗，不想在章法內得到成功。（頁29）

因此在王際真看來，作為短篇小說的缺陷實為作者的個人特色。〈夜〉譯文中王際真刪除的其他士兵的嵌套故事，看似與主要情節無甚關聯，但士兵們講述的離奇驚險的故事，與開篇敘述者講述的湖南鎮上「看殺人」、「殺人」、「割心肝」、「吃心肝」、「吃婦人舌頭」等意象共同營造出鄉土的

蒙昧離奇，而正是在這樣的野蠻荒謬中，作者在結尾展現出老人所代表的「人類真理高貴的一面」（夏志清，1961／2005，頁 145）才更為深刻，表現出沈從文對 30 年代主流的城鄉二元對立的「現代性」的懷疑。

三、作家個人技巧的修正

王際真在選集的附錄中對入選作家做了較詳細的注釋，包括作者生平、代表作的介紹及其文學風格的評價（Wang, 1944, pp. 237-242）。王際真在這些評價中依據西方小說的標準指出作家的技巧弱點，同時在翻譯中針對作家的技巧缺陷對譯文進行專項「修正」。

例如王際真認為張天翼在人物刻劃上「不斷重複與主題發展無甚關聯卻令人厭惡的細節」，「喜歡在不同作品甚至同一作品中重複使用某些形式」，「沉溺於過度荒唐的誇張」，「因此讀起來令人膩煩」（Wang, 1944, p. 237）。針對張天翼的公式化寫作問題及令人不快的主題，王際真指出自己在目錄編排上特意將張天翼的四篇小說分成了兩組，中間穿插了其他作品，以避免讀者的審美疲勞（Wang, 1944, p. 237）。其次，張天翼筆下恣意張揚的汙言穢物等「令人厭惡的細節」也在王際真筆下得到弱化或刪除。如〈團圓〉原文中人物大根動輒就罵「操你妹子的哥哥」出現了 16 次，譯文中保留了八處，其中兩處用“exchange/mutter another curse”替代。文中引起讀者不快反應的穢物，如原文十多處關於大根的鼻涕描述，譯文只保留了三次，原文對席子上的臭蟲、牆上的臭蟲、撚臭蟲等描述在譯文中悉數刪除。此外，王際真也盡力緩和他所認為的荒唐誇張。如〈老明的故事〉是張天翼發表於 1934 年的作品，故事的立意及諷刺性較強，但故事結尾文副官審問「土匪頭子」刁金生的對話描述，卻與故事開頭原本緊湊的寫實相去甚遠。刁金生與審訊中於文副官的對話近乎荒謬，如：「我們就燒個火鍋子——吃刷人肉，割一塊吃一塊。我們吃飽了還沒死哩」，「那副骷髏骨頭還伸著個胳膊打呵欠哩」（張天翼，1985，頁 18—19）等。為保持小說寫實風格的統一，此類的誇張在譯文中或刪減或得到明顯的緩和。

王際真對張天翼的評價及譯文的修改，體現出譯者的文學判斷。但這樣的修訂同時亦透露出王際真對原作者創作特色的漠視，如王際真言及的〈老明的故事〉中反復打斷故事講述的牙籤，〈笑〉中強三無休止的打嗝等對「不斷重複、令人噁心卻對主題無甚關係的細節」（Wang, 1944, p. 237）雖然不屬於敘述或情節的需要，但這些動作本身蘊含了情緒色彩，是作家塑造人物性格強烈性和豐富性的需要。

肆、《中國現代小說選》塑造的民族與文學形象

二十世紀中國文學的歷史進程中，「小說是步伐最穩健、成就最大的藝術形式」，中國小說在短短幾十年內完成了從古代小說到現代小說的轉型（陳平原，2003，頁1）。小說在藝術形式上的轉變不僅象徵文學傳統的嬗變，也是民族的社會意識、生活形態在文學領域的反映。《中國現代小說選》收錄的小說富於寫實，多以諷刺藝術刻劃社會黑暗現實，同時譯者以西方小說的技法與格調為參照對小說進行重寫，呈現出中國小說在文學精神與方法上的現代形象。而翻譯選集作為一種「類似原創的創作性行為」（Pym, 1995, p. 252），不僅是「建構異國文學形象」的有效手段（何敏，2021，頁143），也是選編者借助文學來構建民族與國家形象的重要手段。翻譯選集的形成是選集編撰者權衡「希望呈現的源語文學形象」、「希望透過文學呈現的國家形象」的結果（Lefevere, 1995, p. 40）。

一方面，選集透過收錄的中國現代化的文學，旨在塑造不遺餘力追求變革、進步的民族形象。西方在二戰後關心的一個重要問題即「中國在戰後將扮演什麼角色」，「中國會與現代社會格格不入嗎」（Buck, 1946, p. 397）。王際真敏銳地指出，民族之間的互相尊重和理解沒有快捷方式，文學作為「最豐富、最富有揭示性、最難以磨滅的民族遺產之一」，是「真正瞭解一個民族的最好方式之一」（Wang, 1941, p. vii）。文學是一個民族思想和情感的積累，是其生活方式的精髓。王際真在選集的序言中將中國小說的革新與民族

的覺醒聯繫起來，王際真指出儘管這些展現中國黑暗的作品會讓人尷尬，但消除黑暗的唯一方法是點亮「真理的探照燈」，而「這些中國最有影響力的作家所呈現的作品」就是「探照燈的電池」，「沒有其他任何東西比這個更能讓我們相信中國的未來」（Wang, 1944, p. vii）。與小說中呈現的人物及社會黑暗現象正相反，新文學的批判揭露精神折射的是彼時中華民族在時代更迭中的覺醒與進步。正如《紐約時報》書評家指出：「這些小說以不妥協的堅定與嚴峻去描述殘酷現實……展示了中國年輕作家以西方科學、教育、政治公平及自由的標準看待自己國家」（Prescott, 1944, A13）。選集展現了中國現代作家對人格獨立、人的尊嚴等觀念的追求，讀者在該選集中讀到平等、自由等西方現代性話語，讀到中國與現代世界的接軌。該選集不僅旨在表彰文學精華、展現文學技法，也意在傳遞民族現代精神並塑造與作家現代意識相適應的現代民族形象。

另一方面，王際真成長於國家內憂外患之時，深切感受民族的苦難，對五四新文學中深切的家國情懷與悲憫的人道主義有強烈認同，這也使他高度肯定「感時憂國」的五四小說傳統及現實主義文學。但小說以呈現「中國的另一面」，以反映中國社會的問題為選材標準，使得整個選集展現出單一的現實主義風格，無法全面呈現中國現代小說 20 年間的文學圖景和發展歷程。事實上，在王際真選編的 40 年代，頗為活躍的「新感覺派」作家已寫出了許多極具藝術性且深受讀者喜愛的作品。卡梅隆指出：「這些小說是直白的〔宣傳〕……如果說克制是衡量偉大藝術的一個主要標準，那麼，選集中的許多故事可能都不過關」（Cameron, 1944, p. 385）。拉利也指出：「革命文學很難成為美的文學，不管如何定義〔美〕的內涵，現代小說中只有一兩篇能算得上〔美〕文」（Lalley, 1944, A08）。而《中國現代小說選》從出版以來便作為美國學生學習中國現代文學的重要讀物，如 1947 年的 Colby Junior College 英語系將該書列為其英語課程了解中國的重要小說，認為「該書是對新中國的直白的表述，價值重大」（Falk, 1947, p. 198）。換言之，王際真的編選原則也固化了中國現代小說只具備社會檔案價值，就文學藝術而言只是

西方單向影響中國文學的產物，是 19 世紀和 20 世紀西方模式的仿製品這個刻板化印象。

同時，王際真親歷五四運動，經歷西潮與中國傳統文化的碰撞，其文學思想和立場深受五四時期的主流思潮影響，而赴美後的離散經歷也深化了他「以西視中」的藝術審美視角。「西方優於中國，現代優於傳統」的文學演變觀，以及以西方文學為標準的比較文學視野在王際真的文學評論中隨處可見。王際真指出，中國傳統文學自古以來不是作為自我存在的藝術，而是關注政權階級或社會生活的範本藝術（Wang, 1946）。而中國現代文學的產生、中國甚至對文學本質的理解則來自於西方文學的影響。中國「將文學視為藝術，及藝術這一觀念，都是來源於外」（Wang, 1934, p. 138），「中國現代文學，是中國傳統文明與時代相協調、接納主流文明元素的結果」（Wang, 1934, p. 137）。若沒有西方文學的影響，中國文學的精神和內容將會停滯迂迴，而西方文學的精神和技巧是中國文學不斷進步的關鍵。「中國新文學像俄國 19 世紀文學震驚世界之前，中國必須學習西方作品中的精神和技巧」（Wang, 1946, p. 396）。這種新舊文學對立觀之下，王際真認為中國文學很大程度上處於一種自足、封閉的狀態，貴族古典文學是「呆板僵死」的（Wang, 1946, p. 395），而西方文學的潮流使得中國文學進步並融入世界主流文學，認為「新文學與傳統文學相比，猶如汽車之於手推車」（Wang, 1946, p. 396）。這一文學史觀反映在《中國現代小說選》的編選與翻譯中，就表現為王際真以傳統文學和西方文學為重要的參照，對中國現代小說進行現代性自我確認。例如，選集將張天翼排在第一位，最主要的原因是王際真所重視的張天翼小說結構和語言，相對傳統小說而言是巨大進步。王際真認為魯迅的批判精神全是源於西方文學：「正是西方文學中的反抗精神鼓勵其公開言說自己的抗爭，正是西方的現實主義及心理分析小說使其深刻認識小說可以用於社會批判與改革」（Wang, 1941, p. viii）。王際真對矛盾的評價也是以西方文學技巧的熟練為標準，認為矛盾「熱切學習西方文學，熟悉其方法和技巧，但不幸的是只使用一些平淡無奇的手法如倒敘和糟糕的預設等」（Wang, 1944, p.

241)。因此，西方文學是王際真文學認同中的重要「他者」，只有借鑑和吸收西方文學技巧，中國的文學才能逐步取得與世界文學同樣的成就，其文學觀多少呈現為一個自我殖民的規劃，《中國現代小說選》呈現的是編者以西方作為確定中國現代文學意義的終極權威。

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University Students' Perceived Benefits and Difficulties Related to Corpus-Assisted Translation

Shih-Ping Cheng

Studies have demonstrated that corpora can assist translation teaching and learning in numerous ways; however, students' use of corpus-assisted translation is rarely discussed in the literature. The present study investigated students' perceived benefits and difficulties when a student-centered, corpus-assisted translation approach was employed. A case study involving 29 Taiwanese university students was conducted to investigate how the students responded to the curriculum. The corpora employed in the curriculum were the Sinorama Bilingual Corpus and British National Corpus, and the corpus tools that were employed were TotalRecall and Tango. Questionnaires, student group interviews, student online feedback, pre-tests and post-tests, and query log analysis were employed to verify the results. The results indicate that intermediate-level students preferred TotalRecall over Tango because they relied on the Chinese translations of the bilingual corpus to comprehend the query results. In addition, the results indicate that lower-level students had major problems with grammar and that all students had difficulty with synthesizing the query results. The findings indicate that students can benefit from corpus-assisted translation with respect to their accuracy, word choice (vocabulary use and collocation), grammar, and spelling when they complete a translation cloze test. Corpus tools can enable them to develop the abilities to independently identify solutions to translation problems and to construct knowledge while translating. The majority of the students reported positive perceptions toward the corpus-assisted translation. The findings provide evidence that the student-centered, corpus-assisted translation approach enabled the students to acquire the ability to independently identify solutions to translation problems.

Keywords: corpus-assisted translation, bilingual concordancer, constructivism, translator training

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探究大學生使用語料庫輔助翻譯時得到的幫助 及面臨之困難

鄭詩萍

語料庫應用於翻譯的教與學在許多研究中皆證實有多面向的幫助，然而，少有研究探討學生如何使用語料庫輔助其翻譯。因此，本研究旨在探討於課堂中實施以學生為中心之語料庫輔助翻譯教學法時，學生所認知到的幫助和困難分別為何？研究對象為 29 名臺灣大學生，並採用個案研究法。選用以英國國家語料庫（British National Corpus）所建置的 Tango 單語語料庫，及光華雜誌內容所建置的 TotalRecall 雙語語料庫，研究工具為問卷、團體訪談、線上回饋、前後測，以及語料庫查詢紀錄分析。研究結果顯示，中等英文程度的學生偏好 TotalRecall 雙語語料庫，勝過 Tango 單語語料庫，因學生依賴雙語語料庫中的中文例句翻譯來理解查詢結果。研究結果亦證實，程度較低的學生在歸納語料庫例句的文法時，仍然面臨較大的問題。研究分析結果顯示，學生在使用語料庫輔助他們完成克漏字翻譯任務時，在翻譯的正確率、用字選詞（字彙／搭配詞）、文法、拼字等面向皆受益於語料庫所提供的相關資訊。語料庫工具也能夠幫助他們培養獨立解決翻譯問題的能力，並建構翻譯知識，並且大部分的學生對於語料庫輔助翻譯抱持正面的態度。研究結果證實，以學生為中心的語料庫輔助翻譯教學法，在不同程度上，可以幫助學生透過查詢語料庫，建立他們獨立解決翻譯問題的能力。

關鍵詞：語料庫輔助翻譯、雙語索引典、建構主義、譯者訓練

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Introduction

English is neither a home language nor a second language in Taiwan; the majority of learners often have confusions in language usage and collocation combinations when they use spoken or written English. Most of the Applied English Departments in Taiwanese universities offer compulsory or elective translation courses. Translating into students' native language is always easier than translating into a foreign language, i.e., English in this study. Therefore, the problem of misuse in vocabulary and collocation gets even worse in translation classes where the students are required to translate from Chinese into English.

Since a traditional grammar translation approach is commonly adopted by many translation teachers, the researcher hopes to introduce a corpus-assisted translation approach as an innovative approach to teaching translation. Using corpora as an aid to translation has been widely discussed by several scholars in the Western world. Possamai (2009) states that the use of corpora has shed light on the field of translation over the past decade, and computer software has made analysis of the corpus data possible. Corpora, therefore, have been utilized in various translation-related fields. Numerous research and teaching experiments have been conducted to prove the usefulness of corpus as an important resource in translation production and translator training. Scholars believe that corpus and bilingual concordancers are useful resources in teaching and learning translation (Bowker, 1998; Gao, 2011; Kenning, 2010; Possamai, 2009; Rodríguez-Inés, 2009, 2010; Tseng, 2009; Wang, 2011; Xiao & Yue, 2009; Zanettin, 1998, 2002).

The literature offers much evidence about the value of corpus-assisted approaches to translation but few studies have been conducted into the use of a student-centred corpus-assisted translation approach. There are also few studies on the use of the approach with students. Therefore, the researcher is interested to investigate how

the approach will work with Taiwanese university students of intermediate English level, and how the students use corpus tools to learn translation. This research aims to find out the following two perspectives regarding the implementation of the approach: the benefits students receive when using corpora to assist them to translate, and the difficulties they come across in which process.

Using Corpora in Language Learning

The development of the student-centred corpus-assisted translation approach can be traced back to the rise of using corpora in language learning. Because of the developments in technology and computers, it has become possible to have simple access to large language databases containing hundreds of millions of words, and electronic corpora allow computer software to analyze the data (Baker, 1995; O’Keeffe et al., 2007). With the rise of using corpora in language learning, the value of corpora has been widely discussed in relevant studies (Kenning, 2010; Possamai, 2009; Xiao & Yue, 2009; Zanettin, 2001). Reppen and Simpson (2002) stated that one of the most significant contributions of corpus linguistics is that it reveals the patterns of language use in various settings, and supplies a powerful instrument in analyzing authentic language.

Corpora have gradually become accepted and are used in language teaching and learning. Using the data contained in a corpus as an aid in language learning has been described as “data-driven learning” (DDL). Boulton (2011) stated that Tim Johns was the first person that suggested the idea of “data-driven learning” more than 20 years earlier. The DDL methods has improved language teaching and learning in terms of changing the roles of teachers in classrooms, namely from active instructor to passive facilitators to the students (Chambers, 2010). With the implementation of DDL, language learning has become more innovative and interesting because it contains a component of discovery (Gilquin & Granger, 2010).

Corpus-Assisted Translation

More than a decade ago, corpora were introduced to assist translation production and translator training. Rodríguez-Inés (2010) defines a parallel corpus as one which contains the original language texts of one designated language and their translated target language texts in one or more other languages, which have been aligned with each other. Baker (1995) asserted that parallel corpora have made the most significant contribution in Translation Studies by supporting the shift of focus from prescriptive to descriptive translation studies. Baker also contends that parallel corpora allow an evidence-based model to be established to help novice translators by demonstrating how translation problems are solved in actual practice. Corpora, therefore, have been utilized in various translation-related studies.

Researchers incorporated corpus to facilitate translation learners fulfil translation tasks. Kenning's (2010) study found that translators use comparable and parallel corpora to solve the problems they encounter in translation by searching for knowledge and ideas in them, and they have been used as a major tool for training translators in many current programs. Corpora have become an important resource of great value to translators and translator training. Xiao and Yue (2009) note that the significance of corpora, corpus linguistic skills and applications have been proved by a growing number of research papers showing that they are helpful to translation assessment, translator training and facilitating the generation of translation texts.

Using Corpus in Teaching and Learning Translation

Scholars contend that corpora can increase the language awareness of translation trainees and are useful to learning translation in many different ways (Gao, 2011; Gilquin & Granger, 2010; Tseng, 2009; Wang, 2011; Zanettin, 2001). Wang (2011) argues that the utilization of corpus can improve the language

awareness of translation trainees because of the excessive amount of authentic language data stored. Zanettin (2001) conducted an experiment with college students in translating newspaper article from Italian, students' mother tongue, to English with help from a comparable corpus of English and Italian, and a concordancer. Zanettin found that trainees' understanding of languages and relevant cultures can be increased when they apply comparable corpora and concordancer in translation activities.

The results from research experiments by Gao (2011) and Tseng (2009) correspond with Zanettin's (2001) findings. Gao (2011) undertook a pilot study with 21 subjects of upper-intermediate English level in investigating the effectiveness and use of CERT parallel Chinese-English Concordancer in completing a translation task from Chinese into English. Results of the experiment revealed that students made significant improvements in the post-test, and were positive towards the effectiveness of using bilingual concordancer to help them learn translation. In Tseng's (2009) study, he investigated the usefulness of the Sinorama Bilingual Corpus and the TotalRecall bilingual concordancer to the learning of Chinese-English translation for 42 high school students. Results showed that students found TotalRecall to be effective in helping them improve their collocation and vocabulary in the given translation post-test; however, they received limited help in the aspects of syntax and grammar.

In addition, scholars argue that corpora are better translation aids than dictionaries because they provide authentic language reference that dictionaries often do not contain, and help translators solve translation problems and confirm hypotheses (Kenning, 2010; Possamai, 2009; Rodríguez-Inés, 2009, 2010; Zanettin, 1998, 2002).

Rodríguez-Inés (2009) devised a student-centred task-based approach to help the students with their development of strategies in a translation course. Zanettin

(2002) and Kenning (2010) both affirmed the values of parallel corpus in assisting students solve translation problems in providing answers and evidences to their translation questions. Possamai (2009) stated that parallel corpus can also help students check their hypotheses of terms when translating.

To sum up, the application of corpora in translation classrooms have improved the way translation teachers teach and translation students are trained (Gao, 2011; Rodríguez-Inés, 2009, 2010; Zanettin, 2001). Several scholars have conducted teaching experiments to prove the value of corpora as an important resource in assisting translators and translation trainees to produce translation of better quality in various ways (Bowker, 1998; Gao, 2011; Rodríguez-Inés, 2010; Tseng, 2009; Zanettin, 1998). Bowker (1998) conducted a pilot research with her translation trainees in comparing the translations produced from using conventional tools and a specialized monolingual corpus, and found that translations produced with aids from the corpus demonstrated better performance in professional knowledge, term choice and idiomatic expressions.

Constructivism

Constructivism suggests that knowledge is constructed by learners, and it can also be influenced by the context to which the learners belong (Lichtman, 2013). “Constructivism is a philosophical view on how we come to understand or know” (Savery & Duffy, 1996, p. 135). Constructivism is a theory of learning which claims to help students to become more independent, confident, and autonomous. Three relevant aspects of constructivism include zone of proximal development (ZPD), scaffolding, and problem-based learning (PBL).

Vygotsky's (1978) theory of ZPD contends that learners need people and artefacts to help them achieve their goals as they progress and learn more. Berk and Winsler (1995) explained that the ZPD is the hypothetical zone where dynamic

activities take place in one's learning (p. 171). Lantolf (2000) argued that mediation is the core concept of the ZPD theory since learners are mediated by their teachers and fellow learners when making progress. The ZPD theory explains how learning happens and how mediation can help "novices" to become "experts." Therefore, Vygotsky's theory of ZPD can be applied in justification of the student-centred corpus-assisted translation approach. Through peer sharing, teacher demonstration and enquiring examples in the corpus, learners construct their knowledge of translation skills and metacognitive strategies for making use of corpus tools to assist them translate.

Liou et al. (2006) state that corpus tools are better than dictionaries. The comparisons between dictionaries and concordancers are listed in Table 1.

Table 1

Comparison Between a Bilingual Dictionary and Bilingual Concordancer

Tool	Bilingual Dictionary	Bilingual Concordancer
Search Unit	Keyword search	Keyword or phrase search
Display Results	Displays results bilingually	Displays results of bilingual alignment with keyword highlighted
Number of Examples	Provides limited example sentences in limited contexts	Provides numerous examples in various contexts
Rank Results	No ranking available	Ranks the results of queries by frequency
Highlights	No highlight available	The translation counterpart of the query is highlighted, and citations with the same translation counterpart are shown in clusters

Note. Adapted from "Corpora processing and computational scaffolding for a web-based English learning environment: The CANDLE Project," by H. C. Liou, J. S. Chang, H. J. Chen, C. C. Lin, M. L. Liaw, Z. M. Gao, J. S. R. Jang, Y. Yeh, T. C. Chuang, & G. N. You, 2006, *CALICO Journal*, 24(1), pp. 80-81. Copyright 2006 by Computer Assisted Language Instruction Consortium.

Besides bilingual concordancer, a collocation concordancer such as Tango also provides useful information of language reference to learners when they are translating from Chinese to English. Liou et al. (2006) argue that “Using Tango, learners can discover idioms, phrasal verbs, compounds, fixed phrases, and grammatical patterns fully supported with evidence from authentic texts” (p. 81). It can be observed that corpora are better translation aids than dictionaries because they provide authentic language reference that dictionaries often do not contain, and help translators solve translation problems and confirm hypotheses (Kenning, 2010; Possamai, 2009; Rodríguez-Inés, 2009, 2010; Zanettin, 1998, 2002). Therefore, it can be asserted that corpus tools provide better reference than dictionaries for translation learners.

Besides TotalRecall and Tango, Linguee (<https://cn.linguee.com/>) is another emerging bilingual corpus that provides bilingual definitions of the searched keywords and their bilingual example sentences, the service covers 24 language pairs. Linguee provides definitions and sample sentence translation pairs of English and 24 other languages, including Chinese, German, French, Spanish, Russian, Japanese, Portuguese, Italian, Dutch, Swedish, etc. However, the Chinese translations provided in Linguee is in Simplified Chinese, which does not meet the needs of the current study. That is the reason why it is not chosen as the bilingual corpus tool for the experiment.

In corpus-assisted translation classrooms, students are trained to solve translation problems by enquiring corpus tools. Corpus-assisted translation turns the translation questions into a problem-solving process—A series of corpus enquiry procedures. Therefore, using corpus tools as a scaffold for translation learners is a useful way to help them overcome their difficulties.

De Grave et al. (1999) interpret the role of an instructor in PBL as being to scaffold the learning of the students. It is the responsibility of the teacher to ensure

that the students are familiar with the metacognitive strategies necessary for using corpus tools to solve translation problems, namely the problem-solving process. Therefore, the importance of problem-solving approach becomes evident in corpus-assisted translation classrooms.

To summarize, corpora play a significant role in translator training. The value of using corpora in translation classrooms is well supported by research findings in the existing literature. Within a constructivist theory of learning, corpus tools are of great value to translation learners because they act as scaffold in the learning process. The student-centred corpus-assisted translation approach helps students to construct their translation skills, corpus enquiry strategies, and abilities in solving translation problems independently.

Research Questions

In order to investigate translation students' use of the two corpus tools, the research questions addressed in this study are as follows:

1. What are the difficulties and problems students encounter when using corpus tools to assist them in undertaking lexical translation tasks?
2. What are the benefits the students receive through using corpus tools to assist them in undertaking lexical translation tasks?

Methodology

In order to answer these research questions, the appropriate research strategy adopted was empirical enquiry (Williams & Chesterman, 2011). A case study was carried out of the student-centred corpus-assisted translation approach, using mixed methods. Both quantitative and qualitative research methods are adopted to generate the data, and triangulate the results in order to present the multiple aspects of the research.

The research design of the study was a one-group pre-test post-test experiment. Five instruments were chosen to collect data, including questionnaires, student group interviews, students' online feedback, pre-test and post-test, and query log analysis.

Midterm and final questionnaires were administered to find out students' attitudes towards learning translation. In order to probe deeply into how students think of using corpus tools to learn translation, student group interviews were conducted at the end of the semester. For the students' online feedback, the participants were asked to express feedback towards the translation course throughout the semester.

In addition, a pre-test and a post-test were conducted at the beginning and end of the semester to evaluate the usefulness of corpus tools to the students' translation performance. In the post-test, the students' query logs were automatically recorded on the AWETS (Automatic Web-Based English Testing System) website (<http://140.112.185.57/~kein/login.php>), a private website designed by Dr. Z. M. Gao. It records the keywords and tool students selected for each search. The purpose was to analyze the students' query strategies.

The Chosen Corpus Tools for this Research

TotalRecall bilingual concordancer and Tango collocation concordancer were selected as the corpus tools to aid student participants in learning translation. These tools were developed by Liou, H. C., Chang, J., Yeh, Y., Liaw, M., Lin, C., Chen, H., You, G., Chuang, C., and Gao, Z. under the CANDLE (Corpora And NLP for Digital Learning of English) Project in 2003 (http://candle.fl.nthu.edu.tw/newcandle/Home_E.asp) (Liou et al., 2003).

