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《和訓三体詩》之翻譯技巧：和漢轉換之法

黃佳慧

至今，大部分的研究成果對於《和訓三体詩》的認識上主要停留在許六的意想，認為《和訓三体詩》僅是使用俳諧的文體譯出漢詩的結果，其內容主體皆是許六的隨創。本研究主要以《和訓三体詩》第三〜五卷的作品為例，自許六譯出的俳文中，找出傳承古今以及不同於古今之其獨有的和漢轉換原理。仔細分析其譯文，可發現其和漢轉換不同於所謂「改編」，許六所採用的對譯題材，是實際發生在日本且有記載的著名「地方風景」、「習俗」或「典故」（包含許六親身的經歷或歷史人事物），非許六自身虛構。同時，在俳諧主要採用詩語來創新文辭的目的下，許六盡可能在譯出的俳文中沿用詩語。即許六發揮「訓讀」法吸納漢字的原理，在俳文中交錯詩語，使讀者能夠在俳文間同時習得和文與詩語，達到提昇跨文化涵養與文辭造詣的目的，在當時可說是獨樹一格的譯法。由此可歸納出許六在進行和漢轉換時的主要三法：首先，以和漢相通的意涵為基軸進行釋義，若無相通或無詩意則選擇不譯；其次，轉換文體、場景與文字，但不改變原詩主題或加入虛構劇情；最後，在修辭上融合詩語與俳語，擴增詞彙量，並發展創新的描寫方式。而此翻譯的手法是否源自蕉門俳論的精神，值得未來深究。

關鍵詞：許六、《和訓三体詩》、漢詩、俳文、翻譯

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Translation Strategies in *Wakun Santai Shi*: Transforming Chinese Verse Into Japanese Haibun

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To date, understanding of *Wakun Santai Shi* has relied primarily on KyoRiku's translation, which is often viewed as a straightforward adaptation of Chinese verse into the haibun style, presumed to consist mainly of KyoRiku's original writings. This study, focusing on volumes three to five of *Wakun Santai Shi*, aims to analyze KyoRiku's Japanese-Chinese translation strategies to identify both conventional and distinctive techniques unique to his works. Careful analysis reveals that KyoRiku's haibun translations, rather than mere adaptations, incorporate references to renowned local landscapes, customs, or historical events (including KyoRiku's own personal experiences), all of which are factual rather than fictional. Moreover, given that haibun primarily employs poetic language to innovate expressions, KyoRiku strove to retain this poetic essence in his translations. He skillfully interwove prose and verse within the haiku texts, creating a hybrid form that allows readers to engage with both literary styles simultaneously, thereby enhancing their cross-cultural understanding and literary proficiency. Three key strategies are identified in KyoRiku's Chinese-to-Japanese translations. Firstly, KyoRiku's translations are grounded in equivalence. If no equivalent or poetic expressions exist, he would choose not to translate. Secondly, KyoRiku would modify the genre, setting, and language as long as the major themes remain intact and no fictional plotlines are introduced. Lastly, the poetic verse is blended with haibun, resulting in the creation of new diction and new descriptive methods. Whether such translation techniques stem from the spirit of Matsuo Bashō's haiku theory awaits further investigation.

Keywords: KyoRiku, *Wakun Santai Shi*, Chinese poetry, haibun, translation

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壹、前言

在〈《和訓三体詩》之漢詩俳譯技巧初探：詩體之法〉（黃佳慧，2023）中，研究者初步發現許六[1]如何將各漢詩轉譯成俳文，從中釐清漢詩譯成俳文的第一項重要轉換技巧：詩體之法。從中可歸納出四種運用詩體的模式，分解結構後，可見許六將詩體轉為俳文體的原理，即使用「轉換」的方式加上俳諧元素來完成翻譯（參照圖1）。

圖1

轉體模式與俳諧元素
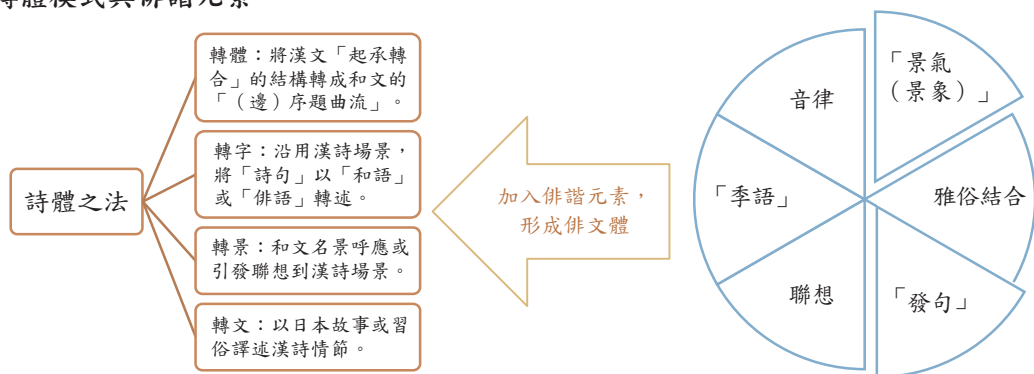
對此，於釐清許六的「文體轉換」（詩體轉為文體）原理後，本研究以此為基礎，進一步以《和訓三体詩》[2]（森川許六，1714）第三～五卷的譯作為例，自日本翻譯史的脈絡及許六本人的翻譯原則為基礎，探究傳承日本古今以及許六以俳文發想之獨有的和漢轉換原理與技巧。