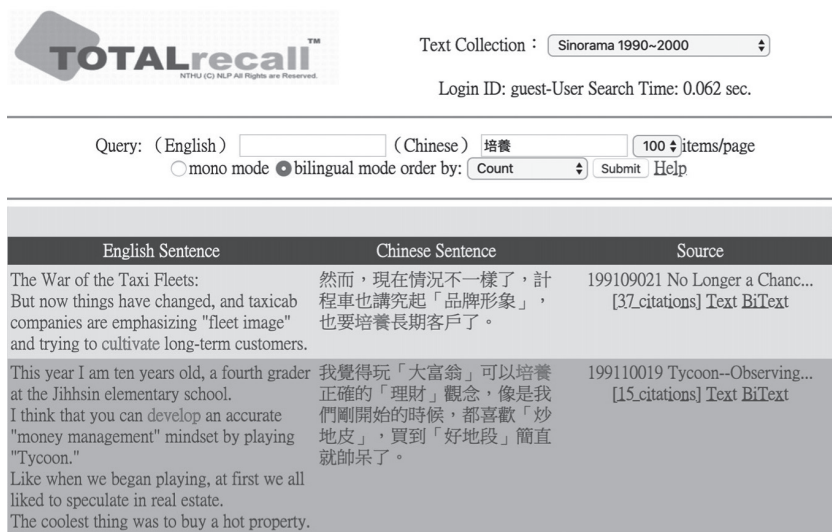
TotalRecall

TotalRecall is a bilingual concordancer that contains Chinese and English bilingual corpora—Sinorama corpus and the meeting records of Hong Kong Legislative

Council. There are 7.95 million Chinese characters and 5.63 million English words in the Sinorama Bilingual Corpus. For the bilingual corpus of the meeting records of Hong Kong Legislative Council, there are 18.15 million Chinese characters and 11.9 million English words. The Sinorama magazine articles encompasses topics of economics, society, environmental issues, art, culture, and education about Taiwan. The strength of TotalRecall is that it is very easy to operate because the users can simply type any Chinese or English keyword regardless of the length or number of characters with the click of a button “submit.” Example of query is shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1

Query Snapshot of TotalRecall Bilingual Concordancer With the Example of Peiyang 培養 (Develop)



The screenshot shows the TotalRecall web interface. At the top, the logo 'TOTALrecall' is displayed with the text 'NTHU (C) NLP All Rights are Reserved.' below it. To the right, 'Text Collection : Sinorama 1990~2000' is shown in a dropdown menu. Below this, 'Login ID: guest-User Search Time: 0.062 sec.' is displayed. The main search area has a 'Query: (English) [] (Chinese) 培養' with a '100 items/page' dropdown. Below the query, there are radio buttons for 'mono mode' and 'bilingual mode' (selected), and a dropdown for 'order by: Count'. There are 'Submit' and 'Help' buttons. The results are shown in a table with three columns: 'English Sentence', 'Chinese Sentence', and 'Source'.

English Sentence	Chinese Sentence	Source
The War of the Taxi Fleets: But now things have changed, and taxicab companies are emphasizing "fleet image" and trying to cultivate long-term customers.	然而，現在情況不一樣了，計程車也講究起「品牌形象」，也要培養長期客戶了。	199109021 No Longer a Chanc... [37_citations] Text BiText
This year I am ten years old, a fourth grader at the Jihhsin elementary school. I think that you can develop an accurate "money management" mindset by playing "Tycoon." Like when we began playing, at first we all liked to speculate in real estate. The coolest thing was to buy a hot property.	我覺得玩「大富翁」可以培養正確的「理財」觀念，像是我們剛開始的時候，都喜歡「炒地皮」，買到「好地段」簡直就帥呆了。	199110019 Tycoon--Observing... [15_citations] Text BiText

Note. From <http://candle.cs.nthu.edu.tw/totalrecall/totalrecall/totalrecall.aspx?funcID=1>


Tango

Tango is a monolingual collocation concordancer that provides access to collocation combinations. The corpus that is selected for the present research is BNC, which contains 100 million words and covers newspapers, magazine articles, novels, and so

on from Great Britain. The collocation types available include VN, VPN, VNP, and AN. Search keywords are highlighted in the results with their collocation combination words, frequencies, and example sentences. They provide valuable reference information of the best collocation choice for the query keyword to the users. Information of syntax, grammar and usage of the collocation combinations are shown in the example sentences of the search results. Example of query is shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2

Query Snapshot of Tango Collocation Concordancer With the Example of “Develop” and Collocation Type. VNP (Verb + Noun + Preposition)



Department of Computer Science
National Tsing Hua University
Natural Language Processing Lab.

Text collection: British National Corpus

Search word: (E) develop
 (C) 此語料庫無中文對應

☒ Verb
 ☐ Noun
 ☐ Adjective

sort: count

collocation types: VN VNP VPN AN

1. ~ understanding of	2. ~ range of	3. ~ way of	4. ~ sense of	5. ~ relationship with
6. ~ skill in	7. ~ theory of	8. ~ interest in	9. ~ method of	10. ~ strategy for
11. ~ approach to	12. ~ form of	13. ~ system for	14. ~ link with	15. ~ model of
16. ~ number of	17. ~ version of	18. ~ awareness of	19. ~ technique for	20. ~ concept of
21. ~ set of	22. ~ style of	23. ~ habit of	24. ~ taste for	25. ~ kind of
26. ~ expertise in	27. ~ series of	28. ~ relation with	29. ~ side of	30. ~ type of
31. ~ country in	32. ~ knowledge of	33. ~ method for	34. ~ software for	35. ~ passion for
36. ~ application for	37. ~ critique of	38. ~ level of	39. ~ model for	40. ~ one of
41. ~ plan for	42. ~ sort of	43. ~ ability to	44. ~ mean of	45. ~ procedure for

12345678910...
Search word: develop
目前搜尋總筆數: 335

1. develop understanding of (63)
 It is to be hoped that pupils will acquire a sensitivity towards those who have differing beliefs and develop an understanding of those beliefs , while at the same time becoming more aware of their own value and place within society .

2. develop range of (58)
 And sap are actively developing a further range of consumer products , soon to be tested .

3. develop way of (57)
 I'm all in favour of early retirement , but actually acknowledging then , the people who retire , have that contribution , and I think we ought to be developing a way of our society to ensure that they're able to live reasonably comfortably , and so that the pension should actually be a living wage , to enable them to be free , to make those sort of contributions .

4. develop sense of (54)
 Well if we're continually in contact with people as growing children who do 't allow us to express our feelings , or who behave in a way that would seem to deny that those feelings of hate and rage and love in their extremes exist at all , then obviously one does 't develop a sense of trust in what one perceives from oneself , and that erm on erm an accumulative basis is going to result in a person who does 't feel terribly confident about the feelings and their awareness that they have .

5. develop relationship with (48)
 You know you do 't need to tell us and in fact what you should be doing is in fact trying to develop relationships with your local papers and we actually have a very good relationships in Cambridge with our local council whereby it 's not just a matter of , of contacting people during office hours .

Note. From <http://candle.fl.nthu.edu.tw/collocation/>

Both TotalRecall and Tango have their strengths and limitations. It is therefore important to make the best use of both corpus tools by capitalizing on their strengths and using them complementarily.

Participants

This research is based on 29 students who majored in English in the Foreign Language Department of a private university in Northern Taiwan. The research participants are full-time students who elected the translation module taught by the researcher, Corpus-assisted Translation, as part of their program requirements. They were invited to participate in this research voluntarily. The majority of the student participants were third-year students. The English proficiency level of the student participants could be observed and classified according to the English scores they received on the College Entrance Examination, which ranged from seven to 11 based on a scale from one to 15. Therefore, the participants' competency is classified as intermediate level.

Procedure

The purpose of adopting the student-centred corpus-assisted translation approach was to help students construct knowledge by solving translation problems by themselves. There were six weeks of training with two hours each week. Students were guided in using corpus tools to help them translate.

Stage 1: Training on query strategies.

The focuses of each training session were listed as the following:

Session 1: Introducing BNC (British National Corpus) & Tango

Session 2: Demonstrating query strategies in Tango

Session 3: Introducing & demonstrating making queries in TotalRecall

Session 4: Query strategies for Tango and TotalRecall in translation cloze exercises

Session 5: Training on query strategies, e.g., use English/Chinese phrases to

narrow down search results

Session 6: Training on observing grammar patterns from the search results and apply results to answer translation questions

Stage 2: Hands-on practice by incorporating query strategies.

To summarize, the design of the curriculum is to help the students get familiar with using the corpus tools, and train them to use the corpus tools to assist them translate. The students are guided with enquiry skills demonstrated by the teacher and are then allowed to explore the corpus tools on their own. After they become familiar with the corpus tools, the teacher trains the students with query strategies to use the two corpus tools to translate the Chinese words or phrases into English, and check the collocation combinations of the English equivalents for the translated text. The students are trained with corpus query strategies to assist them translate gradually, and are encouraged to discuss their strategies with each other. The teacher often asks the students to share voluntarily about how they explore the corpus tools step by step with their classmates. Through the process of hands-on practice, it is hoped that the students acquire query strategies to solve translation problems.

When the students have problems in undertaking translation tasks in class, the teacher does not answer the questions right away. Instead, she would ask the student some guiding questions and allow the students to think about some possible solutions. If the student really has no idea about the solutions, the teacher would ask the whole class for volunteers to share their thoughts. The purpose of doing so is to help the students solve translation problems independently and inspire one another with different ways of enquiring the corpus tools. With the training of the student-centred corpus-assisted translation approach, it is hoped that the students eventually could construct their own strategies in corpus-assisted translation.

Stage 3: Performance evaluation.

Since the English competency of the students was at the intermediate level,

they were not competent enough to produce good quality English sentences in their translation, and it would be difficult to analyze the data collected. Therefore, the students were asked to do a translation cloze test for the pre-test and post-test. In the tests, Chinese sentences and their English translations were given; the Chinese sentences had words or phrases underlined, with the equivalent words or phrases missing (as blank spaces) in the English translations. The students were asked to translate those (underlined) Chinese phrases to fill in the blanks in the English sentences, and the translated words or phrases had to fit into the English sentences both in terms of lexical choice and collocation combination.

Results

Both qualitative and quantitative methods are applied to analyze the collected data of the five research instruments for the study. Evidence of the students' perceptions towards the approach will be reported in accordance with the structure of the two research questions. By observing how the students use corpus tools to assist them translate, results are collected and analyzed to provide evidence that corpus-assisted translation certainly has a positive impact on the students' learning outcomes. Besides, the difficulties and problems faced by the students in the process will also be discussed.

What Are the Difficulties and Problems Students Encounter When Using Corpus Tools to Assist Them in Undertaking Lexical Translation Tasks?

For all the student participants, corpus-assisted translation is something completely new. They started learning from scratch how to use corpus tools to help them translate. As a result, various problems and difficulties may occur in the process. In answering the first research question, the analyses will be investigated

from the following three perspectives: problems with TotalRecall and Tango, score distribution and error analysis of the test responses, and students' perceived difficulties and problems.

Problems With TotalRecall and Tango

The problems that the students encountered when using TotalRecall and Tango are investigated by looking at the students' responses in the final questionnaires. The students were asked to explain the pros and cons of the tools respectively. The problems with TotalRecall and Tango were organized into six categories respectively as shown in Table 2 and Table 3.

Table 2

Problems With TotalRecall

Problems with TotalRecall	Insufficient data	No keyword highlight	No collocation analysis	Not user friendly	No problem found	No response	Total
Responses	4	6	5	5	2	5	27
Students	S7, S13, S15, S17	S6, S9, S14, S20, S28, S29	S8, S16, S18, S23, S24	S10, S11, S19, S25, S26	S2, S21	S1, S5, S12, S22, S27	

Table 3

Problems With Tango

Problems with Tango	Insufficient query option	System often freezes	Not easy to make enquiries	Insufficient data	Lack of bilingual alignment	No response	Total
Responses	8	5	5	7	2	3	30
Students	S9, S10, S12, S15, S20, S21, S25, S28	S2, S5, S17, S18, S19	S2, S13, S16, S23, S24	S7, S8, S11, S17, S23, S26, S27	S6, S14	S1, S22, S29	

Some of the problems that appear in TotalRecall also appear in Tango. Four students stated that there is insufficient data in TotalRecall, whereas seven students mentioned the same problem with Tango. Five students responded that they think TotalRecall is not user friendly, while five students also said they think it is not easy to make enquiries in Tango. No keyword highlighted and no collocation analysis were non user friendly features of TotalRecall. However, two students responded that they think there is not any problem with TotalRecall. For Tango, students responded that there are insufficient query options for them to select the parts of speech about which they want to enquire, there is a lack of bilingual alignment, and the system often freezes.

To demonstrate the students' query process and the difficulties they encountered, a snapshot of TotalRecall is shown as follows in Figure 3 that shows the limited query results when enquiring the keyword *zhaohui* 召回, which means "to recall something." There is only one bilingual pair of results with sample Chinese and English sentences that contain the keyword after submitting the query.

Score Distribution and Error Analysis of the Test Responses

In the following analysis, a comparison of score distribution to all the test questions was made in order to find out the kind of difficulties the students have when making use of the corpus tools. In Table 4, the frequency and percentage of the score distribution is listed for comparison between the pre-test and post-test, as is the difference in percentage and the improvement rates.

Figure 3

TotalRecall Query Snapshot of the Keyword Zhaohui 召回



TOTALrecall™
NTHU (C) NLP All Rights are Reserved.

Text Collection : Sinorama 1990~2000

Login ID: guest-User Search Time: 0.141 sec.

Query: (English) (Chinese) 召回 100 items/page

☒ mono mode ☐ bilingual mode order by: Length (Eng) Submit Help

English Sentence	Chinese Sentence	Source
After the Macau handover, William Li, the head of what was formerly the Taipei Trade and Tourism Office, was recalled to Taiwan and reprimanded for his handling of the removal of the Office's official signboard. From this one can see just how sensitive Taiwan-Macau relations are in the wake of the Macau handover.	澳門治權轉移之後，為了我駐澳門單位的更名及招牌反轉問題，原「台北貿易旅遊辦事處」處長厲威廉被緊急電召回台議處，台澳關係的政治敏感性由此可知。	200001005 Closer Ties Ahead... Text BiText

查詢完成

Total Records found : 1

Note. From <http://candle.cs.nthu.edu.tw/totalrecall/totalrecall/totalrecall.aspx?funcID=1>

Table 4

Distribution of Response Scores and Improvements in the Pre-Test and Post-Test

Response Score	Pre-Test Frequency	Pre-Test Percent	Post-Test Frequency	Post-Test Percent	Difference %	Improvement Rate
0	131	18.1	83	11.4	-6.6	-37%
0.5	0	0	0	0	0.0	0%
1.0	14	1.9	16	2.2	0.3	14%
1.5	5	0.7	1	0.1	-0.6	-80%
2.0	30	4.1	26	3.6	-0.6	-13%
2.5	11	1.5	3	0.4	-1.1	-73%

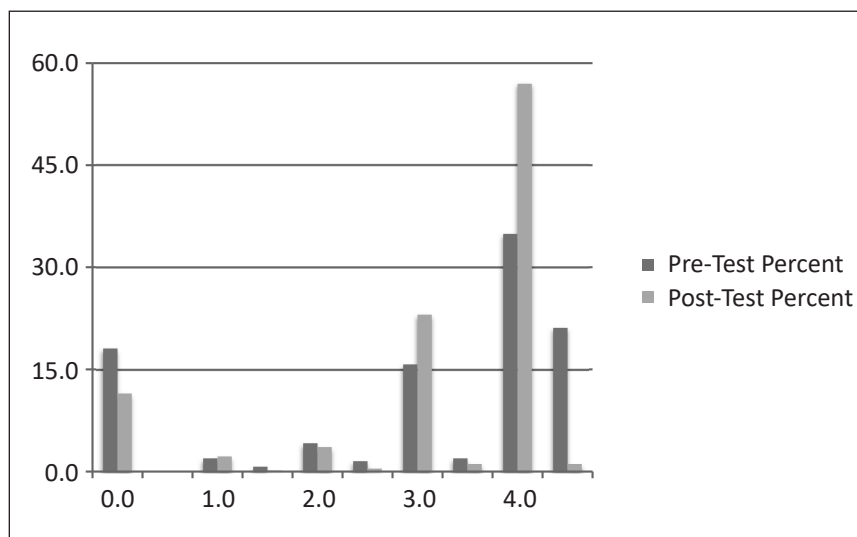
(continued)

Table 4*Distribution of Response Scores and Improvements in the Pre-Test and Post-Test (continued)*

Response Score	Pre-Test Frequency	Pre-Test Percent	Post-Test Frequency	Post-Test Percent	Difference %	Improvement Rate
3.0	114	15.7	167	23.0	7.3	46%
3.5	14	1.9	8	1.1	-0.8	-43%
4.0	253	34.9	413	57.0	22.1	63%
Missing	153	21.1	8	1.1	-20.0	-95%
Total	725	100	725	100		

It is obvious that there is a sharp decrease for scores of 0 and missing answers in their frequencies. In contrast, there is a big increase for scores of 3.0 and 4.0 in frequency. These changes show improvements of the students in their performances in the post-test. However, there is something interesting for discussion for the improvements of score 3.0 from 114 (15.7%) responses in the pre-test to 167 (23%) in the post-test. There is a difference of 7.3% in percentage, and the improvement rate for the frequency was 46%.

Score 3.0 represents that the students used the correct word, but chose the wrong grammatical form in their answers. As shown in Figure 4, there was a decrease of missing answers (score 0) in the post-test.

Figure 4*Comparison of Response Score Distribution for the Pre-Test and Post-Test*

Due to this decrease (score 0), it is observed that the students were motivated to find references and fill out the answers in the post-test with help from enquiring in the corpus tools. Some of the student participants (S4, S12, S16, S18, S24) responded in the group interviews that making queries in the corpus tools helped them to increase their willingness in learning translation.

Students' Perceived Difficulties and Problems

In this part of the analysis, the students' perceived difficulties and problems in the process of enquiry are investigated by analyzing responses from the group interviews. Responses relevant to this topic throughout the interview were selected, coded and organized into eight categories as shown in Table 5.

Table 5*Students' Perceived Difficulties and Problems in Corpus-Assisted Translation*

Category	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
Problems	Not user friendly	Lack of keyword highlight	System often freezes	Cannot find desired information	Insufficient query option	Insufficient Chinese data	Problem with word use and constructing sentence	Other problems	Total
Responses	2	2	6	8	8	3	1	4	34
Students	S16, S23	S6, S8	S3, S6, S9, S15, S16, S17	S6, S7, S8, S13, S15, S16, S17, S19	S4, S6, S8, S9, S11, S13, S17, S20	S2, S8, S16	S13	S16, S17, S21, S24	
Appeared in questionnaire responses	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes				

Five of the eight categories (category 1, 2, 3, 5, 6) are related to the design of the corpus tools, and the other three categories (category 4, 7, 8) are relevant to the students' query strategies.

Regarding students' query strategies, responses extracted from the specified students in Table 5 showed that six problems emerge from these three categories (category 4, 7, 8) relevant to query strategies, which include: Students cannot find desired information (4), problems with word use and constructing sentences (7), did not know how to choose the most suitable word from the query results (8), not familiar with the corpus tools (8), had troubles recognizing the part of speech for the words (8), cannot figure out the desired answers easily from the query results (4). This evidence shows that the students still have many problems with query strategies of corpus-assisted translation. Although training and practice had been provided to the students in class, more help should be given to students in order to solve their individual problems. The data from the questionnaires and group

interviews shows similar problems, and triangulates the results of the students' difficulties and problems in corpus-assisted translation.

What Are the Benefits the Students Receive Through Using Corpus Tools to Assist Them in Undertaking Lexical Translation Tasks?

Grade Improvements in the Post-Test

This analysis focused on the student participants' grade performance in the pre-test and post-test of the study. Score comparisons were made to compare the students' grade performance before and after using corpus tools to assist them translate. The analyses include comparing the average score improvement between the two tests and the average improvement rate, as well as statistical analysis of the two tests. The results of the average score improvements are presented in Table 6; the average improvement rate was 49.3%. For the statistical analysis, Paired-Samples T Test was conducted with the SPSS program to test whether the results of the pre-test and post-test scores of every participant show any statistical significance. The student participants' improvements can be observed from the Mean score of the post-test grade (Mean=77.8), which improved substantially when compared with the pre-test (Mean=52.1), and the decrease in the value of Standard Deviation in the post-test further supports the evidence in students' progress as in Table 7. One of the participants' grades remained the same in both tests, but all other 28 participants made satisfactory improvements. Therefore, the results of the two-tailed test show that there is statistical significance ($p=0.023$, Sig. [2-tailed]= 0.000) as in Table 8 and Table 9.

Table 6*Average Pre-Test and Post-Test Grade and Improvement Rate*

Average Pre-Test Score	Average Post-Test Score	Average Grade Difference	Average Improvement Rate
52.1	77.9	25.7	49.3%

Table 7*Results of Paired-Samples T Test (1)*

Paired Samples Statistics				
	Mean	N	SD	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1 Pre-Test Grade	52.138	29	14.7169	2.7329
Post-Test Grade	77.862	29	9.8161	1.8228

Table 8*Results of Paired-Samples T Test (2)*

Paired Samples Correlations				
	N	Correlation	Sig.	
Pair 1 Pre-Test Grade & Post-Test Grade	29	.420	.023	

Table 9*Results of Paired-Samples T Test (3)*

Paired Samples Test									
		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Pre-Test Grade- Post-Test Grade	-25.7241	13.8439	2.5707	-30.9901	-20.4582	-10.006	28	.000

Areas of Improvement After Using the Corpus Tools

In a previous section, a comparison of score distribution in the pre-test and post-test was made to find out the difficulties the students had when using the corpus tools. In this part of the analysis, a summary of score distribution is made to further summarize the improvements made by the students. Table 10 is a summary of the statistics in Table 4 by adding up the frequency and percentage of the score distributions.

Table 10

Summary of Score Distribution for the Pre-Test and Post-Test

	Pre-Test Frequency Sum	Pre-Test Percent Sum	Post-Test Frequency Sum	Post-Test Percent Sum	Difference %
0 & Missing	284	39.0	91	12.6	-26.6
0.5~2 points	49	7.0	43	5.9	-0.8
2.5~4 points	392	54.1	591	81.5	27.4
Total	725	100	725	100	

The value in the category of 0 and Missing show that there is an increase in the students' motivation in responding to the questions; they try to answer as many questions as they can. It also shows that there is a decrease in wrong answers (score 0). Score 0.5~2.0 were not discussed in the analysis of score distribution because the numbers were all relatively low. The summary of scores 2.5~4.0 shows an overall improvement in correct word choice (vocabulary use/collocation), grammar, and spelling by 27.4%. Therefore, results from the analyses show that the benefits students receive in corpus-assisted translation are in the areas of motivation, accuracy rate, correct word choice (vocabulary use/collocation), grammar, and spelling.

Improvements of the Two Question Types in the Post-Test

This analysis focuses on the students' grade improvement for the two question types in the pre-test and post-test. Question type one refers to the collocation questions (13 questions), and type two refers to the vocabulary usage questions (12 questions). Table 11 shows comparisons of the students' grade improvement before and after using the corpus tools. The results indicate that corpus tools are helpful in both of the question types. Statistics show that the participants have made significant improvements in the post-test after using the corpus tools to assist them translate. However, the improvement rate of vocabulary usage is slightly higher than collocation by ten percent. Therefore, it can be observed that the corpus tools are slightly more helpful to the students in their ability in vocabulary usage than in collocation in this case study.

Table 11

Improvements of the Two Question Types in the Post-Test (N=29)

Type 1 Collocation			
Item	# of Questions	Pre-Test	Post-Test
Score Sum	13	790	1142
Full Score	13	1508	1508
Accuracy %		52.4	75.7
Improvement %			23.4
Improvement Rate			44.6

(continued)

Table 11*Improvements of the Two Question Types in the Post-Test (N=29) (continued)*

Type 2 Vocabulary Usage			
Score Sum	12	723	1116
Full Score	12	1392	1392
Accuracy %		51.9	80.2
Improvement %			28.3
Improvement Rate			54.5
All Question Summary			
Total Score	25	1512	2258
Full Score	25	2900	2900
Accuracy %		52.1	77.9
Improvement %			25.7
Improvement Rate			49.3

Students' Perceived Benefits of Corpus-Assisted Translation

In the previous two analyses, improvements in the post-test grade and areas of improvement after using the corpus tools were illustrated with examples. The third analysis investigates students' perceived benefits from their point of view based on group interviews. There were 37 responses relevant to this topic, which were organized into six categories as shown in Table 12.

Table 12*Students' Perceived Benefits of Corpus-Assisted Translation*

Benefits	Corpus tools are better than bilingual dictionaries	Helpful to collocation combinations	Increased accuracy of translation	Solving translation problems independently	Methods of constructing knowledge in translation	Others	Total
Responses	10	4	6	8	6	3	37
Students	S2, S3, S4, S6, S14, S20, S21, S22, S23, S24	S3, S8, S14, S24	S3, S4, S6, S8, S9, S25	S4, S10, S11, S12, S13, S14, S15, S16	S3, S6, S20, S21, S22, S24	S5, S16, S21	

The findings from the group interviews show that the students' perceived benefits from corpus-assisted translation are that the corpus tools provide the students with better assistance and reference than dictionaries, are helpful to collocation combinations, increased the accuracy of their translation, helped them to solve translation problems independently, and to construct their knowledge in translation. Also, most of the responding students mentioned that the corpus tools are very helpful to their vocabulary, grammar and collocation, as well as the usefulness they received from the numerous example sentences provided. The corpus tools help them to keep filtering the information until they find the desired answers. The results of this analysis triangulate with the results of previous analyses regarding the benefits of corpus-assisted translation. Therefore, evidence shows how corpus-assisted translation can be very useful to the students' learning of translation.

Discussion

What Are the Difficulties and Problems Students Encounter When Using Corpus Tools to Assist Them in Undertaking Lexical Translation Tasks?

Results from the students' score distribution and error analysis showed that the students had problems with grammar and difficulties in making the correct word choice for the desired answer from the bilingual alignments of search results.

Regarding the students' problems with TotalRecall and Tango (cf. Table 2 and Table 3), the students commented on the pros and cons of TotalRecall and Tango from their experiences. Apart from the problem of "not user friendly" and "not easy to make enquiries," all the other problems are relevant to the design of the corpus tools. While the students think the corpus tools are not user friendly, the reason can be due to the system design, or students' problems in enquiring the corpus tools. It can be that the responding students are not familiar with the query strategies, or the students have insufficient English competency to analyze and synthesize the query results when making enquiries and undertaking translation tasks.

For all the other problems, the design of the corpus tools is also very important to the students because it has a big impact on how well the students can make use of the corpus tools. The design can also cause students to face problems or difficulties in the process of enquiries, and determine whether the students would enjoy using the corpus tools or not.

The results in Table 5 are based on group interviews and revealed the students' perceived difficulties and problems in corpus-assisted translation, which was organized into eight categories. Five of them are related to the design of the corpus tools, and the other three categories are relevant to the students' query strategies.

The findings in the group interviews triangulated with the results in the questionnaires. There are five repeated problems as noted in Table 5. Of the five repeated problems in the questionnaires and group interviews, there is only one problem that is related to query strategy—cannot find desired information. The other problems are related to the design of the corpus tools.

The query strategy problem was further explained by the students in the group interviews with further details. Evidence shows that the students still have many problems with the query strategies and synthesizing query results, and with figuring out their desired answers when using corpus tools to assist them translate. Although training and practice in query strategies had been provided to the students in the classes, more help should be given to some of the students in order to solve their individual problems with query strategies in corpus-assisted translation. On the other hand, when the students complained about the insufficiency of the corpus tools and all the other problems, it is necessary to step back and think about whether the students are capable of using the corpus tools with appropriate query strategies.

The results of the above three analyses show that students have major problems with grammar, word choice, and word use. The students think there are a number of problems with TotalRecall and Tango, while some of the problems are relevant to the students themselves and to whether they can manage to make use of the corpus tools properly, and draw desired answers from the tools. The group interview results show that the students have problems with query strategies and synthesizing the query results.

There are two suggested solutions to the common query problems addressed by the students. First of all, if the students were not familiar with the corpus interface, here are some suggestions.

Unfamiliar with the corpus interface

1. Students can seek help from teachers or peers
2. Teachers can provide recorded corpus tutorials from classes
3. Teachers can also provide recorded official tutorials from corpus developers (available on YouTube)
4. Students can seek further help from teachers by making appointments

Secondly, if the students could not find desired query results from the corpus tool, they can try to follow the following steps.

Students could not find desired query results (with Chinese keywords)

1. Use Chinese synonyms to search again
2. Use Chinese-English dictionary to find the English definition of the Chinese keywords
3. Switch to English keyword search

What Are the Benefits the Students Receive Through Using Corpus Tools to Assist Them in Undertaking Lexical Translation Tasks?

The results from the analysis “Benefits the students receive in corpus-assisted translation” show significant improvements in the post-test and positive feedback from the students. Since the students were not allowed to use any tool to help them translate in the pre-test, and were allowed to use the corpus tools and the Yahoo online bilingual dictionary in the post-test, it can be assured that the improvements indicate the usefulness of the corpus tools to the students’ translation. The average pre-test score of all the research participants was 52.1 out of 100, and the average post-test score was 77.9 out of 100. The average score improvement was 25.7 points for each student, and the average improvement rate was 49.3%. The results of the two-tailed test show that there is statistical significance ($p=0.023$, Sig. [2-tailed] = 0.000) as shown in Table 8 and Table 9. The results from the Paired-Samples T Test show evidence of significant improvement for all the students in

the post-test comparing to the pre-test. The amount of progress made by the students proves that the benefits the students receive in corpus-assisted translation are substantial.

Furthermore, evidence from the analyses in Table 4 shows that the benefits students receive in corpus-assisted translation are in the areas of motivation, accuracy rate, correct word choice (vocabulary use/collocation), grammar, and spelling when they were using the corpus tools to help them undertake the translation cloze test. Part of the results is consistent with the findings in Gao's (2011) research experiment. Gao found evidence that using the bilingual concordancer helped the students with their lexical choice, collocations, phrasing and word forms in their translation tasks. Among these, lexical choice, collocation and word forms are consistent with correct word choice (vocabulary use/collocation) and grammar in the current research. However, findings on improvements in the students' motivation, accuracy rate, and spelling were not mentioned in the literature.

In the third analysis for this research question, evidence was found on the students' perceived benefits in group interviews (cf. Table 12). The findings show that most students mentioned that the corpus tools are very helpful to their vocabulary, grammar and collocation, as well as the usefulness they received from the numerous example sentences provided. Furthermore, the results of this analysis triangulate with the results of the previous two analyses regarding the benefits of corpus-assisted translation. Therefore, strong evidence is collected to show how corpus-assisted translation can be very useful to the students' learning of translation.

The findings are in line with scholars' arguments that corpora are better translation aids than dictionaries (Kenning, 2010; Possamai, 2009; Rodríguez-Inés, 2009, 2010; Zanettin, 1998, 2002). Liou et al. (2006) also explained why corpus tools are better than dictionaries, and act as a scaffold to help learners (pp. 78, 91). The corpus tools have

helped the students to construct their translation skills and knowledge, and cultivate the students in becoming independent learners that can solve translation problems by themselves. They become cognitive learners and know better what they are learning. This is exactly what a student-centred corpus-assisted translation approach is aiming for in the students. It is encouraging to see the learning outcomes of the approach from the students, which means the approach is really helping the students to learn what they should learn in such an approach.

Limitations of the Study

The two selected corpus concordancers were not updated anymore since the CANDLE project had ended several years ago, and the funding from the Ministry of Science and Technology had suspended. Despite the fact that they are not updated anymore, they are still representative bilingual and monolingual corpus concordancers in Taiwan with corpus data presented in traditional Chinese characters. Therefore, they have been adopted as suitable corpus tools for the current study.

Conclusion

This study has confirmed the value and usefulness of the student-centred corpus-assisted translation approach after implementing the approach in a translation class. Besides, there is another important finding in the present study. While all the scholars advocate the value of corpus tools to the trainees' learning of translation, there are some difficulties in corpus-assisted translation that are seldom discussed.

The findings in the study provide a different perspective by revealing the difficulties faced by students of intermediate English level when they use the corpus tools to assist them translate. They have more difficulties in making use of the corpus tools and receive less benefit than the students of a higher English level. Therefore,

extra training on grammar usage and corpus query strategies are needed for these students. This is something that teachers need to keep in mind when implementing the approach. This is one of the important findings in the present study.

To sum up, the results are in line with the literature review, and prove that corpus-assisted translation is not only helpful to the students' production of translation, but also useful in enhancing their language awareness. The present study adopted a student-centred teaching approach and used the corpus tools as scaffolds to help the trainees become cognitive learners of translation, and guided them to construct knowledge of translation through the process of enquiring in the corpus tools by themselves. As a result, the student-centred corpus-assisted translation approach has successfully helped the students to acquire the abilities to solve translation problems independently by consulting the corpus tools, and thus become autonomous learners.

Suggestions for Future Research

It is suggested that the following two features of corpus tools should be considered when selecting corpus tools in future research—An English monolingual corpus of larger scale and a Chinese and English parallel translation corpus. Combination of the two featured corpus tools should be able to help students solve the various problems they encounter in translation tasks more effectively.

Other than corpus tools, researchers or teachers are also advised to incorporate other language resources to compliment corpus tools in facilitating students retrieve English terminologies of certain Chinese terms. The potential options include bilingual dictionaries, thesaurus, NAER Web of Words (<https://terms.naer.edu.tw/search/>). Besides, web translation resources are also useful tools to check translations of Chinese terms, such as Google translate and DeepL translator (<https://www.deepl.com/translator>). After receiving advice from Google translate and DeepL, students can further check the uses and collocations of the terms in the selected

corpus tools. With the help from various other resources, students will be able to undertake translation tasks more efficiently and accurately. With the use of these tools, they complement the limitations of corpus size when students practice corpus-assisted translation.

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Appendix A

Scoring Rubric for All the Response Answers in the Pre-Test and Post-Test

Table A1

No.	QUESTION	Answer 1	Score	Answer 2	Score	Answer 3	Score	Answer 4	Score
e.g.	If you ____violate____ a traffic law, such as drinking and driving, you may not drive for some time.	break	4	disobey	4	breaking	3	ignore	2
1	Chinese is a language with many ____regional____ differences. People living in different areas often speak different dialects.	local	4	localized	4	provincial	2	area	2
2	A menu serves to ____inform____ customers about the varieties and prices of the dishes offered by the restaurant.	tell	4	show	0	announce	0	notice	0
3	The baby polar bear is being ____intensively____ studied by the scientists. Every move he makes is carefully observed and documented.	closely	4	frequently	2	extensively	2	tightly	2
4	After his superb ____performance____, the musician received a big round of applause from the appreciative audience.	performing	3	show	2	playing	4	display	0
5	The water company inspects the pipelines and ____monitors____ the water supply regularly to ensure the safety of our drinking water.	checks	4	detects	0	looks	0	measures	0
6	This year's East Asia Summit meetings will focus on critical ____issues____ such as energy conservation, food shortages, and global warming.	subjects	4	discussions	0	events	0	problems	4

(continued)

Table A1

No.	QUESTION	Answer 1	Score	Answer 2	Score	Answer 3	Score	Answer 4	Score
7	Having fully recognized Mei-ling's academic ability, Mr. Lin _____ strongly _____ recommended her for admission to the university.	completely	0	extremely	0	especially	2	greatly	2
8	The weatherman has warned about drastic temperature change in the next few days, and suggested that we _____ check _____ the weather on a daily basis and dress accordingly.	find out	4	check out	4	depend	0	examine	2
9	Many people think cotton is the most comfortable _____ fabric _____ to wear in hot weather.	cloth	4	clothes	2	clothing	4	material	4
10	Because of the engine problem in the new vans, the auto company decided to _____ recall _____ them from the market.	retrieve	2	back	0	call	0	recollect	0
11	In team sports, how all members work as a group is more important than how they perform _____ individually _____.	personally	4	personality	0	personnel	0	themselves	4
12	Despite her physical disability, the young blind pianist managed to overcome all _____ obstacles _____ to win the first prize in the international contest.	barriers	4	challenges	4	blocks	2	difficulties	4
13	Each of the planets in the _____ solar _____ system circles around the sun in its own orbit, and this prevents them from colliding with each other.	sun	3	universal	0				
14	Professor Wang is well known for his contributions to the _____ field _____ of economics. He has been recruited to help the government with its financial reform programs.	territory	2	realm	4	area	4	aspect	0

(continued)

Table A1

No.	QUESTION	Answer 1	Score	Answer 2	Score	Answer 3	Score	Answer 4	Score
15	Most earthquakes are too small to be noticed; they can only be detected by _____sensitive_____ instruments.	acute	4	delicate	0	high-tech	0	intensive	2
16	With Wikileaks releasing secrets about governments around the world, many countries are worried that their national security information might be _____disclosed_____.	revealed	4	discovered	4	divulged	4	escaped	0
17	I'm afraid we can't take your word, for the _____evidence_____ we've collected so far is not consistent with what you said.	proof	2	facts	2	information	4		
18	You'll need the store receipt to show proof of _____purchase_____ if you want to return any items you bought.	purchasing	3	buy	3	buying	4	consuming	0
19	Spending most of his childhood in Spain, John, a native speaker of English, is also _____fluent_____ in Spanish.	fluently	3	good	2	well	0		
20	No one knows how the fire broke out. The police have started an _____investigation_____ into the cause of it.	survey	0	examination	4	research	0	search	0
21	When there is a _____heavy_____ rain, you have to drive very cautiously so as to avoid traffic accidents.	big	0	strong	0	hard	0	torrential	4
22	This math class is very demanding; I have to _____spend_____ at least two hours every day doing the assignments.	take	4	use	2	cost	0		

(continued)

Table A1

No.	QUESTION	Answer 1	Score	Answer 2	Score	Answer 3	Score	Answer 4	Score
23	One can generally judge the quality of eggs with the naked eye. Good eggs must be _____ externally _____ clean, free of cracks, and smooth-shelled.	superficially	0	apparently	4	facially	0	obviously	4
24	The scientist _____ modified _____ his speech to make it easier for children to understand the threat of global warming.	revised	4	amended	4	changed	4	altered	4
25	The Internet has surpassed newspapers as a medium of mass communication. It has become the main _____ source _____ for national and international news for people.	origin	2	resource	2				

Table A2

No.	QUESTION	Answer 5	Score	Answer 6	Score	Answer 7	Score
e.g.	If you _____ violate _____ a traffic law, such as drinking and driving, you may not drive for some time.	ignorance	1	dismiss	0	follow	0
1	Chinese is a language with many _____ regional _____ differences. People living in different areas often speak different dialects.	distinction	0	territory	1		
2	A menu serves to _____ inform _____ customers about the varieties and prices of the dishes offered by the restaurant.	advice	3	notify	4	offer	0
3	The baby polar bear is being _____ intensively _____ studied by the scientists. Every move he makes is carefully observed and documented.	dedicatedly	0	intimately	0	intently	4
4	After his superb _____ performance _____, the musician received a big round of applause from the appreciative audience.						
5	The water company inspects the pipelines and _____ monitors _____ the water supply regularly to ensure the safety of our drinking water.	supervises	0	tests	4	watches	2
6	This year's East Asia Summit meetings will focus on critical _____ issues _____ such as energy conservation, food shortages, and global warming.	opinions	0	strategies	0	themes	4

(continued)

Table A2

No.	QUESTION	Answer 5	Score	Answer 6	Score	Answer 7	Score
7	Having fully recognized Mei-ling's academic ability, Mr. Lin ____strongly____ recommended her for admission to the university.	highly	4	intensely	0	largely	0
8	The weatherman has warned about drastic temperature change in the next few days, and suggested that we ____check____ the weather on a daily basis and dress accordingly.	inspect	0	see	0	watch	4
9	Many people think cotton is the most comfortable ____fabric____ to wear in hot weather.	textile	2	texture	0	things	0
10	Because of the engine problem in the new vans, the auto company decided to ____recall____ them from the market.	recycle	0	remove	2	return	0
11	In team sports, how all members work as a group is more important than how they perform ____individually____.	by personal	0	in individual	0	they own self	0
12	Despite her physical disability, the young blind pianist managed to overcome all ____obstacles____ to win the first prize in the international contest.	hamper	0	hardship	3	hinderance	3
13	Each of the planets in the ____solar____ system circles around the sun in its own orbit, and this prevents them from colliding with each other.						
14	Professor Wang is well known for his contributions to the ____field____ of economics. He has been recruited to help the government with its financial reform programs.	domain	4	part	0	profession	2
15	Most earthquakes are too small to be noticed; they can only be detected by ____sensitive____ instruments.	keen	2	smart	0	sense	1
16	With Wikileaks releasing secrets about governments around the world, many countries are worried that their national security information might be ____disclosed____.	known	2	leaked	2	leaked out	1
17	I'm afraid we can't take your word, for the ____evidence____ we've collected so far is not consistent with what you said.						
18	You'll need the store receipt to show proof of ____purchase____ if you want to return any items you bought.	ticket	0				
19	Spending most of his childhood in Spain, John, a native speaker of English, is also ____fluent____ in Spanish.						

(continued)

Table A2

No.	QUESTION	Answer 5	Score	Answer 6	Score	Answer 7	Score
20	No one knows how the fire broke out. The police have started an ____ investigation ____ into the cause of it.						
21	When there is a ____ heavy ____ rain, you have to drive very cautiously so as to avoid traffic accidents.	downpour	1				
22	This math class is very demanding; I have to ____ spend ____ at least two hours every day doing the assignments.						
23	One can generally judge the quality of eggs with the naked eye. Good eggs must be ____ externally ____ clean, free of cracks, and smooth-shelled.	physically	2	visually	4	appeared	3
24	The scientist ____ modified ____ his speech to make it easier for children to understand the threat of global warming.	corrected	4	edited	4	fixed	0
25	The Internet has surpassed newspapers as a medium of mass communication. It has become the main ____ source ____ for national and international news for people.						

Table A3

No.	QUESTION	Answer 8	Score	Answer 9	Score	Answer 10	Score	Answer 11	Score
e.g.	If you ____ violate ____ a traffic law, such as drinking and driving, you may not drive for some time.								
1	Chinese is a language with many ____ regional ____ differences. People living in different areas often speak different dialects.								
2	A menu serves to ____ inform ____ customers about the varieties and prices of the dishes offered by the restaurant.								
3	The baby polar bear is being ____ intensively ____ studied by the scientists. Every move he makes is carefully observed and documented.	detailed	0						

(continued)

Table A3

No.	QUESTION	Answer 8	Score	Answer 9	Score	Answer 10	Score	Answer 11	Score
4	After his superb ____ performance____, the musician received a big round of applause from the appreciative audience.								
5	The water company inspects the pipelines and ____monitors____ the water supply regularly to ensure the safety of our drinking water.								
6	This year's East Asia Summit meetings will focus on critical ____issues____ such as energy conservation, food shortages, and global warming.	topics	4						
7	Having fully recognized Mei-ling's academic ability, Mr. Lin ____strongly____ recommended her for admission to the university.	powerfully	0	rigorously	0	vigorously	2		
8	The weatherman has warned about drastic temperature change in the next few days, and suggested that we ____ check____ the weather on a daily basis and dress accordingly.	look up	0						
9	Many people think cotton is the most comfortable ____fabric____ to wear in hot weather.								
10	Because of the engine problem in the new vans, the auto company decided to ____recall____ them from the market.								
11	In team sports, how all members work as a group is more important than how they perform ____ individually____.								

(continued)

Table A3

No.	QUESTION	Answer 8	Score	Answer 9	Score	Answer 10	Score	Answer 11	Score
12	Despite her physical disability, the young blind pianist managed to overcome all _____ obstacles_____ to win the first prize in the international contest.	obstruction	1	problems	2				
13	Each of the planets in the _____solar_____ system circles around the sun in its own orbit, and this prevents them from colliding with each other.								
14	Professor Wang is well known for his contributions to the _____field_____ of economics. He has been recruited to help the government with its financial reform programs.	region	2						
15	Most earthquakes are too small to be noticed; they can only be detected by _____sensitive_____ instruments.	sophisticated	4						
16	With Wikileaks releasing secrets about governments around the world, many countries are worried that their national security information might be _____disclosed_____.	let out	0	released	2	revealed	4	shown	0
17	I'm afraid we can't take your word, for the _____evidence_____ we've collected so far is not consistent with what you said.								
18	You'll need the store receipt to show proof of _____purchase_____ if you want to return any items you bought.								

(continued)

Table A3

No.	QUESTION	Answer 8	Score	Answer 9	Score	Answer 10	Score	Answer 11	Score
19	Spending most of his childhood in Spain, John, a native speaker of English, is also ____fluent____ in Spanish.								
20	No one knows how the fire broke out. The police have started an ____ investigation____ into the cause of it.								
21	When there is a ____ heavy____ rain, you have to drive very cautiously so as to avoid traffic accidents.								
22	This math class is very demanding; I have to ____ spend____ at least two hours every day doing the assignments.								
23	One can generally judge the quality of eggs with the naked eye. Good eggs must be ____externally____ clean, free of cracks, and smooth-shelled.	appearance	3	outside	1				
24	The scientist ____ modified____ his speech to make it easier for children to understand the threat of global warming.	redraft	3	rewrite	3				
25	The Internet has surpassed newspapers as a medium of mass communication. It has become the main ____source____ for national and international news for people.								

Note. Scores: 4 points: Correct collocation/vocabulary; 3 points: Correct collocation/vocabulary, but **incorrect form**; 2 points: Acceptable collocation/vocabulary yet **not the best equivalence**; 1 point: Acceptable collocation/vocabulary & **incorrect form**; 0 point: **Wrong** collocation/vocabulary/misspelling.

Appendix B

Frequency Comparison of the Midterm and Final Questionnaires

Table B

Question		Midterm %	Final %
<i>When undertaking Chinese-English translation tasks ...</i>			
1. I often do not know how to solve translation problems.	I strongly disagree	0	0
	I disagree	7.4	14.8
	I have no comment	18.5	18.5
	I agree	70.4	55.6
	I strongly agree	3.7	11.1
2. I often do not know how to translate terminologies.	I strongly disagree	3.7	0
	I disagree	14.8	3.7
	I have no comment	3.7	7.4
	I agree	59.3	74.1
	I strongly agree	18.5	14.8
3. I often do not know how to distinguish between collocation usages.	I strongly disagree	0	0
	I disagree	7.4	7.4
	I have no comment	18.5	22.2
	I agree	66.7	51.9
	I strongly agree	7.4	18.5
4. I often do not know how to choose the most appropriate word/ phrase to express the meaning of the source language.	I strongly disagree	0	0
	I disagree	3.7	18.5
	I have no comment	0	7.4
	I agree	77.8	55.6
	I strongly agree	18.5	18.5
5. I am very confident in the accuracy of my Chinese-English translation.	I strongly disagree	11.1	11.1
	I disagree	66.7	40.7
	I have no comment	14.8	37.0
	I agree	3.7	11.1
	I strongly agree	3.7	0
6. I am very confident in the accuracy of the grammar in my translated English text.	I strongly disagree	14.8	11.1
	I disagree	63.0	48.1
	I have no comment	18.5	37.0
	I agree	0	3.7
	I strongly agree	3.7	0

(Continued)

Table B

Question		Midterm %	Final %
<i>When undertaking Chinese-English translation tasks ...</i>			
7. I am very confident in the accuracy of the terminology in my translated English text.	I strongly disagree	22.2	3.7
	I disagree	55.6	77.8
	I have no comment	18.5	14.8
	I agree	3.7	3.7
	I strongly agree	0	0
8. I am very confident in the accuracy of the collocation usage in my translated English text.	I strongly disagree	14.8	3.7
	I disagree	59.3	66.7
	I have no comment	22.2	18.5
	I agree	3.7	11.1
	I strongly agree	0	0
9. I would acquire knowledge related to Translation spontaneously in my free time.	I strongly disagree	11.1	0
	I disagree	14.8	18.5
	I have no comment	33.3	48.1
	I agree	40.7	33.3
	I strongly agree	0	0
<i>When undertaking Chinese-English translation tasks (in-class practice or assignments) ...</i>			
10. I am capable of acquiring the information that I need by making enquiries in Corpora.	I strongly disagree	N/A	0
	I disagree		0
	I have no comment		18.5
	I agree		74.1
	I strongly agree		7.4
11. I often use Corpora to check the words/ phrases that I cannot translate.	I strongly disagree	N/A	0
	I disagree		0
	I have no comment		33.3
	I agree		63.0
	I strongly agree		3.7
12. Checking terminologies in Corpora can help me to use terminologies accurately in the translated text.	I strongly disagree	N/A	3.7
	I disagree		14.8
	I have no comment		14.8
	I agree		51.9
	I strongly agree		14.8

(Continued)

Table B

Question		Midterm %	Final %
13. Checking grammar of words/ phrases in Corpora can help me to use grammar accurately in the translated text.	I strongly disagree	N/A	0
	I disagree		3.7
	I have no comment		22.2
	I agree		66.7
	I strongly agree		7.4
14. Checking collocation of words/ phrases in Corpora can help me to use collocation accurately in the translated text.	I strongly disagree	N/A	0
	I disagree		0
	I have no comment		3.7
	I agree		81.5
	I strongly agree		14.8
15. After checking collocation usage in Corpora, now I know how to find accurate collocation usage.	I strongly disagree	N/A	0
	I disagree		0
	I have no comment		14.8
	I agree		70.4
	I strongly agree		14.8
16. After checking collocation usage in Corpora, I think my capability of using collocation has been greatly improved.	I strongly disagree	N/A	0
	I disagree		0
	I have no comment		25.9
	I agree		59.3
	I strongly agree		14.8
17. Making enquiries in Corpora does not do any help in solving translation problems that I encounter when undertaking translation tasks.	I strongly disagree	N/A	18.5
	I disagree		66.7
	I have no comment		7.4
	I agree		3.7
	I strongly agree		3.7
18. I often cannot find the reference answers that I need when making enquiries in Corpora.	I strongly disagree	N/A	0
	I disagree		48.1
	I have no comment		37.0
	I agree		14.8
	I strongly agree		0
19. Enquiring Corpora with translation problems can motivate my interest in learning translation greatly.	I strongly disagree	N/A	0
	I disagree		0
	I have no comment		37.0
	I agree		48.1
	I strongly agree		14.8

(Continued)

Table B

Question		Midterm %	Final %
20. Enquiring Corpora with translation problems makes me enjoy the translation practice in class even more.	I strongly disagree	N/A	0
	I disagree		0
	I have no comment		29.6
	I agree		55.6
	I strongly agree		14.8
21. Enquiring Corpora with translation problems can increase my confidence in the accuracy of my translated text greatly.	I strongly disagree	N/A	0
	I disagree		0
	I have no comment		11.1
	I agree		74.1
	I strongly agree		14.8
22. I will continue using Corpora in the future to help me solve translation problems.	I strongly disagree	N/A	0
	I disagree		0
	I have no comment		11.1
	I agree		66.7
	I strongly agree		22.2

Representations of Late Ming Culture in English Translations of *Jinpingmei*

Shuang-jin Xiao

The Ming novel *Jinpingmei* 金瓶梅 contains numerous references to late Ming culture and society, which can be extremely challenging when the novel undergoes interlingual translation. The present paper presents a descriptive study of the treatment of cultural references in two English translations of *Jinpingmei*, with a particular focus on the translators' choices and employed strategies for rendering the aforementioned references. Based on Toury's paradigm of descriptive translation studies, the present study employs a mixed-methods design, combining qualitative and quantitative data analysis. The study mainly addresses three topics: How cultural references are treated in the two English translations of *Jinpingmei*; translator tendencies in rendering cultural references; and the possible reasons underlying these tendencies. The findings indicate that the two translators employed numerous strategies ranging from omission to complete retention of cultural references. Egerton demonstrated a tendency to use more domesticating strategies, whereas Roy demonstrated a tendency to employ more foreignizing strategies. The tendencies of the two translators related to rendering cultural references were largely influenced by differing translation philosophies, expectations regarding targeted readerships, and sociohistorical contexts in which the translations emerged. Egerton's tendency toward domestication diluted the late-Ming cultural atmosphere of the original work, improved the fluency and readability of the translation, and improved the accessibility of the translation for target-language readers. Roy's tendency toward foreignization led the translation to have an exotic feel and caused the cultural heterogeneity to be observable, which can enable target readers to learn more about the cultural knowledge and history of the Ming dynasty.