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[1] 蕉門十哲之一，本名森川百仲，明曆二（西元1656）年～正德五（西元1715）年，為森川家二代與次右衛門重宗的嫡子，出生於彥根（今日本滋賀県）（尾形仂，2009，頁231）。「許六」之名號，據最新研究指出應是源自森川本家傳書：《六韜》之相授，「許」代表許可、容許之意，「許六」意味「獲許繼承《六韜》之尊榮」（砂田步，2023，頁28－38），彰顯其武士身份。

[2] 本研究採用早稲田大学図書館「古典籍総合データベース」藏書，該館藏為正德四（西元1714）年刊物，「野田彌兵衛‧野田太兵衛版」。「翻刻方針」：筆者轉換成現代字體，漢字、假名與訓點依原典標示；其中，為便於理解內文，於「附註」與「詩解」適時附上括號及標點符號。

貳、翻譯中的「和訓」與「翻案」（改編）

　　「翻譯」活動源由已久，為鏈接各國不同語言和文化的重要紐帶。各國在實踐翻譯與相互交流的過程，亦形成豐富且多元的翻譯理論。回顧日本翻譯史，可發現日本早期引進漢文之初，發明「訓讀」法，即以「異化」（foreignization）的方式，留下漢字所有的原文，並重新排列成和文的語順，進行解讀。[3] 和歌與漢詩之間對譯，如：《和漢朗詠集》（藤原公任，1013）或《文集百首》（建保五〔西元 1218〕年成書），主要採用「唱和」漢詩心聲的方式，使和歌與漢詩的情感交融一致（日文漢字：「同情」），場景或人物則適時轉換成和歌的景物，故近似於「翻」。[4] 和文類的翻譯（如：《唐物語》（永万元〔西元 1165〕年成書），則是將漢詩或漢文轉成和文體，於修辭雖以和文的感覺基調為準，但景物與漢詩全然一致，可說是「譯」。除了直譯漢詩文的「訓讀」及和漢「唱和」與「對譯」外，另有以和語解釋漢字詞義的「和訓」（如：《唐詩選和訓》〔嵩山房高英和訓，文政六（西元 1823）年刊〕），一開始類似字詞解釋的功能，逐漸擴展成漢詩或漢文轉以和文形式表達其意（今野真二，2010，頁 103－117；吉田金彥，1961，頁 59－67）。但此類的和訓屬於為理解漢詩或漢文的一種「轉述」。但若以現今的角度來看，無論是「字義」、「文體」或「文脈」皆以受到轉換，故部分學者認為「和訓」或許也可視作是一種「翻譯」。[5]

　　近世中期以後亦出現使用庶民「鄙言俚語」的「俗訓」（如：《絕句解弁書》（寶曆 13〔西元 1763〕年刊），或《六朝詩選俗訓》（安永三〔西元

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[3] 例如：「不好學」一般訓讀為「不ㇾ好マ二學ヲ」（学を好まず），適時加上日文的訓讀點，讓語順與文法在閱讀的時候可以調整成和文的語順，並留下原文的所有漢字。

[4] 期間日本經歷和漢混淆文的時代，主要以和文為主體，並適時嵌入「漢文訓讀體」，和漢混淆文為日文帶來一波新蛻變，但此文體主要用於創作而非翻譯，故略過不論。有名和漢混淆文的作品有《今昔物語集》、《徒然草》、《方丈記》、《平家物語》等。

[5] 今野真二（2013）以柏木如亭《訳注聯珠詩格》（享和三〔西元 1801〕年出版）的內文為例，針對南宋僧志南的「絕句」「古木陰々繫短篷」，其漢文訓讀為「古木陰々として短篷を繫ぐ」，而柏木加上譯註為「古木シゲリ陰キ々ツタモリノカゲ二短篷ヲ繫コブネデカラ」，即漢字上面以和文的字音與字義標示，並以和文脈貫穿全義（頁 149－162）。

1774〕年刊），已與和訓不同，不止於和文註解，同時以俗語譯出詩意。近世中後期，即中國明清小說大量傳入日本後，因當時小說文體難以使用訓讀方式處理，故採用和文譯出（當時稱作「和訓」）後，更出現許多相當有名的「翻案」（改編）譯作，如：上田秋成的《雨月物語》（安永五〔西元1776〕年刊）與三遊亭圓朝的《牡丹灯籠》（明治17〔西元1884〕年刊）改編至明代瞿佑著的《剪灯新話》（西元1378年）等。[6]