Keywords: cultural references, *Jinpingmei*, translator choices and strategies, domestication and foreignization, cultural reception

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《金瓶梅》中的晚明文化表徵及其英譯策略之探析

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明代小說《金瓶梅》蘊含豐富的晚明文化元素，這些歷史文化資訊給語際翻譯帶來了極大挑戰。本論文旨在對《金瓶梅》中的文化資訊之英譯進行描述性研究，特別關注兩位譯者在翻譯文化內容時所採取的翻譯策略。依據圖裡（Gideon Toury）所提出的描述性翻譯研究範式，本篇論文採用定性和定量分析的研究方法以解決三個問題：《金瓶梅》中不同類型的文化元素是如何翻譯的，譯者主要採取了哪些翻譯方法和策略；兩位譯者所採用的翻譯策略呈現出什麼樣的傾向，是趨向於異化還是歸化；如若有這樣的不同傾向，那麼產生這些傾向的可能原因是什麼，會給譯作和譯文讀者帶來怎樣的影響。研究表明，艾格頓（Clement Egerton）表現出使用更多歸化策略的趨勢，而羅伊（David Tod Roy）表現出使用更多異化策略的趨勢。兩位譯者選擇翻譯策略的不同傾向在很大程度上受到他們所秉持的不同的翻譯理念和各自不同的翻譯目的影響，其次，還受不同譯文讀者的期待規範以及他們翻譯《金瓶梅》時所處的不同社會歷史語境的影響。艾格頓的歸化傾向淡化了原作濃厚的晚明文化氣息，提升了譯文的流暢度和可讀性，使得譯作更容易被目的語讀者所接受。羅伊的異化傾向讓譯文充滿了異域風情，使得文化異質性變得非常明顯，這有利於他的目標讀者了解到更多的明代文化知識以及歷史。

關鍵詞：文化元素、《金瓶梅》、翻譯策略與趨向、歸化與異化、文化接受

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Introduction

Jinpingmei 金瓶梅 is one of the four great novels written in the 16th century during the Ming dynasty (1368-1644). Considered as one of the few classical Chinese novels that could rank with the outstanding novels of the Western tradition, *Jinpingmei* stands out for its grand scope, exquisite characterization, and ingenious plot design (Hightower, 1953, p. 120). Containing rich philosophical, humanistic, and cultural values, the novel has been a source of polemical reactions and the subject of rigorous scholarship. Set in imperial China, this complex and multi-layered book is generally recognized as an encyclopedia of late Ming society mainly for its subtle and realistic delineation of social and cultural detail (Shang, 2005, p. 63). Thematically, *Jinpingmei* revolves around a meticulous depiction of the male protagonist's everyday life. The quotidian minutiae delineated in the story are culturally verisimilitudinous and historically contingent. This and other aspects justify the prodigious appeal the novel has retained till today. *Jinpingmei*'s English translations make an illuminating case for exploring how "Western cultures translated non-Western cultures into Western categories" (Lefevere, 1999, p. 77). One fruitful avenue is to investigate the ways in which the encyclopedic cultural references in *Jinpingmei* are treated in English translations.

Cultural references are grounded in a specific cultural and historical milieu where a text emerges, embodying the value and essence of a civilization. In *Jinpingmei*, cultural references cover a broad spectrum of areas including proper names, rituals, customs, food, religions, domestic objects, allusions, among other things. They are axiomatic and self-explanatory for the source readership but may be disconcertingly unfamiliar and undecipherable to a reader from a different cultural background. The way in which cultural references are handled in translation could affect target recipients' identification with the story and characters. Therefore, it

would be productive to investigate what happens to the culture-specificity when the novel is shifted to another cultural territory through translation.

Several translations of *Jinpingmei* have been published since the 20th century. Of these versions, *The Golden Lotus* (henceforth *Lotus*), rendered by Clement Egerton, and *The Plum in the Golden Vase* (hereafter *Plum*), retranslated by David T. Roy, have become the only two full-length translations currently available in the Anglophone world. *Lotus* came out in 1939 by George Routledge and Sons Ltd. while *Plum* was published by Princeton University Press between 1993 and 2013. Clearly, the two translations appeared in different time periods spanning roughly 60 years, which affords insight into the analysis of translational shifts from a cultural perspective. While several studies investigate the English translations of *Jinpingmei*, both in Chinese and English (Luo, 2014; Qi, 2016, 2018), no scholarly work has been found to carry out a systematic discussion on the treatment of the wide variety of cultural references in this late Ming novel. The relative paucity of scholarly attention in this respect motivates the need to tap into the problematic domain with a view to contributing to this trend.

The translation of cultural reference has been a recurring research topic in the sphere of translation studies. To contribute to the literature, this paper attempts a descriptive study of the treatment of cultural references in the two translations of *Jinpingmei*, focusing in particular on the translators' choices and strategies for dealing with these references. To this end, the paper mainly addresses the following three questions: (1) How cultural references in *Jinpingmei* are dealt with in the two English translations? (2) What are the general tendencies for translators to deal with the transfer of cultural references in *Jinpingmei*? (3) What are the possible causes for the tendencies? To answer these questions, the paper will draw upon theoretical insights and analytical tools derived from descriptive translation studies and cultural studies. It is hoped that the present study can offer a full picture of the

complex operations involved in translating cultural references in the Chinese classic text into English.

Theoretical and Conceptual Framework

For the purpose of the present study, theoretical issues such as cultural references, taxonomy of cultural references, and cultural translation strategies need to be clarified here.

Defining and Categorizing Cultural References

In general terms, cultural references reflect values and dynamics of a specific culture (Schwartz, 2007). They manifest the difference between languages and cultures, which requires cross-cultural mediation and negotiation in the translation process. Translating from one culture to another can bring new ideas, concepts, and facts to the recipients whose cultural horizons can thus be expanded (Komissarov, 1991, p. 46). In the sphere of translation studies, cultural references receive different nominations and can be referred to as culturemes, culture-specific items, culture-specific references, and extralinguistic cultural references (Aixelà, 1996; Nord, 1997; Pedersen, 2007; Ranzato, 2015). This paper, however, adopts the term cultural references as an umbrella term to avoid terminological confusion.

There are several definitions regarding cultural references, which are nevertheless not significantly different in general. Aixelà (1996) posits that cultural references pose a translation problem because of the nonexistence or of the different value of these references in the receiving culture (p. 57). He defines cultural references as “those textually actualized items whose function and connotations in a source text involve a translation problem in their transference to a target text” (Aixelà, 1996, p. 58). Due to its distance from the target culture,

Mailhac (1996) understands a cultural reference as a cultural entity which is characterized by a high degree of opacity for the target reader to constitute a problem (p. 134). According to Olk (2013), cultural references are identified as names of objects or concepts in the source text that do not exist or do not have lexical equivalents (i.e., denotations and connotations) available in the translating culture (p. 346). In literature, as Rura (2015) contends, cultural references are referred to as textual units of any length alluding to historical and cultural phenomena and facts with few or no equivalents in other languages (p. 258).

The above understandings of cultural references are similar in highlighting the fact that cultural references register strong national and regional identity inscribed in the source texts. In this study, however, cultural references are defined in a different fashion for their diversity and complexity inherent in the source text under study. To be specific, cultural references refer to words or word-formations that indicate objects, facts, and subjects peculiar to the life, culture, or social development of the Chinese nation, and that manifest a strong national, historical, or even stylistic coloring which remains unfamiliar or totally unknown to most Westerners and requires huge cognitive effort for comprehension. Due to the difference between languages and cultures, the translation of cultural references means a challenge to translators as the form and function of these references differ in the cultures compared (Katan, 1999). It is thus not surprising that the handling of cultural references in translation has been deemed as one of the most challenging “cultural bumps” (Leppihalme, 1997).

As a rule, cultural references can fall into different categories. Several scholars have developed taxonomies to divide different types of cultural references. For instance, Nida (1964) proposes five categories of cultural references which may lead to translational dilemmas: ecological culture, material culture, social culture, religious culture, and linguistic culture (p. 91). Newmark (1988) similarly

produces five types of cultural references, including ecological culture, material culture, social culture, institutional culture, and gestures and habits (p. 96). Chen (1999) divides cultural references into just three main groups: material culture, institutional culture, and mental culture. Certain overlapping or interweaving areas can be observed in these typologies. More recently, another interesting framework is offered by Ditzel (2006), who groups cultural images in literary works into non-personal, transpersonal, and personal dimensions (p. 52). An obvious disadvantage for Ditzel's framework is that the three dimensions cannot be defined very clearly. Therefore, Nida's taxonomic framework is considered most relevant to this study, which will be specified in a later section.

Cultural Translation Strategies: Domestication and Foreignization

The notion of translation strategy plays an essential role in translation studies research. It has significant implications for both translation scholarship and translation practice. Lörcher (1991) identifies translation strategy as "a potentially conscious procedure for the solution of a problem which an individual is faced with when translating a text segment from one language into another" (p. 76). Chesterman (1997) posits that translation strategies are goal-oriented procedures which are identifiable from the translated text compared with its source text (p. 89). These procedures are governed by the choices the translators make from among several alternatives (Chesterman, 1997, p. 90). Apropos of the choice of translation strategy, Friedrich Schleiermacher considered there to be two paths or choices open for a translator: "Either the translator leaves the writer alone as much as possible and moves the reader toward the writer, or he leaves the reader alone as much as possible and moves the writer toward the reader" (Schleiermacher, 1813/1992, p. 41). Schleiermacher's preferred strategy is moving the reader to the writer as this can give the reader the same impression that the translator would receive while reading the text

in the source language. To this end, the translator can adopt an “alienating” rather than a “naturalizing” method of translation to valorize the foreign and to convey that to the target text (Schleiermacher, 1813/1992, p. 43). Lawrence Venuti, however, takes this a step further and puts forward the two concepts of domestication and foreignization, which are instrumental in exploring and solving cultural translation problems.

According to Venuti, domestication is a global strategy of translation. It involves translating in a transparent, fluent, and invisible style in order to minimize the foreignness of the original text and to adapt to target literary canons or discourse types (Venuti, 1995, p. 19). Hence, the domesticating strategy would entail “an ethnocentric reduction of the foreign text to target-language cultural values, bringing the author back home” (Venuti, 1995, p. 20). While domestication serves broader domestic agendas, it can nevertheless facilitate the understanding of the target text on the part of the general reading public.

Unlike domestication, foreignization is a type of translation which can resist fluency and “register the linguistic and cultural difference of the foreign text, sending the reader abroad” (Venuti, 1995, p. 20). The choice of foreignizing strategy can make visible the translator, manifest the foreign identity or cultural specificity of the source work, and contend with the dominance of fluent, transparent translation strategies (Venuti, 1995, p. 311). Like Schleiermacher, Venuti (1995) argues for a foreignizing translation as it is more desirable and instrumental in breaking target conventions and in signifying the otherness when a foreign text is transposed to a hegemonic culture (p. 311). While foreignization can enact an alien reading experience, it may demand the target reader to expend more cognitive effort for perceiving and interpreting a foreignized text.

In effect, domestication and foreignization strategies have political, ideological, and ethical implications. They have taken a central position in discussions of translation strategies in Anglophone contexts (Snell-Hornby, 2006,

p. 147). They take into consideration the impact of translation products on the receiving audiences as well as the target cultures. It should be noted, however, that the two approaches, domestication and foreignization, are not binary opposites. In view of this, Venuti (1998) contends that:

Both sets of terms demarcate a spectrum of textual and cultural effects that depend for their description and evaluation on the relation between a translation project and the hierarchical arrangement of values in the receiving situation at a particular historical moment. (p. 19)

Therefore, it seems that there should be a continuum existing between domestication and foreignization regarding a given translation (Van Poucke, 2012, p. 139). In practice, no source text can be totally foreignized or thoroughly domesticated in the translation process. In other words, domestication and foreignization should be coexistent in any translation but normally there is a predominant strategy that can be identified as the general tendency for the translator to render a given source text or certain aspects of it. In the present study, for instance, one of the research aims is to determine the general tendency for each translator (i.e., Egerton & Roy) in dealing with the transfer of cultural references.

Research Methods

Methodologically, the present study is positioned within the paradigm of descriptive translation studies (DTS) (Toury, 1995). This paradigm aims to compare source and target texts, identify translational shifts and describe translational phenomena. It relies on empirical evidence and favors the case study method combining quantitative and qualitative data analysis. Based on the DTS paradigm, this study resorts to a mixed-method design which combines quantitative and qualitative approaches.

To address the questions proposed in the introductory section, the study is divided into two phases. In the first phase, a qualitative textual analysis is presented. Due to space limitations, it is unfeasible to take account of all cultural references in *Jinpingmei* as the novel is a magnum opus with one-hundred chapters. As such, several illustrative examples are singled out from the source text and compared against the English renderings with special attention to translational shifts and their effects. In the second phase, the study moves on to a quantitative data analysis, which can complement or to corroborate the findings obtained from qualitative analysis. The quantitative data consists of textual samples collected at random from the source and target texts to establish a bilingual corpus for statistic analysis. The statistical analysis is concerned with the frequencies of the translators' deployment of concrete strategies for rendering cultural references.

To facilitate qualitative analysis, all selected cultural references are categorized according to Nida's proposed taxonomy of cultural references, who posits five major categories of cultural references, as listed in Table 1 below. Nida's (1964) model is relevant as it can distinguish cultural references according to their nature. More significantly, this taxonomy can incorporate all key cultural references in the corpus under study.

Table 1


Categorization of Cultural References

linguistic culture:	terms of address, idiomatic expressions, etc.
material culture:	food, drinks, clothes, goods, instruments, etc.
social culture:	customs, festivals, organizations, etc.
religious culture:	religious beliefs, values, names of deities, etc.
ecological culture:	landscape, flora and fauna, geography, etc.

Note. Adapted from Nida's typology, by E. A. Nida, 1964, p. 91. Copyright 1964 by Brill Archive.

Once cultural references are selected and categorized, it is necessary to classify the concrete procedures and strategies as they will be used to describe translational shifts. However, the procedures and strategies, as proposed in previous studies (Aixelà, 1996, pp. 52-78; Cintas & Remael, 2007, p. 202), are adapted to the specificity of the present study. The adapted typology is illustrated in Table 2 below. Notably, the procedures are positioned along a continuum based on the paradigm of foreignization and domestication. This paradigm serves as the most important theoretical underpinning for this study.

Table 2*Typology of Procedures and Strategies for Rendering Cultural References*

	Domestication (TT oriented)	Omission	CRs are ignored or deleted in the target text
		Substitution	CRs are replaced with target cultural items easier to be understood
		Paraphrase	using familiar terms to explain the original CRs
		Generalization	simplifying those complex CRs
		Literal translation	translating CRs verbatim or in a word-for-word way
		Explicitation	over-literal transfer; representing the full meaning of CRs
		Calque	inventing new lexical terms based on the source writing system
	Foreignization (ST oriented)	Transliteration	using the source pinyin system to represent CRs in the target text

The above typology represents a more relevant classification of translation procedures and strategies that translators have deployed to deal with cultural references in the corpus under study. The various procedures and strategies will be exemplified in the ensuing qualitative and quantitative analysis.

Qualitative Textual Analysis

Following the methodology established in the previous section, this section presents a qualitative textual analysis. To facilitate discussion, cultural references appear in bold; the source text is abbreviated as ST while the target text as TT. Additionally, TT1 indicates Egerton's translation while TT2 refers to Roy's version. 11 sets of examples are analyzed and discussed. All the examples are numbered sequentially. The discussion begins with the category of linguistic culture.

Translating Cultural References at the Linguistic Level

In this subsection, special attention is paid to terms of address and several idiomatic expressions.

Terms of Address

It is true that most Chinese kinship terms take multiple shapes and are rather difficult to find English counterparts for due to the big difference between cultures.

Table 3

Honorifics and Self-Abasing Terms

ST	TT1	TT2
官人貴庚？沒了娘子多少時了？西門慶道：「小人虛度二十八歲，不幸先妻沒了一年有餘」。(Xiao, 2012, p. 61)	"How old is this gentleman and how long is it since his lady died?" "I have misspent twenty-eight years," Ximen Qing said, "and my wife unfortunately died more than a year ago." (Egerton, 2011a, p. 109)	"How old are you, sir ," the woman asked, "and how long has your wife been dead?" "I'm twenty-seven," said Hsi-men Ch'ing, "and I was born on the twenty-eighth day of the seventh month, at midnight. Unfortunately my former wife has been dead now for more than a year." (Roy, 1993, p. 134)

In Table 3, expressions such as *guanren* 官人, *niangzi* 娘子, *xiaoren* 小人, and *xianqi* 先妻 in the ST are honorifics and self-abasing terms used in premodern Chinese society. Faced by this reality, Kwong claims that an appropriate strategy would be “to abide by the original’s basic semantic meaning, keeping reductive or distorting interpretation of the text to a minimum, and letting the translated language generate its artistic chemistry” (Kwong, 2011, p. 200). In TT1, *guanren* is substituted with “gentleman”; *niangzi* and *xianqi* are generalized as “lady” and “my wife.” In TT2, *guanren* is substituted with “sir”; *niangzi* is substituted with “your wife”; *xianqi* which means “deceased wife” in the ST is translated word-for-word as “my former wife.” The term *xiaoren* is substituted with “I” in both translations. Due to cultural difference between Chinese and English, these elegant terms of address cannot find equivalents in the target language. The English renderings have conveyed the original’s semantic meanings but nevertheless suppressed the cultural and historical significance of these forms of address.

Slang Terms, Jargon, and Colloquialisms

Jinpingmei is rich in colloquial language. For instance, slang and pithy sayings used by the narrator and characters create ambience and humorous effect. This makes the story authentic, lively, and interesting. The following examples show how different colloquialisms in the ST fare in translation.

Table 4

Slang Terms, Jargon, and Colloquialisms (1)

ST	TT1	TT2
他胸中才學，果然班馬之上，就是人品，也孔孟之流。(Xiao, 2012, p. 507)	He is a learned man and will stand comparison with Ban and Sima . He is a follower of Confucius . (Egerton, 2011b, p. 37)	The talent and learning he has acquired actually make him superior to Pan Ku or Ssu-ma Ch’ien , while, as for his personal integrity, he is in a class with Confucius and Mencius . (Roy, 2006, p. 387)

In Table 4, colloquial expressions such as *banmazhishang* 班馬之上 and *kongmengzhiliu* 孔孟之流 in the ST contain allusions to historical figure in ancient China. Precisely, *banma* 班馬 alludes to the historians *Ban Gu* 班固 and *Sima Qian* 司馬遷 of China's Han dynasty (BC 202-220); *kongmeng* 孔孟 alludes to the ancient philosophers *Confucius* 孔子 and *Mencius* 孟子 of China's Spring-Autumn and Warring States Period (BC 770-BC 221). Obviously, the Egerton translation here is characterized by simplification and generalization in rendering the original allusions. Yet the translation remains fluent and natural in general, for the benefit of the target reader. In contrast, TT2 is a literal translation, which has retained intact both the original content and syntactic style. In TT2, all allusions in the ST are preserved, which builds a bridge for target readers to access Chinese historical figures. In Berman's (1992) parlance, "a good translation retains this strangeness even as it makes the work accessible to us" (p. 24).

Table 5

Slang Terms, Jargon, and Colloquialisms (2)

ST	TT1	TT2
又有幾個服侍的小廝也一個個都是標緻龍陽的。 (Xiao, 2012, p. 509)	There were a host of beautiful maids there and several good-looking boys . (Egerton, 2011b, p. 39)	Moreover, there were also a number of page boys, each and every one of which was a good-looking catamite . (Roy, 2006, p. 392)

As with *biaozhilongyang* 標緻龍陽 in Table 5, it is an allusion to *Longyang jun* 龍陽君, a famous gay man with political wisdom in ancient China, and later the name loosely refers to male homosexuals in Chinese society. Obviously, TT1 downplays the ST's cultural image in its pursuit of generalization by offering a more neutral equivalent. In TT2, the term "catamite" is a substitution of the Chinese original, which can invoke a similar association in the target reader. In

Collins English Dictionary (online edition), the word “catamite” is defined as a boy or youth who is used for sexual purposes by a man in ancient Greece and Rome. By recontextualizing the Chinese allusion, TT2 is helpful for conjuring a sexual image on the part of the receiving audience, despite that it fails to reveal the cultural and historical significance of the SL term.

Table 6

Slang Terms, Jargon, and Colloquialisms (3)

ST	TT1	TT2
「你家第五的秋胡戲，你娶他來家多少時了？是女招的，是後婚兒來？」西門慶道：「也是回頭人兒。」 (Xiao, 2012, p. 204)	“Was your Fifth Lady married before she came here?” she heard Huilian say. “Yes,” Ximen replied, “she is one of the changeable kind .” (Egerton, 2011a, p. 289)	“How long is it since you married that fifth ‘ object of Ch’iu Hu’s roving eye ’ of yours? Was she a virgin when you married her, or had she been married before?” “She’d been married before ,” said His-men Ch’ing. (Roy, 2001, p. 53)

In Table 6, we can observe that the dialogue is colloquial and humorous. In Chinese, *qiuhuxi* 秋胡戲 is another literary allusion. It is associated with a man named *Qiu Hu* 秋胡 from the Lu State (BC 1032-BC 249) in ancient China, who left home for three years, leaving his wife alone; on his way back home one day, he met a beautiful woman and flirted with her; the woman was Qiu Hu’s wife, but he didn’t recognize her; after knowing the truth, Qiu Hu’s wife committed suicide (He, 1990, p. 479). The allusion appearing in works of literature generally refers to someone’s wife and at times suggests a mistress. *Huitouren* 回頭人 is a euphemistic epithet used to satirize remarried women, and *nuzhao* 女招 indicates an unmarried virgin. All the references entail sarcasm and pejorativeness, reflecting the speaker’s attitude. Pesaro (2021) remarks that “[t]ranslation carried out as a form of literary mediation should enhance the cognitive and emotional impact the literary text produces on the

readers” (p. 82). TT2 achieves this effect while TT1 is virtually neutralized to a great extent.

Specifically, in TT2, *qiu huxi* is adequately converted to the “object of Ch’iu Hu’s roving eye.” The satirical overtones are reproduced through explicitation and transliteration. *Nuzhao* is paraphrased as “virgin” which approximates to the original. *Huitouren* is paraphrased as “married before,” which is fully equivalent to the original meaning. In principle, TT2 captures the original spirit and reproduces the vividness and jocosity of the dialogue. It can be concluded that TT2 shows a foreignizing touch in this example.

By comparison, TT1 gives a very fluent version in which the two terms *qiu huxi* and *nuzhao* are omitted all together. The term *huitouren* is paraphrased, causing a change in the meaning of the text intended by the novelist. Clearly, TT1 downplays the colloquial effect of the source text. It fails to draw the reader’s attention to the affective associations attached to the culture-bound lexis. Despite fluency and accessibility, the choice made in TT1 removes the tantalizing and humorous tone of the original which should have been realized for the target reader.

Translating Cultural References at the Material Level

Jinpingmei is a novel of manners and many plots take place in the domestic setting, namely the male protagonist’s household. The novel’s focuses on the delineation of the protagonists’ daily life and activities in various perspectives. The protagonist, Ximen Qing, is a wealthy merchant and official who lead extravagant life with his wife and mistresses. In the novel, a variety of material concepts are presented, which renders the story exceedingly authentic and realistic. The material elements reflect culture and values and assert national identity of the source-language text. More significantly, material culture in its differing forms and types functions as crucial thematic constructs and a central motif in *Jinpingmei*. What

will be discussed in the following includes food and drinks for which target audiences do not share the same value as the source readership due to the lack of probable cultural equivalents. Terms referring to material culture are therefore worthy to be translated adequately so that their cultural imagery could be fully transposed to the target culture.

Table 7

Food and Wine (1)

ST	TT1	TT2
唱畢，吃了元宵，韓道國先往家去了。(Xiao, 2012, p. 376)	When the song was ended, they ate the pastries . Han Daoguo was the first to go home. (Egerton, 2011a, p. 509)	When the singing was over, they ate the Lantern Festival dumplings , and then Han Tao-kuo was the first to go home. (Roy, 2006, p. 35)

In Table 7, *yuanxiao* 元宵 refers to a special type of food enjoyed by people at the Lantern Festival. It certainly possesses significant social value because it triggers associations with traditional Chinese festivals. A cursory glance at the two English texts shows that the term *yuanxiao* is substituted with “pastries” in TT1. The cultural and symbolic value of the term is lost in translation. TT2 is a literal translation as *yuanxiao* is directly rendered as the “Lantern Festival dumplings.” The meaning and linguistic designation are conveyed to the target reader, including the emotive value of this special food. The exotic flavor of the source culture figure prominently in TT2. Table 8 below showcases a concentration of food-related cultural references in the ST.

Table 8

Food and Wine (2)

ST	TT1	TT2
先綽邊兒放了四疊果子、四疊小菜、又是四疊案酒：一疊頭魚、一疊糟鴨、一疊烏皮雞、一疊舞鱸公。(Xiao, 2012, p. 439)	There were three or four plates of fruits , four smaller and four larger dishes to accompany the wine. There was one dish of fish head , one of preserved duck , one of chicken and one of sea porch . (Egerton, 2011a, p. 585)	To begin with, there were four saucers of nuts , and four saucers of appetizers . Then there were another four dishes to complement the wine, namely, one saucer of bullhead , one saucer of duck preserved in a fermented wine mash , one saucer of black-bone chicken , and one saucer of still wriggling male sculpin . (Roy, 2006, p. 198)

While the importance of food to Chinese culture is well known, Chinese cuisine remains largely unknown in the Western world. Few specifically Chinese foods have been introduced to Western society due to profound cultural difference. Therefore, it is hard to find equivalents in the receptor culture when Chinese dishes get translated into English. The presentation of food and wine in *Jinpingmei* is important for plot advancement and characterization, so it is a necessary object of translation. Yet, it is by no means easy to convey the aesthetic characteristics of food names in a different culture.

Evidently, TT1 is condensed by omission of the signals of luxury and copiousness included in the ST. The terms *touyu* 頭魚, *zaoya* 糟鴨, *wupiji* 烏皮雞, and *wulugung* 舞鱸公 are generalized in TT1 but are explicitated in TT2. The preparation methods, ingredients, and utensils for the dishes are well represented to target readers through explicitation in TT2. Thus, it appears that TT2 manifests the value and significance of the food discourses in the original for prospective readers. We should bear in mind that the extravagance and luxury apparent in the food-choices are an index of the social and economic status of the protagonist's family as portrayed in *Jinpingmei*.

As Garzone (2017) argues, “food choices are...social or religious belonging, as often within a given culture certain kinds of foods are prescribed or proscribed to different categories of persons” (p. 218). As the food names and variety have been created intentionally by the novelist, it is crucial to make target readers aware of the level of detail in translation to help them immerse themselves in the fictive world and better perceive the minutiae of the story. Additionally, the sensory experience and exotic flavor stand out markedly in TT2, which conjures up a vivid and varied image of the Chinese culinary culture depicted in the novel. The treatment of foodstuffs in TT2 illustrates the advantage of foreignization as described by Venuti (1995) because it reaffirms the alien façade of the ST and preserves cultural diversity (p. 305).

Translating Cultural References at the Social Level

Social culture concerns a variety of cultural references which include customs, folk activities, organizations, habits and the like. In *Jinpingmei*, there are references to traditional festivals and folk customs unfamiliar to English-speaking audiences. The translation of these specific concepts is often problematic. The following examples illustrate how social culture is treated by the translators.

Traditional Festivals

Several traditional festivals are mentioned in the novel, which increases cultural barriers for interlingual translation.

Table 9

Traditional Festivals

ST	TT1	TT2
一日，將近端陽佳節。 (Xiao, 2012, p. 54)	It was the Dragon Boat Festival . (Egerton, 2011a, p. 101)	One day the Dragon Boat Festival , on the fifth day of the fifth month , rolled around. (Roy, 1993, p. 117) Light and darkness alternate swiftly. Before long the
光陰迅速，又早九月重 陽。(Xiao, 2012, p. 111)	The days passed quickly. It was the Feast of the Ancestral Tombs . (Egerton, 2011a, p. 175)	Double Yang festival, on the ninth day of the ninth month rolled around. (Roy, 1993, p. 259)

In Table 9, the two English translations appear similar in dealing with the cultural reference *duanyangjiajie* 端陽佳節. Both versions are literally rendered as “Dragon Boat Festival” which is a calque/loanword in the English language. The festival is held in memory of *Qu Yuan* 屈原, a great poet and scholar, on the fifth day of the fifth lunar month. In TT2, the date of this traditional Chinese festival is presented to make readers from a remote culture more familiar with it. Both the Gregorian calendar and the lunar calendar are in use in Chinese society, but traditional Chinese festivals are based on the latter. It turns out that TT2 works fine through mentioning the month and date of the festival. It is a clear example of explicitation.

Noticeably, *chongyang* 重陽 is a quintessentially Chinese festival. It falls on the ninth day of the ninth lunar month. The number “nine” in Chinese culture represents a *yang* 陽 number according to *Yijing* 易經 (*The Book of Changes*). As this day contains two nine’s, it is also called the Double Yang Festival. Comparing the two English versions, TT2 unpacks the original connotations and fleshes out the cultural difference by coining a new term, pointing to the underlying cultural alterity. By comparison, TT1 is a paraphrase for the original term, which preserves the cultural information in the ST.

As Venuti puts it, translations are hoped to show respect for the source culture

through producing “a correspondence that enlarges, amplifies and enriches the translating language” (Venuti, 1998, p. 81). TT2 shows this respect for the ST in manifesting cultural difference.

Customs, Practices, and Games

Jinpingmei contains exhaustive descriptions of the characters’ daily activities, such as gaming, singing, praying, and the like. These items constitute traditional customs and rituals. Some of these traditions may have a long history in China but may not have survived in contemporary society. Hence, they have become parts of cultural heritage. In the following, some typical examples will be discussed.

Table 10

Customs, Practices, and Games (1)

ST	TT1	TT2
西門慶又脫下他一隻繡花鞋兒，擎在手內，放一小杯酒在內，吃鞋杯耍子。(Xiao, 2012, p. 57)	Ximen took off one of her embroidered shoes, poured a cup of wine into it, and drank. (Egerton, 2011a, p. 104)	His-men Ch’ing took off one of her embroidered shoes, held it in his hand while he put a little cup of wine in it, and then drank a “shoe cup” for the fun of it. (Roy, 1993, p. 123)
他在家跟著人走百病去了。(Xiao, 2012, p. 212)	She had been out on the walk to cure the hundred illnesses . (Egerton, 2011a, p. 298)	She had joined some neighbors in “walking off the hundred ailments.” (Roy, 2001, p. 72)

In Table 10, *xiebei* 鞋杯 is a kind of kitsch game played by scholar-officials in imperial China. In *Jinpingmei*, it is played by Ximen Qing and Pan Jinlian, the male and female protagonists, in the sixth chapter. It is no longer existent in China today. To put it differently, the game has become a historical phenomenon in the source culture and is relevant for advancing the plot. Thus, it is necessary to preserve this cultural marker in translation. In TT1, the term *xiebei* is omitted, so the cultural mark is absent from the translation. However, in TT2, it is valued and

kept relatively intact by calquing a new term, “shoe cup,” which transmits the denotative meaning well and preserves the source cultural image.

Additionally, *zoubaibing* 走百病 was a superstitious activity performed during the Lantern Festival when women in ancient China went out onto the city streets to eliminate misfortunes and pray for blessings for themselves and their family. It does not mean curing illness but implies praying not to fall ill. In TT1, the referential meaning of the cultural term is distorted, presenting the reader with a potential misconception. In contrast, TT2 is more source-oriented, and the cultural connotation of the term is also illuminated through literal transfer.

Table 11

Customs, Practices, and Games (2)

ST	TT1	TT2
旋邀了應伯、謝希大來打雙陸。良久，都出來院子內投壺耍子。(Xiao, 2012, p. 166)	He invited Ying Bojue and Xie Xida to play backgammon with him. After a while they all went to the courtyard to play Arrows through the Jar . (Egerton, 2011a, p. 246)	Later on, he sent someone to invite Ying Po-chueh and Hsieh His-ta to join him for a game of backgammon . After a while, they went into the courtyard together and amused themselves by playing at “pitch-pot.” (Roy, 1993, p. 393)

In Table 11, two kinds of folk activities are delineated in the source text, namely *dashuanglu* 打雙陸 and *touhushuazi* 投壺耍子. The two games have great importance for plot and characterization but are probably unfamiliar to an English addressee because there are no such activities in the receptor culture. Comparing the two translations illustrates that *dashuanglu* is rendered verbatim as “backgammon” in both versions. Yet, *touhushuazi* is treated differently. In TT1, it is rendered as “play Arrows through the Jar” which is easily comprehensible for a target audience but detracts from the original too much. In TT2, the cultural item is treated with a defamiliarizing effect. The calqued term “pitch-pot” is more accurate because it

captures the nuances of the game and adds a certain amount of local flavor on the reader. The intended reader is made aware that it is a sort of folk tradition from a different culture, thus reaffirming the foreign cultural imagery. Yet, a shortcoming is that it may not be easily comprehensible to the general reader unless an illustration of the game can be offered as a guide.

Translating Cultural References at the Religious Level

In Chinese society, three important religions, namely Confucianism, Taoism, and Buddhism, have powerful impacts on language and culture, although Confucianism is considered by many as a philosophical school rather than a religion. As essential parts of Chinese culture, the three religions influence Chinese people's social life, ideology, and values. Religious elements are commonplace in traditional Chinese fiction, carrying important hallmarks of Chinese history and culture. As far as *Jinpingmei* is concerned, the book incorporates numerous references to Buddhism and Taoism which are relevant to plot structure and characterization. In Anglophone culture, Christianity is the predominant religion and exerts a powerful influence on various aspects of the English-speaking audience's lives and ways of thinking. Religious differences between China and the Western world can play a crucial role in cross-cultural encounters. This is mainly due to mismatches in interpreting and valuing religious phenomena. Some translation problems can be found in the religious concepts contained in *Jinpingmei*. The following are prime examples which may illustrate whether and how religious culture is conveyed in the two translations.

Table 12

Religious Culture

ST	TT1	TT2
阿彌陀佛！這是西門老爹門首麼？(Xiao, 2012, p. 512)	Outside the gate, he called loudly upon Buddha and asked: “Is this the noble Ximen’s house? (Egerton, 2011b, p. 43)	Amitabha Buddha! Is this the gate to the residence of His Honor His-men Ch’ing? (Roy, 2006, p. 402)
咱聞那佛祖西天，也只不過要黃金鋪地，陰司十殿，也要些楮鏰營求。(Xiao, 2012, p. 515)	Besides, they tell me that gold is not despised, even in Paradise , and, in the ten regions of Hell , money is at a premium. (Egerton, 2011b, p. 47)	I’ve heard it said of the Jetavana Park, in the western realm of the Buddhist patriarch himself, that it was only acquired after the grounds were paved with gold and that even in the Ten Courts of the Underworld , something in the way of paper money is required if one is to survive. (Roy, 2006, p. 411)
怪不的那賊淫婦死了，墮阿鼻地獄！(Xiao, 2012, p. 252)	When that thievish whore died, she went to the lowest depths of Hell . (Egerton, 2011a, p. 346)	No wonder that lousy whore went straight to the Avici Hell when she died. (Roy, 2001, p. 164)

In Table 12, religious references are concerned with Buddhism. To illustrate, *amitufo* 阿彌陀佛 is one of the many Buddhas. It is generalized as “Buddha” in TT1 but is rendered adequately as “Amitabha Buddha” in TT2. The referential meaning is made explicit in TT2 through literal rendition. The references *fozuxitian* 佛祖西天 and *yinsishidian* 陰司十殿 are specific to Buddhism. In TT1, both religious expressions are domesticated through substitution with terms more familiar to the target audience. In contrast, in TT2, the two elements are literally transferred by foreignizing the Buddhist concepts. The religious content is conveyed to the reader and a better understanding of the text can be attained in TT2. In the same vein, *abidiyu* 阿鼻地獄 is reduced to a familiar term easily comprehensible for an intended audience in TT1. In TT2, it is rendered verbatim as “Avici Hell” with the source religious color left intact. It seems that TT2 is characterized by the frequent use of more academic or professional vocabulary to interpret religious references in the ST.

Translating Cultural References at the Ecological Level

The final dimension concerns cultural references featuring nature and geography. In *Jinpingmei*, natural scenes, weather, historical locations, flora and fauna are vividly portrayed. They may have less relevance to plot or characterization but can determine a specific cultural setting and add a certain amount of local color. They may also contribute to certain images of Chinese culture as there is the tradition of “exhausting meaning through images” in Chinese literature (Cao, 2010, p. 31). In translation, they constitute a major locus of cultural representation and manipulation. In addition, the ecological references have multiple levels of metaphorical associations in different cultures. In Chinese literary texts, depictions of nature, plants, animals, and place names are highly charged with rhetorical qualities and symbolic value. Cross-cultural problems may emerge as to what translatorial choices should be made. The following examples may illustrate this point.

Table 13

Ecological References

ST	TT1	TT2
又有耐寒君子竹、欺雪大夫松。(Xiao, 2012, p. 160)	They looked at the bamboos that bore the cold like supermen , and the proud pine trees boldly contemptuous of the snow . (Egerton, 2011a, p. 239)	That “ cold-enduring gentleman ,” the bamboo , and that “ snow-despising grandee ,” the pine . (Roy, 1993, p. 379)

In Table 13, bamboo and pine trees are two kinds of plants that symbolize tenacity and stamina in the Chinese cultural tradition. Here in the source text, bamboo is likened to a gentleman while pine trees are compared to scholar-officials. TT1 is a paraphrastic translation which reveals the intended metaphorical meaning. TT1 conveys to the reader a scene which is similarly evocative in visual terms as the

source text. Likewise, TT2 invokes the original imagery and conveys the cultural context of the original expression. The beauty and emotive value of the original metaphorical expression are preserved in this literal, or word-for-word translation. Newmark (1988) posits that if the artistic work with a strong local flavor and if the culture is as important as the message, a literal transfer is preferred (p. 11). TT2 creatively adds an exotic flavor through literal rendition.

Quantitative Statistical Analysis

The qualitative textual analysis offered in the preceding section gives the impression that Egerton's translation is basically target-oriented while Roy's stays closer to the source culture. Egerton mainly adopts procedures such as paraphrase, generalization, and omission, whereas Roy deploys literal translation, calquing, transliteration, and explicitation. This section seeks to complement the qualitative textual analysis with quantitative approaches to present a fuller picture of the difference in handling cultural references between the two translators. Quantitative analysis can help validate qualitative study by widening the analytical scope. Thus, a statistical analysis will be carried out to determine the frequencies of the translation procedures and strategies employed by Egerton and Roy.

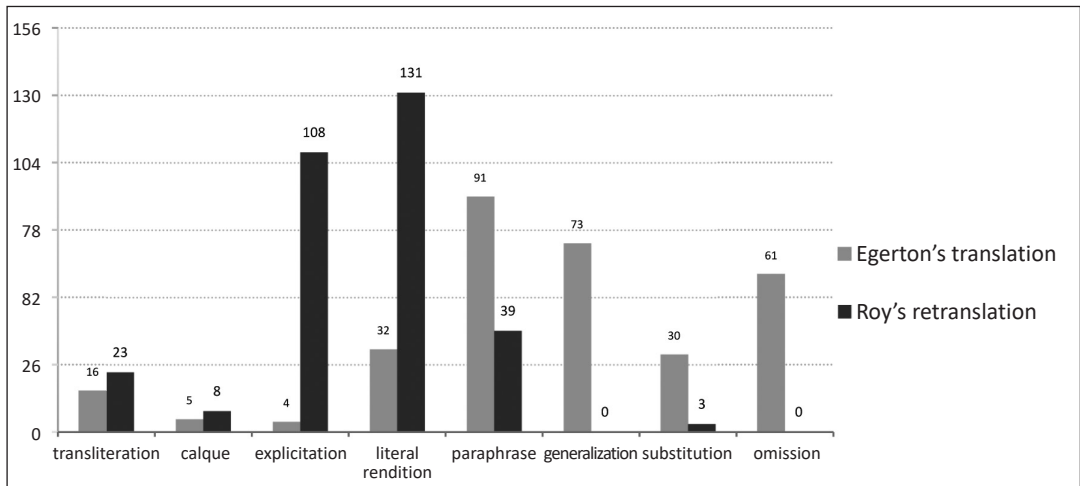
The number of cultural references in *Jinpingmei* is large. It would be unfeasible to take into account all of them in this small paper. Based on Nida's typology of cultural references, a total of 312 samples are randomly selected to form the corpus for statistical analysis. The corpus can allow us to discern the tendency followed by each translator in rendering cultural references. Of course, the corpus may not allow the researcher to obtain any generalizable results which certainly demand a larger-scale corpus. This will be a future work. The procedures and strategies are subsumed under the principles of foreignization and

domestication as indicated in Section three. The frequency of each procedure is calculated to show the general tendencies of the two translators.

As outlined in Section three, foreignization normally involves calquing, literal translation, transliteration, and explicitation while domestication involves omission, substitution, generalization, and paraphrase. Figure 1 below shows the frequency of procedures and tactics used by Egerton and Roy.

Figure 1

Distribution of Procedures and Strategies Used by Egerton and Roy



Egerton's translation has a great number of instances of generalization, paraphrase, and omission, amounting to around 225 instances. This contrasts with Roy's translation, which features over 200 instances of literal rendition and explicitation, about half the total number in the corpus. Paraphrase is less common in Roy's translation, adding up to less than 40 instances, but omission is used very sparingly. This quantitative result almost concurs with the qualitative textual analysis carried out in the preceding section. In the textual analysis, Egerton's solution-types are more flexible or more diversified than Roy's in rendering the

wide variety of cultural references in *Jinpingmei*. This shows that Egerton's renderings appear fluent, readable, and easily comprehensible on the part of the target English-language readers. Roy's renderings have a strong foreignizing, or exotic effect, but this does not suggest that Roy totally gives up domestication tactics. In fact, both translators adopt foreignizing and domesticating methods in the process of translating cultural references, as can be seen in the percentages presented in the following.

As for the percentages of procedures and strategies employed by Egerton and Roy, Table 14 and Table 15 below demonstrate that Roy uses the foreignizing strategy around 270 times (with a percentage as high as 86.53) and makes few concessions to the domesticating strategy (with a percentage as low as 13.46).

Table 14

Percentages of Procedures and Strategies Adopted by Egerton and by Roy

	transli- teration	calque	explici- tation	literal rendition	para- phrase	generali- zation	substi- tution	omi- ssion
Egerton's translation	5.12	1.60	1.28	10.25	29.16	23.39	9.61	19.55
Roy's retranslation	7.37	2.56	34.61	41.98	12.5	0	0.96	0

Table 15

Tendencies Towards Domestication and Foreignization in the Two Translations

	foreignization		domestication	
	total	percentage	total	percentage
Egerton's translation	57	18.26	255	81.73
Roy's retranslation	270	86.53	42	13.46

By comparison, paraphrase (29.16%) is the most frequently used procedure in Egerton's translation, and generalization (23.39%) and omission (19.55%) are also common. Thus, the statistics show two different tendencies largely established in the process of rendering cultural references in *Jinpingmei*. Egerton's translation leans to domestication while Roy's translation has a marked foreignizing tendency. The tendencies have implications for understanding the translators' cultural attitudes towards the source text and their positioning in presenting translations to the intended audience. They also encourage us to look at the factors and the extra-textual influences during the translation process, which will be discussed in the next section.

The statistical data also indicate that neither of the translators has recourse to exclusively domesticating or exclusively foreignizing strategies in rendering cultural references. Rather, their translational strategies fall along the continuum of domestication and foreignization with different frequencies. This concurs with Venuti's observation that foreignization and domestication are not binary opposites but should be perceived as a question of degree in rendering a given source text (Venuti, 1998, p. 13). The next section will explain the significance of the findings and discuss the relevant factors contributing to the different tendencies for the two translators.

Discussion and Conclusion

In light of the descriptive analysis in the previous two sections, and based on the main findings, it can be concluded that Egerton demonstrates a domesticating tendency to render cultural references in *Jinpingmei* whereas Roy shows a foreignizing tendency to deal with these elements. The different tendencies shown by the two translators in dealing with the transfer of cultural references can be attributable to several factors. Overall, two significant concerns may have influenced the two translators' choice of strategies. The following discussion will elaborate on these.

The first consideration is the different social and historical context in which the two translations emerged. As translations are artefacts of the host culture, any translators perform their work in a specific cultural context (Toury, 1995, p. 24). Dimitriu (2015) posits context as a key parameter for “complex analyses of the translator’s activities and decisions” (p. 5) in translation studies. Egerton’s *Lotus* was produced in early twentieth century England. At that time, Chinese literature and culture was unfamiliar or unknown to most Western readers. It is not easy for English-language readers to understand the rich tapestry of cultural references present in a novel translated from Chinese. According to Liu et al. (2012), “[i]n past English history China has been so marginal to its perception of the world order, that when it appears in a translation into English, it has to leap quite a credibility gap in the English reader” (p. 18). Interest in things Chinese in Britain faded since the late nineteenth century. After the Opium War (1839-1842), British perceptions of the Chinese changed dramatically and the esteem felt for China and the Chinese declined in the British context (Barringer & Flynn, 1998, p. 28). When China’s Boxer Rising broke out in 1900, Sinophobia and Yellow Peril were in full swing in the West and the Chinese continued to be stereotyped as a curious people. It was after the First World War that the Sinophobia sentiment diminishes significantly due to the rise of business interest in China and the growing antifascism sentiment in Britain (Yeh, 2008, p. 301). The British antifascism prompted sympathy for the Chinese when Japan invaded Manchuria in the early 1930s and British views of the Chinese also changed for the better (Ma & Guan, 2017, p. 568). During the 1920s, “China fever” already gripped Britain because of new economic, cultural, and political interests in China (Yeh, 2008, p. 301). For instance, Chinese commodities, fashion, and art were well received in Britain at the time. More significantly, many writers, scholars, and poets showed intense interest in Chinese literature and culture and translated a variety of Chinese poems and fictional works during the first half of the twentieth century.

The imagist poet Ezra Pound, for instance, translated numerous Chinese classical poems for his contemporary readers. His *Cathay* (published in 1915) created a sensation at the time and stimulated many others to read and translate Chinese poetry. The famous poet T. S. Eliot stated that Pound was “the inventor of Chinese poetry for our time” (Eliot, 1928, p. vvii). Aside from Pound, Arthur Waley also translated hundreds of Chinese classic poems into English, which attracted widespread attention in the 1910s. Waley’s *Chinese Poems* printed in 1916 was well received among his contemporaries such as W. B. Yeats, Ezra Pound, T. S. Eliot, and Bertrand Russell (Chan & Pollard, 1995, p. 423). Waley’s *A Hundred and Seventy Chinese Poems* published in 1918 was even regarded as “one of the most memorable books of recent years” (Johns, 1982, p. 18). Some of the poems translated from Chinese have been anthologized more than once and enjoyed as English literature in their own right.

However, most of these translations were by no means faithful to the Chinese original as they were largely abridgements, adaptations, and “refractions”, in Lefevere’s (1982) words (p. 5). In both Pound’s *Cathay* and Waley’s *Chinese Poems*, for instance, there were signs of adaptation, alteration, and invention or skillful improvement. The translators took great liberties to manipulate or adapt the source texts to meet target readers’ horizon of expectations. The same is true of translations of Chinese prose fiction and plays during the time. Pearl S. Buck’s *All Men are Brothers*, a translation of the Ming novel *Shuihuzhuan* 水滸傳 published in London in 1933, was adapted and abridged to suit the tastes of contemporary Western readers. Buck’s writing not only fostered favorable attitudes among Westerners towards the Chinese but also aroused an interest in Chinese culture. As with Chinese plays translated into English, Shih-I Hsiung’s 熊式一 *Lady Precious Stream* (published in 1934) must be mentioned here since it reflected British chinoiserie tradition of appropriating Chinese culture during the 1930s. Hsiung was a Chinese diaspora writer in London and his *Lady Precious Stream*, a translation of *Wang Baochuan* 王寶釧, made a

commercial success through localizing Peking Opera and adapting it to conform to the chinoiserie tradition in Britain. According to Yeh (2014), there was in fact “an emerging fashion for an exotic China in the UK” (p. 35) during the 1920s and 1930s and traditional Chinese things were what a British audience wanted to perceive and appreciate. The play *Lady Precious Stream* was a prime example.

As Yeh explains, despite the “emerging fashion for an exotic China” in Britain in the 1930s, China was still imagined as remote and less appealing than India and Japan in culture and the arts (Yeh, 2014, p. 50). The dominant ideology in the target culture in the early twentieth century viewed China and its culture as quite alien, unfamiliar, and lacking appeal (Liu et al., 2012, p. 18). This also partly explains why Waley and other translators of Chinese literature favored adaptation and rewriting techniques in the translation process. As Lefevere (1992) puts it, “ideology and poetics particularly shape the translator’s strategy in solving problems raised by elements in the Universe of Discourse of the original and the linguistic expressions of that original” (p. 48). Egerton undertook his translation during this period, and he could not be exempt from the influence of the dominant ideology in the society. In view of the then receptive environment for Chinese literature and culture in Britain, it should come as no surprise that Egerton tended to use domesticating strategies for translating cultural references in *Jinpingmei*. This could avoid confronting his targeted readers with much of the unfamiliar and unfathomable cultural heterogeneity of the source work. The translation strategies Egerton used were similar, if not the same, to those used by his contemporaries, which could bring readers pleasure, enhance their reading experience, and facilitate comprehension. In short, Egerton’s domesticating tendency is closely related to the social and historical context of the receiving culture when he undertook his project.

On the other hand, Roy undertook his project in the 1980s. His first tome came out in 1993 and the last volume was completed in 2013. Roy’s translation was

credited with the rapid development of Chinese Studies in North America in the late twentieth century. The establishment of Sino-U.S. diplomatic relations in 1979 and the implementation of mainland China's reform and opening-up policy in the 1980s have made China preoccupy the Western consciousness. Chinese Studies have grown popular in North American institutions, providing a number of ways of understanding China and constructing "Chineseness." Since the 1990s, China's rapid economic achievements and full integration into the global economy have enhanced soft power on several levels. Soft power, as Nye (2004) posits, is the ability of a country to persuade others to do what it wants through projecting and maintaining a positive national image (p. 11). Nye (2004) reminds us that primary sites of soft power entail "culture, values and foreign policies" (p. 11) and culture remains the most important. Western interest in China's rise as an economic powerhouse in this globalized world has also prompted growing interest in Chinese culture and literature. Given the growing recognition and importance of Chinese literature in the "world republic of letters" (Casanova, 2004), a growing number of translations of Chinese literary texts have been published in the Anglophone world since the 1990s. Most of the translations have been done by professional and scholarly translators, each appealing to different kinds of English-speaking audiences. As postulated by Kowallis (1996), "the importance of expert translation in the whole enterprise of getting the West to take Chinese literature seriously seems, finally, on the verge of being recognized" (p. 153). The Western public has become more receptive to Chinese literature and culture, which no longer seem quite so remote. This may explain why Roy tended to adopt foreignizing strategies for translating cultural references in *Jinpingmei*. As demonstrated by the qualitative analysis, Roy's translation often keeps close to the source text in form and content. In effect, Roy's translation, following Venuti's (1995) tenets, is meant to "register the linguistic and cultural difference of the foreign text" (p. 20), and to bring target readers into a cross-cultural dialogue with Chinese literature.

Thus, it becomes immediately clear that the different sociohistorical contexts serve as a key factor leading to the two translators' different tendencies in terms of rendering the abundant cultural references in the source text.

Another concern is the translators' different translation philosophies. Egerton was a writer and freelance translator. His translation of *Jinpingmei* was motivated by his interest in learning Chinese language and culture. His translation was chiefly intended to share with contemporary readers the artistic charisma of the Chinese novel as well as the reading pleasure it gives (Egerton, 1939, p. ii). Egerton's *Lotus* was published by George Routledge and Sons Ltd., a commercial press in London in the early twentieth century. So, meeting readers' expectations was exceedingly important for a commercial publisher. To accommodate a wider reading public and to cater to their tastes and reading habits, Egerton resorted to more domesticating strategies for handling cultural references, placing emphasis on fluency, readability, and intelligibility of his renderings.

By contrast, as a scholarly translator, Roy decided to retranslate *Jinpingmei* chiefly because of his ardent love for this masterpiece and of his many years of research on it. He started the retranslation project by contracting with Princeton University Press in the 1990s. The publication by an academic press also indicates the scholarly nature of Roy's translation. Both Roy and his patron paid close attention to the literariness of the original. As shown in the metatexts attached to the published volumes of the translation, Roy and the publisher's shared purpose was to offer both specialist and general readers a genuinely complete version of *Jinpingmei*, aiming at revealing the true value of the novel and its significance not merely to Chinese literature but to world literature, or "Weltliteratur," to use J. W. Goethe's term (Damrosch, 2018). Given that Roy's translation philosophy was to "translate everything" in *Jinpingmei* for his intended readers (Roy, 1993, p. xlvii), it is not difficult to understand why he decided to use foreignizing strategies to deal

with cultural references. He made a great effort to transmit the novel's rich cultural information to the target text, enabling the linguistic and cultural alterity to reach his targeted audiences.

In conclusion, this paper has provided a qualitative and quantitative analysis of the translation of cultural references in *Jinpingmei*. Firstly, it reveals that foreignness or cultural heterogeneity in the Chinese original have been increasingly preserved, as discerned in Roy's retranslation in comparison with Egerton's earlier version. This finding aligns with Bensimon's and Berman's assertions that first translations are naturally closer to the receiving culture while subsequent retranslations tend to return to the original work for restoring its linguistic energy and cultural particularities, thereby achieving an improvement (Bensimon, 1990, p. iv; Berman, 1990, p. 1). Secondly, the paper demonstrates that the translators' choices were both socially and historically determined while rendering cultural references in *Jinpingmei*. Finally, the study shows that both domesticating and foreignizing strategies are deployed by the two translators for rendering cultural references; however, the dominant strategies for Egerton and Roy are domestication and foreignization respectively. It should be noted, however, that the study relies on a relatively small corpus and cannot obtain generalizable results. Further research is still needed by considering a larger corpus to produce more generalizable results or by exploring other aspects of the source text to arrive at more interesting conclusions in terms of the study of English translations of *Jinpingmei*.

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Conference Preparation From the Perspective of Naturalistic Decision Making— An Expertise Approach

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Although conference preparation (CP) has been widely reported to be the foundation for successful interpreting, little is known regarding how interpreters prepare in real-life settings and adapt their preparation strategies to the context. To fill this research gap, the present study analyzed and compared the CP strategies and processes of interpreting novices, intermediates, and experts from the perspective of naturalistic decision making (NDM), a research paradigm for elucidating an expert's decision-making processes in natural settings with characteristics including time pressure and high stakes. This study adopted observation and interviews as the methods of data collection. Twenty-four participants (ten novices, six intermediates, and eight experts) were asked to prepare for a mock assignment within 30 minutes by using a slide deck. The desktop activity of the participants was recorded by a screen-recording program, HyperCam, for analysis. A semistructured interview was conducted after the participants had prepared. The results indicate that the participants focused on different facets of preparation, which were mainly the language and knowledge facets, when they faced time constraints. Most notably, the experts were better able to assess the characteristics of the context on the basis of their experience, whereas novices focused more on microcontextual details. By connecting NDM with CP, the present study offers an exploratory description of CP in time-pressure situations, yields insights into how experts master preparation, and offers suggestions on how trainees can attain CP expertise.

Keywords: conference preparation, naturalistic decision making, expertise studies, interpreter training

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自然決策中的會議口譯準備——專技觀點

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會議口譯準備（conference preparation, CP）係確保口譯品質的關鍵要素，然而相關研究有限，且多為規範性論述，鮮少描述口譯員的實際準備過程。為使文獻更趨完整，本研究採自然決策（naturalistic decision making, NDM）研究典範，比較口譯專家、新手與生手之準備策略。自然決策研究以描述性觀點探究專家在自然、真實的環境之下，如何因應時間壓力等條件限制做出決策。故此，本研究欲檢視專家口譯在時間限制之下的會議準備策略，並與新手和生手進行比較。研究採觀察法與訪談等方式，邀請 24 位受試者（十位生手、六位新手與八位專家）於 30 分鐘之內利用電腦和簡報檔案準備口譯工作。研究者現場透過螢幕投影觀察受試者的準備過程，並以 HyperCam 程式錄製。受試者準備完成後，接受半結構式訪談，說明準備策略與關鍵決策點。研究結果顯示，在時間壓力之下，三組受試者所著重的準備重點不同（如偏重語言或是知識習得），其中專家組由於工作經驗較為豐富，因此較能依經驗判斷限時準備狀況，並以大局為重，而新手或生手則較重視準備資料的細節。研究結果可望供口譯教學者參考，協助口譯學生了解專家如何準備口譯工作，進而精進會議口譯準備技能。

關鍵詞：會議口譯準備、自然決策、專技研究、口譯教學

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Introduction

The process in which the interpreter examines the various aspects of a specific assignment and consciously decides how and what to prepare—i.e., active preparation (Luccarelli, 2006)—has become a subject of academic interest. It is believed that interpreters do a better job if they prepare in advance (Díaz-Galaz, 2011; Díaz-Galaz et al., 2015; Luccarelli, 2006). However, while conference preparation (CP) has been recognized as a critical feature of professional practice (Díaz-Galaz, 2011; Díaz-Galaz et al., 2015; Gile, 2002; Association Internationale des Interprètes de Conférence [AIIC], 1999), relevant research has largely remained prescriptive, distilled from the experience of professionals with practical or theoretical orientations (e.g., AIIC, 1999; Gile, 2002, 2009; Gillies, 2019; Luccarelli, 2006; Setton & Dawrant, 2016).

Indeed, the literature has paid limited attention to the actual preparation processes (Díaz-Galaz, 2011; Scaglioni, 2013), which calls for more descriptive studies to unravel the interpreter's CP process as is in the real world. Such studies should inform pedagogy by exploring how seasoned interpreters prepare for conferences, if CP is indeed a skill to be learned and perfected over time (Luccarelli, 2006).

To fill the gaps, the present study attempted to examine CP from the perspective of naturalist decision making (NDM), which seeks to study how the decision maker uses experience to make decisions in real-world, natural settings characterized by features such as time pressure (Klein, 1997; Ross et al., 2006). As interpreters often have only limited preparation time at their disposal (Setton & Dawrant, 2016), studying how experts make CP decisions in the real world may help unveil their tried-and-tested CP strategies and expedite transition towards expertise.

Literature Review

The literature review attempts to provide a conceptual scaffold for CP and NDM. The first part examines the various dimensions of CP discussed in the literature, including general concepts, stages and forms, language and knowledge acquisition in CP, sources and tools, issues of time constraints, and its relation to expertise development. The second part, as an endeavor to bring the two worlds together, charts the development of NDM, from early approaches of decision making research to expert-novice differences observed in NDM studies.

Conference Preparation

The interpreter's work starts the moment when he/she agrees to interpret for a conference (Moser-Mercer, 1992). This is the time when the interpreter begins to assemble various pieces of information regarding the assignment, consciously decides on CP strategies and scope, and finds ways to contextualize with the conference (Luccarelli, 2006).

The value of preparation as the *sine qua non* of successful interpreting has been widely recognized. Diligent preparation is a pillar of quality interpreting, second only to proper working conditions (AIIC, 1999). What's more, the CP process serves to prepare the interpreter to handle the unexpected and maintain his/her usual powers for anticipation and monitoring (Luccarelli, 2006), setting off a chain of positive events such as sparer attention and better online self-monitoring (Setton & Dawrant, 2016). Preparation also helps bridge the information gap between participants and interpreters as incidental audiences (Díaz-Galaz, 2011; Scaglioni, 2013).

Several key forms and methods of CP have been discussed in the literature (Gillies, 2019; Donovan, 2001, as cited in Luccarelli, 2006; Kutz, 2003, as cited in Rodríguez & Schnell, 2009). Gillies' (2019) discussion on CP, for example, covered a

wide scope of dimensions, including general knowledge, topic preparation, language activation, practice, and the situation (including venues, procedure, names, speakers, audience, and content).

While CP presupposes a “pre-booth” nature (Taylor, 1993), it may extend into the conference or even after it (Gile, 2009; Luccarelli, 2006; Rodríguez & Schnell, 2009). The study of Chang et al. (2018), for example, examined how professional interpreters dealt with unfamiliar topics in a process of knowledge preparation before, during, and after a conference. Gile (2009) also chronologically divided preparation into advance preparation, last-minute preparation, and ongoing preparation during the meeting. In addition, interpreters also need long-term preparation in L1 and L2 language and general background knowledge (Gillies, 2019; Luccarelli, 2013). Setton and Dawrant (2016) bridged the mode/time dichotomy and provided a guideline for event preparation, topic preparation, last-minute/on-site preparation, and preparation during and after the meeting.

As a critical benefit, preparation helps to activate both terminology and contextual information (Gillies, 2019). Indeed, language and knowledge have emerged in the literature as the two critical facets of preparation. On the language front, interpreters often compile terminological information in the form of a glossary to speak professionally at work (Gillies, 2019; Rodríguez & Schnell, 2009). Jiang’s (2013) study revealed that nearly 70% of AIIC interpreters surveyed would build a glossary for most or all meetings. This widespread practice could be attributed to the fact that correct use of terminology is highly valued as a yardstick of evaluating performance by conference participants (Farghal & Shakir, 1994; Kurz, 2001; Moser, 1995, as cited in Luccarelli, 2006; Kurz, 1989, as cited in Pöchhacker, 2016). Translation accuracy, as measured by the correct use of terminology, could be most adversely affected without preparation (Díaz-Galaz, 2011).

Interpreters also learn about and review relevant concepts when preparing for a conference and extracting new terms (Gile, 2002; Xu, 2018). Indeed, terminological preparation is also a learning process, which forms the knowledge foundation for interpreting (Fantinuoli, 2017; Luccarelli, 2006; Moser-Mercer, 1992).

The interpreter then builds up as many concepts as possible and establishes relations among them to facilitate translation output (Moser-Mercer, 1978). Such local or “encounter-specific” knowledge enhancement can be done through the interpreter imagining and researching anything that speakers could possibly mention (Setton & Dawrant, 2016).

As terminological preparation is also a form of knowledge acquisition, the two components in CP may be hard to separate. Still, Setton and Dawrant (2016) cautioned against confusing terminology with knowledge, as interpreters should avoid knowing how to say everything without knowing its meaning. Gile (2002) also discussed “borderline cases” in which terminological search and content-oriented preparation overlap, arguing that terminological preparation involves some conceptual learning and vice-versa. However, whether interpreters place equal emphasis on language and knowledge acquisition in CP remains uninvestigated.

Studies have indicated that conference documents are the most useful and popular material among interpreters as they are highly relevant to the conference and contain specific information not easily found elsewhere (Gile, 2002). CP strategies may differ based on the types of documents available (Gillies, 2019). According to the AIIC (1999) and Luccarelli (2006), such documents may include the agenda, PowerPoint presentations, glossaries, lists of participants, speaker biographies, and so forth. On-site briefings and presentation walkthroughs with speakers may also help prevent operational problems and facilitate content anticipation (Gillies, 2019; Setton & Dawrant, 2016).

Interpreters may also look for complementary sources because the core documents presuppose some relevant knowledge by the user and do not provide the basic information that laypersons need (Díaz-Galaz, 2011; Gile, 2002). Common additional sources include background documents (e.g., textbooks, press and journal articles, encyclopedias, or other content-oriented documents), monolingual/bilingual dictionaries and glossaries, human resources, pre-meeting briefing/Q&A session, and electronic sources (AIIC, 1999; Díaz-Galaz, 2011; Gile, 2002; Luccarelli, 2006, 2013; Setton & Dawrant, 2016). In particular, the World Wide Web (WWW) has been recommended as a medium for preparation (AIIC, 1999). Gillies (2019) also suggested using Wikipedia as a place to begin for a general understanding of a topic.

With such variety of resources, the interpreter is advised to select only a few quality sources because their clarity, relevance, accessibility, or degree of detail may not be well-ordered (Setton & Dawrant, 2016). Still, how interpreters sift through a sea of information remains little studied.

Time Constraints in CP

Lucky is the interpreter who has sufficient time to prepare to the fullest, making time constraints a salient feature in CP. The time available for preparation has been regarded as one of the factors of interpreting difficulty (Setton & Dawrant, 2016).

The standard AIIC contract requires that conference documents be delivered to interpreters not later than 15 days before the conference (Moser-Mercer, 1992). Adequate remunerated time for preparation is also considered part of the optimal working conditions (Setton & Dawrant, 2016). Unfortunately, in reality, relevant texts may arrive only days, hours, minutes, or seconds in advance (Setton & Dawrant, 2016). Therefore, preparation time may range from ample, short notice

(20-30 minutes), to last-minute. The authors argued that for topic preparation, one should ensure that time is well-spent on selecting quality sources. Some documents may need to be prepared in the booth, and the student interpreter needs to adopt appropriate strategies to prepare on site (Luccarelli, 2006).

For all the discussions and anecdotal evidence confirming time constraints in CP, how interpreters tailor their preparation strategies to changes in context remains unknown. Gillies (2019) suggested that preparation time be proportionate to the time needed to interpret a topic. However, little is known about how interpreters, if ever, prioritize their time for preparation. The present study marked an attempt to fill such gap.

CP and Expertise Development

Luccarelli (2006) maintained that CP entails skills that the novice does not necessarily possess but can be acquired and perfected over time. The glossary-building component of CP, for example, has been shown to play a critical role for the expertise development of trainees in terms of both knowledge and terminology acquisition (Chan & Ju, 2022).

What sets experts apart from novices, in fact, is the focus of expertise studies. This strain of research, stemming from the field of chess (Ericsson, 1996, 2001; Moser-Mercer, 1997), examines the ways experts attain high levels of performance and analyzes the reproducible dimensions of expert performance (Ericsson, 1996). Expertise studies aim to establish a general theory of expert performance acquisition and scientifically explain exceptional achievements and why experts can reproduce their performance anytime when needed (Ericsson, 2001).

Comparing novice-expert differences in expertise studies is crucial in underscoring the evolution and acquisition of interpreting competence (Riccardi, 2005). For example, the novice and the expert differ in their knowledge structures,

base, and organization (Moser-Mercer, 1997; Moser-Mercer et al., 2000). Professional interpreters, for example, have more comprehensive knowledge thanks to more exposure to various domains and can access concepts faster. What's more, experts employ more global plans, whereas novices tend to adopt microcontextual plans (Moser-Mercer et al., 2000). With more experience, interpreter is theoretically better prepared to work in various contexts without being unduly overloaded (Riccardi, 2005). Such experiential expertise enables experts to anticipate what the conference is about when first seeing the program, making their preparation more targeted and organized (Luccarelli, 2006).

It is in the context of novice-expert differences that the study sought to examine how interpreters with varying seniority conduct CP differently, from the perspective of a discipline that has seldom crossed paths with interpreting studies—naturalistic decision making (NDM).

Decision Making Research

How experts make decisions (i.e., expert decision making) has been a major topic of scholarly interest within the judgment and decision making (JDM) community. This strand of research examines the decision-making skills of experts and the application of expertise to decision making. Research has shown that experts make more competent judgments as against their novice counterparts (Shanteau, 1988). By looking at how expert decision makers excel in their jobs, novices should also be able to transition faster towards expertise (Ross et al., 2006).

Several paradigms and approaches have been adopted in the study of decision making. The earliest classical or normative paradigm attempted to construct a normative, prescriptive model under which the decision maker rationally compares the pros and cons of alternatives at once before deciding on an optimal solution. The biases and heuristics approach (i.e., the rationalist paradigm), also subsumed

under the classical tradition, marked a slight departure from the original approach. This is because the paradigm evaluated human decision quality against normative standards (Hutton & Klein, 1999) for discussions on the research tradition, see also Klein (1997), Phillips et al. (2004), Shanteau (1988). Researchers observed that human judgment or error was at play in decision making, which led to results deviant from normative theories (Phillips et al., 2004; Shanteau, 1988).

The classical approach came under criticism because its experiments were conducted primarily in static, well-defined laboratory settings with low ecological validity (Hutton & Klein, 1999). As such, the NDM paradigm emerged in the 1980s as a reaction against the traditional paradigm (Hutton & Klein, 1999; Mosier et al., 2018; Ross et al., 2006). In contrast to earlier research that examined decision making in a context-free environment, the NDM approach studies how the decision maker uses experience to make decisions in natural settings (Klein, 1997; Phillips et al., 2004; Ross et al., 2006).

The catalyst for the emergence of NDM research was the need to study decision making in contexts with characteristics where formal techniques are hard to apply, such as time pressure, ill-defined or competing goals, high personal stakes, dynamic settings, and unreliable or incomplete information (Hutton & Klein, 1999; Klein, 1997, 2008; Klein et al., 1986; Phillips et al., 2004; Ross et al., 2006). Early researchers studied subjects such as fire ground commanders, who had to make time-pressed decisions with high stakes (Klein, 2008; Klein et al., 1986; Mosier et al., 2018; Ross et al., 2006), and found that expert decision makers rarely had the luxury of time to compare different courses of action (COAs) but only adopted a plausible one after assessing the situation. They matched the situation at hand with a prototype in their experience and assessed only one option at a time. While one or more options may be considered, only one is examined at a given moment in a serial manner.

NDM researchers regard the expert as “having rich repertoires of patterns, being able to make fine discriminations that may be invisible to novices, having sophisticated mental models of how things work, and having resilience to adapt to complex and dynamic situations” (Klein, 2015, p. 165). Arguably more experienced, experts rely mostly on intuition (rather than choose among several options), which is enabled by a process of pattern recognition, retrieval, and matching and facilitated by the utilization of cues in a situation-aware manner (Wiggins, 2020).

Expert-Novice Differences in NDM

Several expert-novice differences have been observed in NDM research. For example, experts are keener on finding a readily-available option and improving on it rather than looking for the best one (Ross et al., 2006). What’s more, experts focus more on assessing a situation based on their knowledge base, training, and experience, while novices are more intent on generating a COA (Randel et al., 1996). Experts also spend more time trying to understand the problem, compared with novices who start right off and work with the surface features of the problem (Phillips et al., 2004). Last but not least, experts are not easily sidetracked by irrelevant information and know what is relevant (Shanteau, 1988).

Hutton and Klein (1999) concluded that skilled decision makers can quickly respond because they rely on experience to find a workable COA as the first one considered instead of generating a set of them (also in Randel et al., 1996). In addition, in novel situations, experts focus more on important and critical information, whereas novices are overwhelmed with information and are keen on evaluating COAs. Situational awareness also sets experts apart from novices, enabling the decision maker to judge a situation as typical or atypical and arrives at a workable, but not necessarily the best, solution (Hutton & Klein, 1999; Mosier et al., 2018; Phillips et al., 2004).

Bridging NDM and CP: Research Questions

Time criticality is one of the most prominent features of decision making in complex and dynamic systems (O'Hare, 1992, as cited in Phillips et al., 2004). While interpreters have to live with time constraints in CP, the link between CP and NDM has yet to be established. To fill the research gap, this study was intended to offer an exploratory description of CP in time-pressured situations. It is in such unusual situations that the decision maker's strategies can be more effortful because he/she has to leave the habitual mode and become deliberate in making decisions (Hutton & Klein, 1999). The study aimed to observe the CP processes of subjects and answer the following research questions:

1. Are there any observed similarities and differences in the CP strategies and processes between novices, intermediates, and experts within a time limit?
2. What pedagogical implications can be drawn from the observations?

Once the decision-making processes of experts are brought to light, learners can understand why task accomplishment can be successful for experts. Instructors, on the other hand, can develop decision scenarios for learners to practice making difficult decisions within a tight time limit with a view to improving decision quality (Klein, 1997; Phillips et al., 2004).

Methods

Research Design

This mixed-method study adopted an approach to data gathering that combined two main methods—observation (computer screen recording) and semi-

structured interview. In addition, a questionnaire was designed to elicit the background information of the subjects.

Participants

A total of 24 subjects participated in this study. At the time of the study, all of them either were studying or had finished their training at the only three graduate institutes offering translation and interpreting programs in northern Taiwan—Fu Jen Catholic University (FJU), National Taiwan Normal University (NTNU), and National Taiwan University (NTU). The subjects were categorized into three groups. The Novice Group consisted of ten students who were in their first or second year of study and had not taken the professional exam that marked the end of their required training; the Intermediate Group was made up of six interpreters who had finished the required training and taken the professional exam but had yet reached the expert level, defined as having 150 days of working experience (AIIC, 2022). The rest of the subjects fell into the Expert Group, comprising eight interpreters who had taken the professional exam and reached the expert level.

Materials

The Questionnaire

The researchers designed a questionnaire (see Appendix A) to be administered prior to the mock preparation, including questions on the participants' background, learning and working experience, and whether they were familiar with the topic of usage-based insurance (UBI)—the subject of the material used in the mock preparation exercise.

The Preparation Material

The CP material with which the subjects prepared was originally an English

PowerPoint presentation (converted into PDF format) that one of the researchers had worked on in a real conference on vehicle technologies. The 14-page slide deck, edited with the speaker's consent, was chosen from a real-world conference with a view to recreating the research and reading done by professional interpreters prior to an actual conference (Díaz-Galaz et al., 2015).

Discussing the methodological implications for CP research, Díaz-Galaz et al. (2015) suggested selecting topics not commonly encountered in class or in the professional world. The subject of the presentation—usage-based insurance (UBI)—was a relatively new, emerging concept. In Taiwan, the first UBI-related insurance policy did not exist until 2016 (Lin, 2016).

The Interview Guideline

The guideline of the post-preparation, semi-structured interview (see Appendix B) was designed to obtain information on the participants' CP processes, such as time allocation, differences of CP strategies in real vs. mock-up settings, differences of CP methods with/without time restraints, emphasis on language vs. knowledge acquisition, online data selection criteria, and so forth.

Setting and Procedures

The Mock Preparation

The mock preparation sessions were conducted from January 16th to January 25th, 2017. Within 30 minutes, the subjects individually prepared for a 20-minute English-to-Chinese consecutive interpretation assignment in Taiwan on a designated desktop computer with internet access. The desktop activity of each participant was recorded by a screen-recording program, HyperCam, for analysis afterwards. The researchers concurrently took notes of the screen activity on a projected display.

The participants were orally given contextual information on the assignment (e.g., theme of the conference) before starting to prepare. They were asked to use only the designated computer but no other electronic devices. They could stop the preparation anytime if they thought that their preparation had been sufficient. After the preparation, the participants were interviewed.

Rationale of the Mock Preparation Design

Reviewing the decision-making processes is valuable because the real world provides limited opportunity for experience (Klein, 1997). The use of observational and interview data also conformed to the research tradition of expert decision making (Phillips et al., 2004).

The 30-minute preparation time was chosen based on Setton and Dawrant's (2016) category of short notice preparation (20 to 30 minutes), which also reflected a recent trend where PowerPoint presentations are brought to the venue to interpreters on USB drives. In such context, knowledge acquisition mainly involves around documents that arrive just before the beginning of the conference (Gile, 2009).

Observation and Video Recording

Observation may be used to understand participants, behaviors, processes, or artifacts (Angelelli & Baer, 2016). It has also been used in expertise studies to record what occurs in natural settings (Clancey, 2006).

As a way of observation, video recording has been deemed valuable for the unobtrusive collection of rich, empirical data of actual computer usage in natural work settings (Tang et al., 2006; Thorsteinsson & Page, 2008). Video recording can also be combined with other data such as semi-structured interviews for triangulation purposes (Thorsteinsson & Page, 2008). In translation studies, screen recording has been used to capture the screen activity of the translator in a real-time manner (Angelelli & Baer, 2016). If data is systematically gathered, summary

statistics may also be obtained to understand the duration of various activities (Clancey, 2006).

The main advantage of video recording is that it obtrusively collects data without disturbing the subjects (Tang et al., 2006; Thorsteinsson & Page, 2008). While gathering data in the real world may provide greater ecological validity, the researcher may have to manipulate the conditions where the subjects work in an experimental setting (Angelelli & Baer, 2016), hence the quasi-real setting employed in this study. In field observations, the researcher may have to rely on note-taking about the ongoing or recently concluded activities (Angelelli & Baer, 2016), as was also arranged in this study.

Data Analysis

All the video and interview data were coded using the MAXDQA 12® software. For the video data, the codings were designated as per the CP sub-activities of the subjects. The lengths (measured in seconds) and number of occurrences of each coding were tallied for statistical analysis. On the other hand, the interview data were also coded to identify common themes in the transcripts. The excerpts of interview transcriptions to be cited in the study were translated by the researchers from Mandarin into English.

Coded data, including the verbal transcripts and computer screen information, can be converted into quantitative data by calculating the frequencies for each coded category (Sandelowski, 2000, as cited in Borycki & Kushniruk, 2005). Therefore, descriptive statistics, including total counts, simple averages, and percentage, were produced for this study to indicate how each coding was spread among the three subject groups.

Results

This section presents the qualitative and quantitative results of the study. Abbreviations will be used to refer to the subjects in each group. For example, N1 is short for Novice No. 1, I2 for Intermediate No. 2, and E3 for Expert No. 3.

The Pre-preparation Questionnaire

CP and the Interpreting Classroom

All of the subjects indicated that their graduate instructors had touched on the concepts of CP, albeit to varying degrees. As many as 71% of the subjects reported having been thoroughly instructed on CP, mostly in the form of experience sharing by the instructor. N7 mentioned that his/her instructor(s) had touched on the importance of the glossary, briefing with the speaker, the context and audience of the event, and the speaker's background, while N9's instructor(s) shared what he/she would do after receiving conference materials, including briefing with the speaker and checking the working environment at the venue. Overall, the instructions on CP in the classroom seemed to be in line with the prescriptive guidelines offered in the literature.

Some instructors provided opportunities for students to practice CP in the classroom. More than half (54%) of the subjects had such experience in the form of, for example, brainstorming sessions with keywords or synopsis of the talk (N7 and I5) or in-class search drills where students tried various search strategies under time constraints (B4). Most came in a setting similar to that of this study: Students were given conference materials to prepare within a time limit (N2, N3, N4, I3, I4, and E6). Such exercises did affect the subjects' preparation strategies in the study. N2 learned the importance of a quick initial scan to grasp the outline of the talk,

while N3 focused on assessing material difficulty. As can be seen, CP drills had an impact because students could learn by doing and establish their CP procedures by experiment.

Real CP Experience

The vast majority (92%) of the subjects reported having prepared for real assignments (including practicum sessions). Adding support to the quasi-real setting of the mock preparation in the study is the fact that all out of the 92% of the subjects used the computer for their preparation, a finding consistent with the literature on the interpreter's use of digital means or the World Wide Web for preparation (AIIC, 1999; Luccarelli, 2013).

Knowledge of UBI (Usage-Based Insurance)

The final question of the questionnaire examined whether UBI was an emerging concept unknown to most of the subjects. The majority (88%) of the subjects reported having never heard of UBI. The novelty of UBI would necessitate the need for the subjects to conduct additional research to understand relevant concepts.

Screen Recording

The following sections present the results from the recorded screen activities, with the rankings of each group or option indicated in bold after the figures in the table to highlight the differences.

Preparation Duration

Table 1 compares the time spent by the three groups on the preparation:

Table 1*Preparation Time (n=24)*

	Total	Average	Number of subjects who used up the time
Novices (n=10)	17,722	1772.2 (1)	9/10 (90%) (1)
Intermediates (n=6)	10,393	1732.17 (2)	5/6 (83%) (2)
Experts (n=8)	12,293	1536.62 (3)	4/8 (50%) (3)

Unit: second. Standard rounding to the second decimal place.

The subjects' total preparation time could be a measure of subjective preparation sufficiency. The majority (90%) of the novices used up the 30 minutes, with N4 commenting that 30 minutes went by really fast and were not enough. In comparison, only half of the expert group spent the full time for the preparation, with E1 indicating that most real-world situations were not as laid-back.

One reason for such a novice-expert difference could be that experts have better contextual awareness. For example, E2 deliberately saved some time to attend to other matters before the presentation started, as a form of situation preparation (venue) (Gillies, 2019): "In emergency situations, the last few minutes should be used to calm your nerves. I would also use the last minutes to consider non-content related aspects of the assignment, such as where to sit or stand" (E2).

It is also possible that the expert, according to the literature, has built more comprehensive knowledge from having worked in a lot of domains in the past, as discussed in the literature. Both E3 and E6 mentioned that they had previously worked on assignments of similar themes, thus being able to prepare faster: "I have interpreted a conference on this topic before, so I know how Taiwan is doing in this area. I know how I should prepare" (E6).

While the literature pointed out that the expert's preparation is more targeted and organized than the novice's (Luccarelli, 2006), preparation time alone cannot

reveal whether it is truly the case unless being examined with other aspects of observation, as will be shown in the following sections.

Situation Assessment

Research suggests that experts focus more on assessing a situation and spend more time trying to understand the problem, as against the novice, who would start immediately, focus on the surface features of the problem, and is more eager to generate a COA (Phillips et al., 2004; Randel et al., 1996; Ross et al., 2006). To reveal such potential differences, Table 2 compares the percentage of subjects in their respective groups who, when first opening the PDF file, scanned the slides from the first to the last page without any other action, as an indicator of assessing the situation:

Table 2

Initial Scan of the Slides From the First to the Last Page, Without Any Interruption (n=24)

	Total	Average	Number of subjects engaging in this activity	Average percentage of the total time
Novices (n=10)	440	44 (3)	6/10 (60%) (3)	2.4 (3)
Intermediates (n=6)	1,203	200.5 (1)	4/6 (67%) (1)	11.6 (1)
Experts (n=8)	562	70.25 (2)	5/8 (63%) (2)	4.6 (2)

Unit: second. Standard rounding to the second decimal place.

Among all the groups, the lowest percentage occurred in the novice group (60%), using an average of only 2.4% of their time scanning the slides. This shows that the novices did spend relatively less time evaluating the situation and were more intent on doing online research.

According to the interviews, the subjects first scanned the slides to assess the number of pages or amount of the content (N2, N4, N7, I3, I5, I6, and E7), or to

assess the difficulty, scope, or subject of the presentation (N2, N5, N7, N8, I6, I8, and E6). Notably, more experts (E2, E3, E6, and E8), as well as N3 and I2, mentioned that they made the scan to grasp the outline and structure of the presentation. The experts' focus on the structure of the presentation suggested that the experts did adopt more global plans (Moser-Mercer et al., 2000).

The interviews also showed that the novices were mainly deciding on their online search strategies (N2, N4, N6, N7, and I7). In contrast, the more experienced subjects focused on assessing their scope of preparation (N8, I3, E1, and E4) and time allocation (E2 and E7). E7, for instance, pondered on how thorough the preparation would be based on the amount of information and focused on the general context of the presentation. In contrast, novices, such as N7, focused more on terminological research: "After the first read, I chose some keywords, some of which I probably did not understand, or some terms. I went on to make a list of the terms and Google them" (N7).

Most subjects in the three groups decided on one option after the first scan (N5, N6, I3, I5, I6, E2, E4, E5, E6, and E7). This marker of expertise—immediate and intuitive decision making—was present in all the groups. Some of the novices and one intermediate (N2, N8, N9, N10, and I2) adopted a "do-and-adjust" approach and did not arrive at any specific strategy. Interestingly, it was only in the novice group that some subjects (N3, N4, and N7) compared between various options available—an indicator of novice decision making. N3 considered either studying the speaker's background first or assessing the presentation difficulty first; N4 chose between researching into UBI first and reading the slides first. In short, while the three groups all had subjects who decided on a strategy after the first scan, it was only in the novice group that some subjects compared between various options:

I think that I was more like comparing different strategies. I did not have a specific strategy in mind. Maybe I could explain [the content] based on the

logical context of the presentation without having to do any research. I also thought that maybe I did not have to use Word but just wrote things down. (N7)

In short, while the three groups all had subjects who decided on a strategy after the first scan, it was only in the novice group that some subjects compared between various options, a result consistent with the literature.

Focus on the Slides

This coding examines the additional time that the subjects spent reading the slides, excluding the first scan:

Table 3

Slide-Reading Time (Excluding the First Scan) (n=24)

	Total	Average	Percentage of total time
Novices (n=10)	4,721	472.1 (2)	27 (2)
Intermediates (n=6)	3,766	627.67 (1)	36 (1)
Experts (n=8)	3,090	386.25 (3)	25 (3)

Unit: second. Standard rounding to the second decimal place.

According to Table 3, the experts saw the lowest share of their time (25%) devoted to slide-reading, suggesting that they focused less on the presentation itself and spent more time doing other activities, such as viewing websites or looking up terms online. Moreover, less slide-reading time could also mean that the experts were less concerned about microcontextual detail.

Attention to Terminological Correspondence

As terminological search has been shown to be a critical component of CP, the next few codings examined to what extent the subjects devoted their limited CP time to ensure terminological correspondence.

The first coding here (Table 4) concerns the time that the subjects spent on search activities based on the lengths of time when the subjects used search engines, consulted online dictionaries, or simply read the search result page(s) to look for the translation of terms:

Table 4

Search Time (n=24)

	Total	Average	Percentage of total time
Novices (n=10)	4,271	427.1 (1)	24 (2)
Intermediates (n=6)	1,623	270.5 (3)	16 (3)
Experts (n=8)	3,059	382.38 (2)	25 (1)

Unit: second. Standard rounding to the second decimal place.

Upon the first look, the experts spent the highest percentage of their time (25%) on search activities, followed closely by novices (24%). However, a closer look is needed to discover what kinds of terms that the two groups focused on, hence the next coding:

Table 5

Time Spent on Looking up Terms Not Found in the Slides (n=24)

	Total	Average	Number of subjects engaging in this activity	Average percentage of search time
Novices (n=10)	594	59.4 (2)	8/10 (80%) (2)	14 (2)
Intermediates (n=6)	65	10.83 (3)	2/6 (33%) (3)	4 (3)
Experts (n=8)	698	87.25 (1)	8/8 (100%) (1)	22.8 (1)

Unit: second. Standard rounding to the second decimal place.

Table 5 shows that all the experts looked up terms not contained in the slides and spent the highest portion of their search time doing so, in line with the suggestion that the interpreter should imagine and research what speakers could possibly mention (Setton & Dawrant, 2016). What's more, they also anticipated what the conference was about based on experience (Luccarelli, 2006). For example, E5 anticipated that the audience might raise questions regarding the chartered nature of the insurance industry but he/she was unsure of the Chinese equivalent of "charter." E4 tried to look up insurance-related terms based on his/her anticipation.

The time the subjects spent translating the slides could also reveal how much they attended to terminological correspondence. The next coding (Table 6) tallies the time when the subjects added footnotes to the PDF file for translation or typed the translation in a separate file. Another indicator is the time that the subjects spent making a glossary on the computer (Table 7).

Table 6

Translating Slides (n=24)

	Total	Average	Percentage of subjects engaging in this activity	Average percentage of total time
Novices (n=10)	1,423	142.3 (1)	2/10 (20%) (1)	8 (1)
Intermediates (n=6)	358	59.67 (2)	1/6 (17%) (2)	3.4 (2)
Experts (n=8)	296	37 (3)	1/8 (13%) (3)	2.4 (3)

Unit: second. Standard rounding to the second decimal place.

Table 7*Glossary Making (n=24)*

	Total	Average	Percentage of subjects engaging in this activity	Average percentage of total time
Novices (n=10)	1,181	118.1 (1)	4/10 (40%) (1)	6.7 (1)
Intermediates (n=8)	206	34.33 (3)	1/6 (17%) (2)	2 (3)
Experts (n=6)	646	80.74 (2)	1/8 (13%) (3)	5.2 (2)

Unit: second. Standard rounding to the second decimal place.

The novice group had the highest percentage (20%) of the subjects who translated the slides on the computer, spending an average of 8% of their time translating. They also topped the chart in terms of the average time devoted to slides translation and the share of subjects doing so in the same group, suggesting the importance of language preparation to this group. In particular, N1 made an initial decision to translate the entire slides to the best of his/her ability.

As for glossary making, one expert spent the longest time (646 seconds), although such case could be considered an outlier. The novice group, on the other hand, had the highest figure across the board, suggesting how the novices valued terminological correspondence. While several of the subjects made a manual glossary by jotting down terms on a sheet of paper, Table 7 reveals that even in time-critical situations, these subjects still produced a glossary, suggesting an emphasis on lexical correspondence.

For the next coding under terminological correspondence, the researchers selected four terms/expressions in the slides that are not domain-specific, shown in Table 8. Chances are likely that these terms/expressions do not require much research to understand. Still, some of the subjects looked them up.

Table 8*Number of Subjects Who Searched for Translation of Non-Domain-Specific Expressions*

	Entrant	First-mover advantage	Low-hanging fruit	Move fast or die not trying
Novices	6/10 (60%) (1)	4/10 (40%) (1)	5/10 (50%) (1)	1/10 (10%) (2)
Intermediates	1/6 (17%) (2)	2/6 (33%) (2)	1/6 (17%) (3)	1/6 (17%) (1)
Experts	0/8 (0%) (3)	2/8 (25%) (3)	2/8 (25%) (2)	0/8 (0%) (3)

The novice group had the highest percentage in three out of the chosen terms/expressions, suggesting that they cared about expression-level correspondence. Language limitations were also cited, for example, by N2, who had never heard of the term “entrant,” while N3 was not sure whether “low-hanging fruit” carried positive or negative connotations. Still others knew what those terms/expressions meant but cited the need to find a better, more precise translation, mostly if time permitted (N7, I3, I5, and E8).

Again, it could be inferred that the novices tended to focus more on the micro-contextual and language aspect of preparation, while the experts focused less on those aspects in comparison.

Knowledge Acquisition

As an indicator to examine whether the subjects engaged in knowledge acquisition beyond terminological search during CP, the next coding shows the time they engaged in website content viewing.

Table 9*Website-Reading Time (n=24)*

	Total	Average	Percentage of total time
Novices (n=10)	3,718	371.8 (3)	21 (3)
Intermediates (n=6)	3,209	543.83 (1)	31 (2)
Experts (n=8)	4,072	509 (2)	33 (1)

Unit: second. Standard rounding to the second decimal place.

The time of website viewing was tallied based on the total duration of time when an opened website was shown in the screen recording. The main goal of this coding was to measure how much the subjects engaged in knowledge acquisition; therefore, the time that the subjects spent on searching for translation of terms and using an online dictionary was excluded.

Of all the groups, the experts spent the highest portion of time reading websites, showing that they were relatively more concerned about more in-depth knowledge acquisition than acquiring term translations alone. In fact, a lot of the novice interviewees said that they would not bother to click open the websites at all if they deemed what they saw on the search result page was sufficient (N4, N6, N7, and N10), suggesting that they were less interested in learning deeper into the terms.

While the novices seemed to focus more on language as against knowledge acquisition, the dichotomy was not clear-cut among the subjects. Those who prioritized language preparation cited the audience's perception as the reason (N1, N3, N8, N10, E1, E2, and E6):

I presumed that there would be people from the insurance industry in the audience...If you use some of their terminology when talking about claims or car insurance...even if you miss some of the original ideas, you will find it easier to win the audience's trust, which, in turn, facilitates communication. (E1)

In particular, N9, E2, and E6 stressed the priority given to language in time-limited preparation, showing that the subjects did make a deliberate decision in the time-constrained situation.

For those who chose to focus more on knowledge acquisition, one common reason was the need to clearly explain ideas in their own words (N4, I3, I5, I6, E7, and E8):

If time is limited, even if I cannot use very authentic or idiomatic Chinese as it is in English on the slides, which contains some instances of word play or good expressions, I could at least make sure that I did not convey the wrong ideas. (I5)

As was clear, time restriction did affect the subjects' decision-making priorities. If time allowed, some of them would cover what they had missed in the preparation. For example, N1, N3, N10, and E6, who focused on language in the mock preparation, indicated that they would have invested more time in background reading to acquire relevant knowledge. On the other hand, some of those who focused more on knowledge (N4, I3, I5, and E7) in the study said they would have paid more attention to language if they had more time:

Because of time constraint, I thought for some concepts it was enough simply to understand them and explain them even if I could not express them beautifully. But after I go home, I might go look up some of their Chinese translations and whether there are different or more concise ways of expressing them. (I3)

Language and knowledge preparation may overlap (Gile, 2002). Yet, at least in time-critical situations, the subjects made a conscious decision to focus more on one than the other. In the interview, the subjects also mentioned what they would have done if given more time. As many as 15 out of the 24 subjects would watch content-related videos online or videos of the same speaker of the presentation (N2, N3, N4, N7, N9, I2, I3, I4, I5, I6, I8, E2, E5, E7, and E8). In addition, around one-

third of the subjects (N7, N8, I3, I4, I6, E2, and E5) said that they would build a glossary or enrich the one they compiled in the mock preparation. Some (N3, I6, E2, E7, and E8) would even practice interpreting relevant videos (Gillies, 2019) if time permitted. While the subjects had varying focuses if given more time, it was clear that they would prioritize various aspects of preparation when facing time constraint.

Tools and Sources

The final theme that emerged from the video data was how the subjects screened and prioritized various online sources.

Table 10

Preferred Sources

	Chinatimes (27)	Business Next (21)	Wikipedia (20)	Global Information (14)
Novices	325	413	135	44
Intermediates	1,162 (2)	151	358	60
Experts	460	158	163	265
Total	1,947 (1)	722 (4)	656	369
	Investopedia (14)	Apple Daily (13)	NAIC (11)	Synergitek (10)
Novices	121	188	230	256
Intermediates	153	158	111	91
Experts	103	353	432	0
Total	404	699 (5)	773 (3)	347

Unit: second.

The interpreter is advised to select data sources rather than view them randomly (Setton & Dawrant, 2016). Table 10 lists the top eight websites that the subjects viewed based on the number of times they read the websites, indicated in

the parenthesis beside the website name. The total time they spent on each website, however, could be a more accurate indicator of their preferences. Among the top five, media/news websites took up three notches (*Chinatimes*, *Business Next*, and *Apple Daily*), with the other two taken up respectively by an association website (NAIC, The National Association of Insurance Commissioners) and Wikipedia.

The interviews confirmed such preferences. Media/news websites were most favored by the subjects, with 17 of them expressing such preference in the interviews (six novices, five intermediates, and six experts). Some (N3, N7, and E5) viewed media/news websites because of their credibility. Most did so mainly to acquire terms and expressions (N3, I4, I6, I8, E5, and E6). Governmental websites or glossaries were ranked second among the subjects, with 14 of them mentioning such preference (N1, N2, N3, N7, N8, N9, N10, I2, I3, E2, E4, E5, E6, and E8). Wikipedia was constantly mentioned in the interview, too, as a useful site to acquire domain-specific knowledge (N1, N5, N6, N10, I3, I4, I6, E1, E2, E5, and E8)—consistent with the suggestion of Gillies (2019).

In the event of time constraints, the subjects also screened the vast amount of information online by using other criteria. For example, 11 of the subjects (N2, N3, N5, N6, N7, N8, I4, E1, E4, E5, and E6) would choose those websites that appeared first on the search result page. N6 and N8 mentioned that those that turned up first enjoyed the highest number of hits among all.

When screening the translation of terms or expressions across websites, nine of the subjects (N4, N5, N6, N8, I7, I8, E4, E7, and E8) mentioned that when they encountered more than one translation for a term, they would make the final choice based on the number of times a certain translation appeared during their search. Another screening criterion for usages or expressions was to choose first from websites in traditional Chinese used in Taiwan, as against simplified Chinese. This was brought up by 12 interviewees (N1, N2, N3, N7, N8, N9, N10, I6, I8, E2, E4,

and E5). One possible reason for such preference could be that the subjects were told that the talk for the mock preparation was held in Taiwan, hence the need to use the appropriate translation in the local context.

Self-Evaluated Preparation Sufficiency

By the end of the interviews, the subjects were asked to rate their subjective level of confidence from one to 100 after the preparation. It is noteworthy that none of the subjects gave themselves a full mark. Thirteen of the subjects (N9, N10, I2, I3, I4, I5, E1, E2, E3, E4, E5, E7, and E8) cited unexpected factors at work that could not be fully prepared for before the assignment: “The preparation time was short, so I still felt not fully prepared. That said, one’s confidence cannot reach 100%, because if you are in the profession, you should know that there are a lot of factors beyond your control” (E5).

Unexpected factors also included speaker style (e.g., speed and accent) (N8, I3, E1, E4, E6, and E7). Perhaps interpreters have to live with the fact that the job of interpreting cannot be perfect. This was mentioned only by the experts (E2, E3, E4, E5, and E8):

I think that interpreting is a job full of uncertainty. For me, the confidence score cannot be 100%...It is about how to adjust your mindset. I should tell myself...that this is the best I could do at the moment, because I have given it everything [as much] as I can. There is nothing more. (E4)

However, several subjects indicated that their confidence level could be raised, for example, through briefing with the speaker and knowing more about the speaker (N6, N9, N10, I3, I4, I5, I6, I8, E2, E3, E4, E5, and E7) and having more time for preparation (N2, I2, I4, E4, and E7).

As can be seen, the preparation time for each assignment is always limited. This was aptly described by E4, who commented that one could not prepare for an

assignment forever because with over-preparation, he/she would go past the point of diminishing returns, thus wasting time and reducing efficiency.

The Value of Experience in CP

CP takes experience to master (Luccarelli, 2006). Indeed, all of the eight experts mentioned that their experience had shaped their CP strategies. Some would consider the context of the assignment (e.g., the client, the organizer, the audience, and spatial arrangement at work) in their preparation (E1, E3, E5, and E6). Others cited the role of their domain-specific knowledge as they had worked in various domains in their career (E2, E3, and E6). Still others talked about their experience of having prepared for assignments within a time limit that shaped their strategy in the exercise (E1, E4, E5, E7, and E8). Indeed, as NDM researchers pointed out, having been exposed to similar situations allows experts to better develop situation awareness and adapt to complex situations by matching patterns and cues from experience (Klein, 2015; Wiggins, 2020).

The findings highlighted the value of experience in developing, if not perfecting, one's CP practices. The interviewees' accounts testified to the argument that the experienced interpreter is theoretically better prepared to work in various contexts without being unduly overloaded (Riccardi, 2005).

Inferential Statistics

The non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis H test was conducted to examine whether there existed any significant differences between experts (n=8) and non-experts (n=16, combining novices and intermediates) in the codings. Among all, "slide-reading time (excluding the first scan)" and "time spent on looking up terms not found in the slides" were significantly different among the two groups:

Table 11*Results of the Kruskal-Wallis H Test for Differences Between Experts and Non-Experts*

Coding	Group	N	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean rank	Asymptotic significance
Slide-reading time (excluding the first scan)	Experts	8	386.25	226.36	16.9375	0.05
	Non-experts	16	511.06	207.64	10.2813	(borderline)
Time spent on looking up terms not found in the slides	Experts	8	87.25	59.44	8.5	0.031
	Non-experts	16	41.19	54.35	14.8	

Unit: second. Standard rounding to the second decimal place.

The results in Table 11 show that the non-experts spent significantly more time reading the slides but less time looking up terms not found in the slides compared to their expert counterparts.

The Pearson's chi-squared test was also conducted to reveal whether the number of subjects engaged in the coded activities differed significantly between the two groups. Those who did the coded activities were given the value 1, while those who did not were given the value 0. Among all the codings, only the number of those "spending time looking up terms not found in the slides" was significantly different between experts (eight out of eight) and non-experts (10 out of 16):

Table 12*Results of the Pearson's Chi-Squared Test for Differences Between Experts and Non-Experts*

	Coding	Value	df	Asymptotic significance (2-tailed)
Pearson Chi-Square	spending time looking up terms not found in the slides	4.000	1	0.046

The results from the inferential analysis reveal that first, the experts spent a significantly higher portion of their search time on searching for terms not in the conference material, as indicated in Table 11. Table 12 also reveals that the number of experts engaged in the activity was also significantly higher. This tied in with the suggestion that the interpreter should imagine and research what speakers could possibly mention (Setton & Dawrant, 2016). The experience of the experts enables them to anticipate what the conference is about when first seeing the program (Luccarelli, 2006). Third, the experts spent significantly less time in reading the slides (excluding the first scan), suggesting that they were less concerned about microcontextual detail.

Discussion

Observed Similarities and Differences in the CP Strategies and Processes Among the Groups Within a Time Limit

Preparation Duration

Overall, the experts spent the least time finishing the 30-minute CP task, in terms of both duration and the percentage of subjects who used up all the time (50% for the experts vs. 90% for the novices). Perceptions of time differed across the groups, with the novices indicating a sense of urgency. Even in time-pressed situations, the experts could better manage their time without being unduly overloaded (Riccardi, 2005).

Situation Awareness

The results of the study seemed to be consistent with previous findings, with the novices spending the lowest share of their time assessing the nature of the

presentation by scanning the slides from the first to the last page without any interruption. The experts spent more time evaluating the difficulty, scope, and structure of the talk, suggesting the adoption of more global plans (Moser-Mercer et al., 2000). The novices, in contrast, tended to start right off dealing with the surface features (Phillips et al., 2004).

The novices were also more intent on deciding on their online search strategies, while the experts focused more on their overall preparation strategy. What's more, it was only in the novice group that some subjects compared between various options available, suggesting that the novices were more inclined to evaluating COAs (Hutton & Klein, 1999; Randel et al., 1996).

Focus on the Slides

The experts in the study spent the lowest portion of their time on slide-reading, suggesting that they were less concerned about micro-contextual detail and more engaged in other activities. The experts also spent the highest share of their time viewing websites, suggesting that they focused more on in-depth knowledge acquisition. In comparison, the novices were less interested in reading further into the terms that they looked up online.

Terms Searched

The experts spent the highest percentage of their time doing term search, highlighting the importance of terminology preparation to them. However, another coding revealed that all the experts (100%) looked up terms not found in the slides. The results seemed to confirm that the experts are better able at anticipation when first seeing the CP material and imagining what the speaker could possibly mention (Luccarelli, 2006; Setton & Dawrant, 2016).

Attention to Terminological Correspondence

The novice group had the highest percentage of subjects who translated the slides (20%) and compiled a glossary (40%), showing that lexical correspondence was important to them even in time-pressed situations.

Such preference of novices was also confirmed by the finding that the highest percentage of them conducted terminological search on three out of the four general, non-technical expressions in the slides. The reasons included language proficiency limitations and the need to find a precise translation of those expressions if time permitted.

Prioritizing Language vs. Knowledge in CP

While language preparation seemed to take primacy over knowledge acquisition for the novices, the dichotomy was not clear-cut, as was mentioned in the literature (Gile, 2002). Still, most of the subjects across the three groups prioritized one over the other. This was further corroborated by the interviews, where some subjects expressed their willingness to cover what they had missed in the preparation (language or knowledge).

Those who focused more on language preparation cited the audience's perception and preference for specialized speak, attesting to the importance of terminological correspondence underscored in the literature. Those who cared more about knowledge acquisition were driven by the need to clearly explain ideas in their own words. Regardless of the reasons, the subjects' attention to language or knowledge was in line with the stages and forms mentioned in the literature on advance preparation, adding descriptive depth to discussions on CP.

CP Tools and Sources

Under time constraints, all the subjects had little difficulty using the internet for preparation. However, they consciously determined which sources to trust and view first. Among all, media and news websites stood out as the most popular

because of their credibility, followed by websites or glossaries that provided subject-specific information. In addition to screening information, the subjects also judged whether the translation of terms was acceptable based on the number of times a translation appeared on the search page or by distinguishing between traditional and simplified Chinese usages.

Pedagogical Implications

One of the most important applications of NDM research is for novices to observe how experts make decisions in real-world settings to learn why they can successfully accomplish tasks (Phillips et al., 2004). Since observing how experts prepare for conferences may benefit interpreter training, several pedagogical implications can be drawn from the results of the study.

The Role of Experience

It seems that CP takes experience to master and will grow to be more efficient over time because the experts generally used less time for CP. On the one hand, the language and knowledge built in their career can facilitate CP because of repeated exposures to similar domains. On the other hand, the experts' CP strategies were shaped by constant trial-and-error in various situations. Some experts also pointed out the differences between in-class and real-world CP strategies, which gives importance to in-class CP drills that approximate real CP situations.

In-Class CP Drills as a Bridge to the Real World

Instructors can design CP sessions and manipulate the factors that might affect trainees' strategies, such as time pressure and material availability. Over the long run, students may develop their CP modalities for different contexts. They will also learn how much preparation can help—that is, as some interviewees mentioned, preparation time is always limited, and there are always factors that one cannot prepare for.

The Value of Observation

While direct observations of CP processes may be difficult, the study's findings could provide some insights for consideration. For example, in time-critical situations, the experts focused more on the general structure of the presentation. They were not as intent on dealing with the details in the slides as on grasping through anticipation the structure and studying the concepts underlying the presentation. Instead of starting to prepare right away, the experts assessed the situation based on the information that they had instead of being eager to come up with a solution. Last but not least, the experts were able to prepare faster and did not have to spend as much time on term search presumably because of the language, knowledge, and experience accumulated over the years. The aforementioned findings are empirically grounded in observation results and may complement the prescriptive CP guidelines in the literature.

Increasing Attention to CP in the Classroom

With 71% of the subjects having been given detailed instructions on CP and only 54% an opportunity to prepare in class, there is apparently room for CP to receive more attention in the classroom. Trainees should be given the opportunity to experiment with various CP approaches in in-class situations carefully modeled and controlled by the instructor. As a case in point, Luccarelli (2006) proposed a CP teaching plan with drills in a realistic environment, potentially facilitating students' transition to the world of work.

Limitations and Future Research

First, the efficacy of preparation and the degree to which various CP strategies could aid or hamper performance was not evaluated. Future research could focus on examining how preparation affects interpreting performance by controlling for

variables (e.g., topics, preparation time, and material types). While Díaz-Galaz (2011) and Díaz-Galaz et al. (2015) concluded that such studies yielded mixed or even conflicting results due to methodological constraints, other CP stages may be examined together in relation to interpreting quality, with sound methodological design. The actual renditions of interpreters, for example, can be analyzed with interviews to see if certain choices made during interpreting are attributable to CP, training, and/or experience. The concept of glossary coverage (Gile, 2002) may also help compare the efficacy of CP between different interpreters (that is, how successfully they anticipate the content and scope of a given assignment).

Second, the study only examined the advance preparation phase without considering how the phase could interact with the others identified in the literature that altogether define CP. Research going forward could add fidelity to the task being observed (e.g., in a mock conference setting) or could even consider recording in the booth how interpreters prepare last-minute on-site when receiving conference materials., thereby lending more ecological validity to CP research.

Conclusion

This study brought NDM research to interpreting studies with a focus on the CP processes of novices, intermediates, and experts within a time limit. To answer the first research question, observational data gathered from the video recordings revealed that the subjects had placed emphasis on different facets of preparation—mainly language and knowledge—when facing time constraints. Most notably, the experts were able better to assess the nature of the unusual situation based on the experience accumulated over their career, whereas novices tended to focus more on microcontextual detail.

As to the second research question, the study, while exploratory in nature and small in sample size, may inform interpreting pedagogy by highlighting how

experts prepare for assignments differently from novices. On the one hand, students can learn why such differences exist and recognize the value of perfecting the CP skills over time. Instructors, on the other hand, can consider designing CP sessions in class for students to experiment with various strategies in situations similar to those encountered in real life, such as preparation under time constraints—a condition part and parcel of the professional practice of conference interpreting.

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Appendix A

The Questionnaire

1. Are you currently a graduate student of translation and interpretation?

_____ Yes.

_____ No. (Please skip Question 2.)

2. Which year are you in your graduate studies?

_____ First year.

_____ Second year.

_____ Third year or above.

3. Have you ever taken the Joint Professional Examination in conference interpretation co-organized by Fu Jen Catholic University, National Taiwan Normal University, and National Taiwan University?

_____ Yes.

_____ No.

4. Have the instructors at your graduate school ever instructed on the concept of CP?

_____ Yes.

_____ No.

5. Have the instructors at your graduate school ever given students the opportunity to prepare for interpreting exercises in class?

_____ Yes.

_____ No.

6. Have you ever prepared for real-life interpreting assignments (including practicum sessions)?

_____ Yes.

_____ No.

7. Do you use computers to prepare for assignments?

_____ Yes.

_____ No.

_____ It depends. Reason(s): _____

8. Have you ever heard of the concept of UBI (usage-based insurance)?

_____ Yes, I have a general understanding of the concept.

_____ Yes, but I am not sure what it is.

_____ No.

Appendix B

The Interview Guideline

- Please briefly explain how you made use of the 30 minutes of preparation time.

Did you:

1. Find the optimal option (by comparing many), or;
2. Identify the best option readily available and working to make it more effective?

Please elaborate on your decision-making process.

- What are the differences between preparing with vs. without a time limit?
- Do you focus more on language or knowledge preparation when preparing within a time limit?
- What are the differences between the mock-up CP setting in the study and real-life situations?
- Have you ever encountered a situation where you received a slide deck at the conference venue or in class and had to prepare onsite within a time limit? If yes, has that experience shaped how you prepared today?
- Have you developed your personal SOP (standard operating procedure) for CP?
- How do you determine the credibility of information during CP?
- How do you decide that it is time to move on rather than dwell on a certain piece of reading during CP?
- Please explain the concept of UBI in Mandarin.
- Please rate how prepared you think you are for this assignment from a scale of 1 to 100. Could the score be potentially raised in any way? It is possible to reach 100?

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100 年 1 月 17 日第 1 次編輯委員會議修正
 100 年 5 月 9 日第 1 次諮詢委員與編輯委員聯席會議修正
 101 年 7 月 3 日第 1 次諮詢委員與編輯委員聯席會議修正
 103 年 6 月 13 日諮詢委員與編輯委員聯席會議修正
 104 年 5 月 18 日諮詢委員與編輯委員聯席會議修正
 105 年 5 月 26 日諮詢委員與編輯委員聯席會議修正
 107 年 5 月 18 日諮詢委員與編輯委員聯席會議修正
 108 年 5 月 22 日諮詢委員與編輯委員聯席會議修正
 109 年 7 月 3 日 109 年第 2 次編輯會修正
 110 年 6 月 24 日 110 年第 1 次編輯會修正
 111 年 6 月 2 日諮詢委員與編輯委員聯席會議修正
 111 年 12 月 2 日 111 年第 2 次編輯會修正

- 一、本刊為一結合理論與實務之學術性半年刊，以促進國內編譯研究之發展為宗旨，於每年三月、九月中旬出刊，隨到隨審，歡迎各界賜稿。
- 二、本刊接受中文及英文稿件，主要收稿範圍如下：

稿件類別	文章性質	主題	建議字數 ^(註1)
研究論文	具原創性或發展性之學術論文，目的、方法、結論明確具體		中文以不超過20,000字、英文以不超過12,000字為原則
評論	以既有研究之評介及分析比較為主，有助於實務推廣或學術研究，例如：編譯及語文教育政策評論、翻譯教學心得、審稿或編輯之經驗交流、翻譯流派之介紹、編譯產業之發展、專有名詞譯名討論等	編譯研究、翻譯培訓、翻譯產業、翻譯與文化及其他與編譯相關之研究（如語文教育政策等）	3,000—5,000字
書評 ^(註2)	評論、引介	三年內出版之翻譯學領域重要著作	3,000—5,000字
譯評	翻譯評論	各專業領域之譯著	3,000—5,000字

特殊稿件	如：譯註、人物專訪、論壇 _(註3) 等	以上相關主題	中文以不超過20,000字、英文以不超過12,000字為原則
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註1：本刊編輯會得依需要調整建議字數，中文篇名最多30字，英文篇名最多12字為原則；請作者提供欄外標題（Running head），中文20字／英文50字元以內。

註2：本類型文章僅由編輯會邀稿。

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三、來稿請用中文正體字，所引用之外國人名、地名、書名等，請用中文譯名，並於第一次出現時附上原文，學術名詞譯成中文時，請參據本院樂詞網（<https://terms.naer.edu.tw/>），稿件如有插圖或特別符號，敬請繪製清晰，或附上數位檔案；如有彩色圖片或照片，請盡量附上高解析度的數位檔案。

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- d. 譯者、原作者（編者）；
- e. 書籍出版資料（含出版地、出版社與出版日期）；
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《編譯論叢》撰稿格式說明

本刊撰稿格式除依照一般學術文章撰寫注意事項和格式外，內文、註腳和參考文獻一律採用 APA 格式第七版手冊（*Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, 7th edition, 2020），其他西洋語文引用或參考文獻比照英文格式。

一、摘要

中文摘要字數以 500 字為限，英文摘要則以 300 字為限。關鍵詞皆為三一五組、中英關鍵詞互相對應。

二、正文文字

（一）中文使用 Word「新細明體」12 號字體，英文則使用 Times New Roman 12 號字體。中文之括號、引號等標點符號須以全形呈現，英文則以半形的格式為之，如下：

	中文稿件	英文稿件
括號	（ ）	()
引號	「 」	“ ”
刪節號	……	...
破折號	——	—

中文稿件範例：

……老人打算以租賃的方式，於是說：「我亦不欲買此童子，請定每年十圓之契約，賃我可耳……（頁 40），……

英文稿件範例：

... This subtle shift is evident in the broadening scope of reference of the word “we”: In the sentence that begins “In China, we bribe . . .,” the pronoun “we” plainly refers only to Chinese people.

（二）字詞的使用一律依據「教育部頒布之《國字標準字體》」之規定為之。如公「布」（非「佈」）、「教」師（非「老」師，除非冠上姓氏）、「占」20%（非「佔」）、「了」解（非「瞭」解）以及「臺」灣（非「台」灣）。

（三）正文文字出現數目時，十以下使用國字（一、二、三、……十），英文使用文字（one, two, three, . . . ten），數目超過十（ten）則使用阿拉伯數字，特殊情形則視情況處理。圖、表的編號都使用阿拉伯數字。如以下範例：

……有效問卷 16 份（全班 20 位同學）。表 7、8、9 乃是該三個領域之意見統計。……毫無疑問的是多數學生（87.5%）皆同意翻譯語料庫可提供一個反思及認知學習的平臺。……

（四）英文稿件中出現中文時，原則如下：字、詞需以先漢語拼音（需斜體）後中文呈現，必要時再以括弧解釋；句子或段落則視情況處理。

三、文中段落標號格式

壹、（置中，不用空位元，粗體，前後行距一行）

一、（置左，不用空位元，前後行距為 0.5 行）

（一）（置左，不用空位元）

1. （置左，不用空位元）
- (1) （置左，不用空位元）

四、文中使用之表、圖

表、圖之標號及標題須置於上方且靠左對齊。表、圖與正文前後各空一行，如為引用須於下方註明如參考文獻般詳細的資料來源（含篇名、作者、年代、書名、頁碼等）。表格若跨頁須在跨頁前註明「續下頁」，跨頁表標題需再註明「表標題（續）」。中英文表、圖之格式如下：

	表	圖
中文稿件	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 表標號及標題之中文文字使用標楷體 10號字、粗體；表標題另起一行。 • 表標號及標題之英文文字及數字使用 Calibri、粗體。 • 表內中文文字使用標楷體；表內英文文字及數字用Calibri。 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 圖標號及標題之中文文字使用標楷體 11號字、粗體；圖標題另起一行。 • 圖標號及標題之英文文字及數字使用 Calibri、粗體。 • 圖內中文文字用標楷體；圖內英文文字及數字使用Calibri。
英文稿件	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 表標號用Calibri 10號字、粗體；表標題另起一行，Calibri 10號字且須斜體。 • 表內文字用Calibri。表下方若有說明文字用Calibri 10號字。 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 圖標號用Calibri 11號字、粗體；圖標題另起一行，Calibri 11號字且須斜體。 • 圖內文字用Calibri。圖下方若有說明文字用Calibri 10號字。

中文稿件範例：

表範例

表 1

日治初期出版的臺語教本

	編著者	書名	發行或經銷所	發行日期
1	侯野保和	《臺灣語集》或 《臺灣日用土語集》	民友社	1895年7月18日
2	岩永六一	《臺灣言語集》	中村鍾美堂	1895年8月29日

（續下頁）

表 1

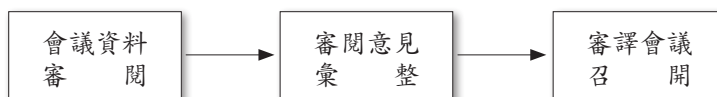
日治初期出版的臺語教本（續）

編著者	書名	發行或經銷所	發行日期
3 坂井釵五郎	《臺灣會話編》	嵩山房	1895年9月15日
4 加藤由太郎	《大日本新領地臺灣語學案內》	東洋堂書店	1895年9月22日
5 田內八百久萬	《臺灣語》	太田組事務所	1895年12月5日
6 佐野直記	《臺灣土語》	中西虎彦	1895年12月28日
7 水上梅彦	《日臺會話大全》	民友社	1896年2月17日
8 木原千楯	《獨習自在臺灣語全集》	松村九兵衛	1896年3月2日
9 辻清藏、三矢重松	《臺灣會話篇》	明法堂	1896年3月15日
10 御幡雅文	《警務必攜臺灣散語集》	總督府民政局 警保課	1896年3月下旬

圖範例

圖 2

學術名詞審譯委員會加開之作法



英文稿件範例：

表範例

Table 4

Summary of the Participants' Listening Difficulties

Statements	Yes (%)	No (%)
(1) I feel very nervous.	42.86	57.14
(2) I am not familiar with grammar.	54.29	45.71
(3) I have insufficient vocabulary.	97.14	2.86

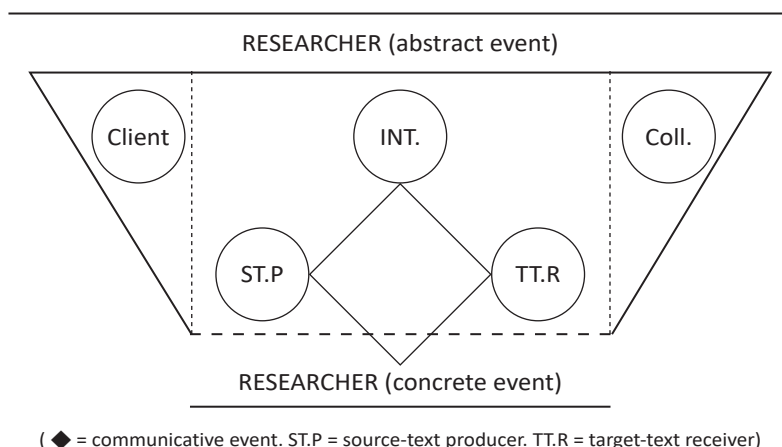
(continued)

Table 4*Summary of the Participants' Listening Difficulties (continued)*

Statements	Yes (%)	No (%)
(4) I cannot make a distinction between words.	14.29	85.71
(5) I cannot recognize the stress of words.	31.43	68.57
(6) I can make a distinction between words, but fail to chunk them meaningfully.	60.00	40.00
(7) I am familiar with the words, but fail to recall them.	94.29	5.71
(8) I have difficulty concentrating.	35.71	64.29
(9) I have difficulty concentrating at first, so I miss the first listening section.	51.43	48.57
(10) I concentrate too much on the first listening section, so I miss the listening later.	55.71	44.29
(11) I cannot understand the first section, so I miss the listening later.	41.43	58.57
(12) I cannot keep in mind what I have just heard.	30.00	70.00
(13) I feel that the listening text is too long.	74.29	25.71
(14) I feel that the listening text has no sufficient pause.	72.86	27.14
(15) I feel that the listening text is too short to develop main ideas.	28.57	71.43
(16) I am not familiar with the listening subject.	78.57	21.43
(17) I am not interested in the listening subject.	45.71	54.29
(18) I fail to keep up with the speech rate.	70.00	30.00
(19) I am not used to the speaker's enunciation.	62.86	37.14
(20) I am not used to the speaker's intonation.	30.00	70.00
(21) I am not used to the speaker's accent.	62.86	
(22) I have no chance to listen again.	42.86	57.14
(23) I count on listening only, without any visual aids.	41.43	58.57
(24) I have limited exposure to English listening.	68.57	31.43

圖範例

Figure 11

Perspectives on Quality Assessment in Interpretation

Note. From "Quality Assessment in Conference and Community Interpreting," by F. Pöchhacker, 2001, *Meta*, 46(2), p. 412 (<https://doi.org/10.7202/003847ar>).

五、文中引用其他說明

佐證或直接引用超過中文 65 字、英文 40 字時，均須將引文內縮六個位元，中文以「標楷體」11 號字體呈現。中文年代後用逗號「，」，以「頁」帶出頁碼；英文年分後用逗點「，」，以「p.」帶出頁碼。年分一律統一以西元呈現。

中文稿件範例：

……《紅樓夢大辭典》詞條：

抱廈廳：在房屋正面或背面接出有獨立屋頂的建築稱抱廈。廳是指用於居住以外的接待、集會或是其他公共活動的房屋。抱廈廳即為用作廳房的抱廈。（馮其庸、李希凡，1990，頁 190）

英文稿件範例：

... Vermeer states:

Any form of translational action, including therefore translation itself, may be conceived as an action, as the name implies. Any action has an aim, a purpose. ... The word *skopos*, then, is a technical term to represent the aim or purpose of a translation. (Nord, 1997, p. 12)

六、附註

需於標點之後，並以上標為之；附註之說明請於同一頁下方區隔線下說明，說明文字第二行起應和第一行的文字對齊。簡而言之，附註應以「當頁註」之方式呈現，亦即 Word 中「插入註腳」之功能。註腳第二行以下文字須縮排，註腳所使用之中文字體為標楷體。

七、正文引註

(一) 正文引註之作者為一個人時，格式為：

	作者（年代）或（作者，年代）
中文	範例
	謝天振（2002）或（謝天振，2002）
	Author (Year) 或 (Author, Year)
英文	範例
	Chern (2002) 或 (Chern, 2002)

(二) 正文引註之作者為兩個人時，作者的姓名（中文）或姓氏（英文）於文中以「與」（中文）和「and」（英文）連接，括弧中則以「、」（中文）和「&」（英文）連接：

作者一與作者二（年代）或（作者一、作者二，年代）

範例一

中文 莫言與王堯（2003）或（莫言、王堯，2003）

範例二（中文論文引用英文文獻）

Wassertein 與 Rosen（1994）或（Wassertein & Rosen, 1994）

Author 1 and Author 2 (Year) 或 (Author 1 & Author 2, Year)

英文 範例

Hayati and Jalilifar (2009) 或 (Hayati & Jalilifar, 2009)

（三）正文引註之作者為三人以上時，寫出第一位作者並加「等」（中文）和「et al.」（英文）即可。

作者一等（年代）或（作者一等，年代）

中文 範例

謝文全等（1985）或（謝文全等，1985）

Author 1 et al. (Year) 或 (Author 1 et al., Year)

英文 範例

Piolat et al. (2005) 或 (Piolat et al., 2005)

（四）括弧內同時包含多筆文獻時，依筆畫（中文）／姓氏字母（英文）及年代優先順序排列，不同作者間以分號分開，相同作者不同年代之文獻則以逗號分開。

中文 （吳清山、林天祐，1994，1995a，1995b；劉春榮，1995）

英文 (Pautler, 1992; Razik & Swanson, 1993a, 1993b)

(五) 部分引用文獻時，要逐一標明特定出處，若引用原文獻語句40字以內，所引用文字需加雙引號（「」或“”）並加註頁碼。

中文	1. (陳明終，1994，第八章) 2. 「……」(徐鑄成，2009，頁302)
英文	1. (Shujaa, 1992, Chapter 8) 2. “...” (Bourdieu, 1990, p. 54)

(六) 正文引註翻譯書，年代請列明：原著出版年／譯本出版年。

八、參考文獻

「參考文獻」之括號，中文以全形（）、英文以半形()為之：第二行起縮排四個半形位元。此外，中文文獻應與外文文獻分開，中文文獻在前，外文文獻在後。不同類型文獻之所求格式如下：

(一) 期刊類格式包括作者、出版年、文章名稱、期刊名稱、卷期數、起迄頁碼、DOI 或 URL（非紙本資料）等均須齊全。中文文章名稱加〈〉，中文期刊名稱加《》；英文期刊名稱及卷號為斜體。僅有期數者則僅列明期數，無須加括號，並自第二行起空四個字元。亦即：

中文期刊格式：

作者一、作者二、作者三(年)。〈文章名稱〉。《期刊名稱》，卷別(期別)，頁碼。DOI 或 URL

範例

林慶隆、劉欣宜、吳培若、丁彥平(2011)。〈臺灣翻譯發展相關議題之探討〉。《編譯論叢》，4(2)，181–200。https://doi.org/10.29912/CTR.201109.0007

英文期刊格式：

Author, A. A., Author, B. B., & Author, C. C. (Year). Title of article. *Title of Periodical*, xx(xx), xx-xx. DOI or URL

範例

Aspy, D. J., & Proeve, M. (2017). Mindfulness and loving-kindness meditation: Effects on connectedness to humanity and to the natural world. *Psychological Reports*, 120(1), 102-117. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0033294116685867>

(二) 書籍類格式包括作者、出版年、書名（第二版以上須註明版別）、出版單位等均須齊全，且中文書名加《》，英文書名為斜體，並自第二行起空四個位元。

中文書籍格式：

作者（年代）。《書名》（版別）。出版單位。

範例

宋新娟（2005）。《書籍裝幀設計》（第二版）。武漢大學。

英文書籍格式：

Author, A. A. (Year). *Book title*. Publisher.

範例

Jauss, H. R. (1982). *Toward an aesthetic of reception*. University of Minnesota Press.

(三) 書籍篇章格式包括篇章作者、出版年、篇章名、編者、書名（第二版以上須註明版別）、起迄頁碼、出版單位等均須齊全，且中文篇章名前後加〈〉，中文書名前後加《》，英文書名為斜體，並自第二行起空四個位元。

中文書籍篇章格式：

作者（年代）。〈章名〉。載於編者（主編），《書名》（版別，頁碼）。
出版單位。

範例

單德興（2019）。〈冷戰時代的美國文學中譯：今日世界出版社之文學翻譯與文化政治〉。載於賴慈芸（主編），《臺灣翻譯史：殖民、國族與認同》（頁 467-514）。聯經。

英文書籍篇章格式：

Author, A. A. (Year). Chapter title. In B. B. Author & C. C. Author (Eds.), *Book title* (x ed., pp. xx-xx). Publisher.

範例

Weinstock, R., Leong, G. B., & Silva, J. A. (2003). Defining forensic psychiatry: Roles and responsibilities. In R. Rosner (Ed.), *Principles and practice of forensic psychiatry* (2nd ed., pp. 7-13). CRC Press.

- （四）翻譯書籍格式包括原作者中文譯名、原作者原文名、譯本出版年、翻譯書名、譯者、版別（第二版以上須註明版別）、譯本出版單位、原著出版年等均須齊全，且中文書名加《》，英文書名為斜體，並自第二行起空四個位元。

中文翻譯書格式：

原作者中文譯名（原作者原文名）（譯本出版年）。《翻譯書名》（譯者譯；版別）。譯本出版單位。（原著出版年）

範例

喬伊斯（Joyce, J.）（1995）。《尤利西斯》（蕭乾、文潔若譯）。時報文化。
（原著出版年：1984）

英文翻譯書格式：

Author, A. A. (Year). *Book title* (B. Author, Trans.; x ed.). Publisher. (Original work published year)

範例

Piaget, J., & Inhelder, B. (1969). *The psychology of the child* (H. Weaver, Trans.; 2nd ed.). Basic Books. (Original work published 1966)

- (五) 國內、外會議之研討會發表／論文發表皆須列出作者、會議舉辦日期、發表題目／文章篇名、發表類型、會議名稱及會議地點、DOI 或 URL（網路資料需列）等，且中文發表題目／文章篇名加〈〉、英文發表題目／文章篇名為斜體，自第二行起空四個位元。

中文研討會發表／論文發表格式：

作者（年月日）。〈發表題目／文章篇名〉（類型）。研討會名稱，舉行地點。
DOI 或 URL

範例

劉康怡（2019 年 9 月 27 日）。〈經典俄國文學作品翻譯中譯注之探討——以《地下室手記》之中譯本為例〉（論文發表）。2019 臺灣翻譯研討會——語文教育與翻譯，臺北市，中華民國（臺灣）。

英文研討會發表／論文發表格式：

Author, A. A., & Author, B. B. (Date). *Title of contribution* [Type of contribution].
Conference Name, Location. DOI or URL

範例

Fistek, A., Jester, E., & Sonnenberg, K. (2017, July 12-15). *Everybody's got a little music in them: Using music therapy to connect, engage, and motivate*

[Conference session]. Autism Society National Conference, Milwaukee, WI, United States. <https://asa.confex.com/asa/2017/webprogramarchives/Session9517.html>

- (六) 網路訊息格式包括作者、發表日期（若有顯示）、訊息標題、網站名稱、URL 等均須齊全，且中文訊息標題前後加〈〉、英文訊息標題為斜體。第二行起空四個位元。（會持續更新且無保存變更紀錄的網頁／網站訊息才須註明擷取日期）

中文網路訊息格式：

作者（年月日）。〈訊息標題〉。網站名稱。URL

範例

潘乃欣（2020 年 6 月 10 日）。〈名字沒有龜也值得去！教部鼓勵登龜山島認識海洋〉。聯合新聞網。https://udn.com/news/story/6885/4625731?from=udn-catebreaknews_ch2

英文網路訊息格式：

Author, A. A. (Date). *Title of work*. Site Name. URL

範例

Peterson, S. M. (2017, October 27). *Why aromatherapy is showing up in hospital surgical units*. Mayo Clinic. <https://www.mayoclinic.org/healthy-lifestyle/stress-management/in-depth/why-aromatherapy-is-showing-up-in-hospital-surgical-units/art-20342126>

- (七) 學位論文格式包括作者、年分、論文標題、出版狀況與學位類型、學校名稱、資料庫／檔案庫名稱及 URL 等均須齊全，中文論文標題加《》，英文論文標題為斜體，自第二行起空四個位元。

中文學位論文格式：

博士／碩士論文：

作者（年）。《論文標題》（博／碩士論文）。校名。

範例

白立平（2004）。《詩學、意識形態及贊助人與翻譯：梁實秋翻譯研究》（博士論文）。香港中文大學。

英文學位論文格式：

1. 未出版學位論文：

Author, A. A. (Year). *Title of dissertation or thesis* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation or master's thesis]. Name of Institution.

範例

Wilfley, D. E. (1989). *Interpersonal analyses of bulimia: Normal weight and obese* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. University of Missouri.

2. 已出版學位論文：

Author, A. A. (Year). *Title of dissertation or thesis* [Doctoral dissertation or Master's thesis, Name of Institution]. Database or Archive Name. URL

範例

Lui, T. T. F. (2013). *Experiences in the bubble: Assimilation and acculturative stress of Chinese heritage students in Silicon Valley* [Master's thesis, Stanford University]. Graduate School of Education International Comparative Education Master's Monographs Digital Collection. <https://searchworks.stanford.edu/view/10325276>

中文參考文獻英譯說明

中文稿件經初審後請作者修改時，作者須加列中文參考文獻之英譯。相關說明如下：

1. 每一筆英譯請置於【】內，並各自列於該筆中文參考文獻下方。
2. 若中文參考文獻本身已有英譯，以該英譯為準，若本身並無英譯則以漢語拼音逐詞音譯方式處理，斷詞標準參考國教院分詞系統，網址為 <https://coct.naer.edu.tw/Segmentor/>。
3. 英譯之後的參考文獻格式，請參考美國心理學會（American Psychological Association, APA）之寫作格式（第七版）。

中文參考文獻英譯範例：

潘少瑜（2011）。〈想像西方：論周瘦鵑的「偽翻譯」小說〉。《編譯論叢》，4（2），1-23。 <https://doi.org/10.29912/CTR.201109.0001>

【Pan, S. Y. (2011). Imagining the West: Zhou Shoujuan's pseudotranslations. *Compilation and Translation Review*, 4(2), 1-23. <https://doi.org/10.29912/CTR.201109.0001>】

劉仲康（2011）。〈趕流行的流行性感冒〉。載於羅時成（主編），《流感病毒，變變變》（頁 20-29）。臺灣商務印書館。

【Liu, C. K. (2011). Ganliuxing de liuxingxing ganmao. In S. C. Lo (Ed.), *Liugan bingdu, bianbian bian* (pp. 20-29). Commercial Press.】

劉康怡（2019 年 9 月 27 日）。〈經典俄國文學作品翻譯中譯注之探討——以《地下室手記》之中譯本為例〉（論文發表）。2019 臺灣翻譯研討會——語文教育與翻譯，臺北市，中華民國（臺灣）。

【Liu, K. Y. (2019, September 27). *Jingdian Eguo wenxue zuopin fanyi zhong yizhu zhi tantao: Yi Dixiashi Shouji zhi zhongyiben wei li* [Paper presentation]. 2019 Taiwan International Conference on Translation and Interpreting, Taipei, Taiwan.】

潘乃欣（2020年6月10日）。〈名字沒有龜也值得去！教部鼓勵登龜山島認識海洋〉。聯合新聞網。https://udn.com/news/story/6885/4625731?from=udn-catebreaknews_ch2

【Pan, N. H. (2020, June 10). *Mingzi meiyou gui ye zhide qu! Jiaobu guli deng Guishandao renshi haiyang*. United Daily News. https://udn.com/news/story/6885/4625731?from=udn-catebreaknews_ch2】

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