　　簡言之，當漢詩文進入和文世界時，可歸納出至少五種傾向：

　　一、音讀或訓讀的「直譯漢文」

　　二、將文法轉為和文的「變體漢文」

　　三、完全轉成和語的和文（含「和漢唱和」與「和漢對譯」）

　　四、於漢文間標以和文解釋的「和訓」或以「鄙言俚語」譯解的「俗訓」

　　五、「翻案」（改編）。（岡田袈裟男，2013，頁19－33；笠井清，

　　　　1953，頁73－126）

對此，中世說話文學研究者前田富祺（1974）針對中世為止的翻譯現象進行分類時，表示第一點與第二點需要有漢文學養，始可讀懂內文，故只有第三點較近似翻譯（頁413－446）。[7]至於第五點「翻案」（改編），前田富祺（1974）指出當時主要採用模仿、影響、借用等方式，脫胎換骨「重生」為和文故事；其展現手法上，自日本中世的「說話文學」（傳說）中，亦歸納出以下九種模式：[8]（1）簡譯原文；（2）摘要原文；（3）「盡可能」忠實譯出原文；（4）只翻譯原文的一部分，或刪減並自行串連文章後譯出；（5）如實傳達原文旨意，但表達自由；（6）於原文中加上新趣意或細部描寫，改編或改寫；（7）改變原文的主題，並將時間、地點、人物全換成日本，潤色

成日本；（8）以原文作為創想的材料，創出新作；（9）參照原文的幾個故事或模式，適時取捨後編寫成新故事。前田富祺（1974）認為姑且不論原文是譯成戲曲還是韻文，（1）至（4）大致還算是「翻譯」活動的一種，但至於後續數者應屬「翻案」（改編）。

以上聚焦和漢轉換與交融的現象，簡單回顧日本譯介漢詩文的發展與流變。將漢詩文譯成和文體的狀況雖自古可見，但轉譯成俳文體者，僅許六《和訓三体詩》（森川許六，1714）一部。黃佳慧（2023）初步解構許六於《和訓三体詩》的文體轉換原理時指出──不只是文體轉為和文的文法與脈絡，許六於用字亦加入和語與俳語，場景大多轉以和景重現，甚至依據和漢可對應的程度，連人物與風俗民情皆以日本民族為主調，僅有「情節」相似（頁12－17）。若依前田富祺（1974）的分類來看，許六的和漢轉換方式符合第（5）、（6）點，即傳承中世文學的特色，內容上近以改寫或二次創作的「翻案」（改編）類。

以上述看法，對照許六於《和訓三体詩》〈序言〉的翻譯原則：

> 此絕句和訓は。文字言句の沙汰をいはず。文字は詩を學ぶ人に習べ
> し。只作者の腸を捜し。かくれたる意味を。和文に述て。もろこし。
> うとき人の為にとて。[9]（森川許六，1714，序二・裏）

由上文譯序可知，許六忠實轉介的內容並非文字，而是詩人於字裡行間所傳達的「詩情」。換言之，許六轉譯過程「並無」重新再創新局或改編主題，而是「如實傳達原文旨意」的前提下，「加上新趣意或細部描寫」，「將時間、地點、人物潤色成日本」，雖不屬「忠實」的譯文，卻不至於改寫主題與劇情。即由此點來看，許六的轉譯方式不同於古人，或許介於翻譯與「翻案」（改編）之間，其譯成俳文的獨到之處，值得進一步深究。

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[9] 筆者中譯：「本書不討論訓詁，（漢詩文的）用字遣詞應向學詩者取經；本書僅尋覓各詩人隱懷的詩情，轉以和文敍述，以祈對唐事陌生者有所裨益。」

參、和漢轉換手法

　　許六在譯出原詩的過程中，會先於「詩解」中說明詩語與詩意，依狀況也會先於「詩解」中，將詩語譯成和語後，將該譯詞直接導入「詩意」。[10] 於轉換的手法方面，若內容有和漢可能相對應的典故，則許六會使用對應漢詩的日本典故對譯之；若沒有典故，則會將場景轉至日本風景；若無典故且日本沒有對應的風景，依情況實採用原詩情景完成譯出，又或者選擇不譯。[11] 譯文全以俳文體為基調，採用典故、日本風景或沿用原詩情景，有根據地進行和漢對應或轉換。其對譯方式除了「轉換成日本實有的風景」及「沿用原詩情景以俳文重述」外，還可見以下三類。

一、典故對譯

　　黃佳慧（2023）曾指出許六在俳文運用許多歷史人物典故來對譯原詩，在三～五卷內，亦可看到大量的運用，[12] 以下文為例。

（一）史實典故類

　　此類的對譯方式占比最多，舉〈患ㄑ眼ㄖ〉（森川許六，1714，卷之四・七・表～八・表）為例。[13]

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[10] 如：劉言史「過ㄑ_春秋峽ㄖ_」（森川許六，1714，卷之五・九・表～十・表）之詩題的「詩解」中，表示「春秋峽」在日本稱作「迫門」，而「峭壁蒼々苔色新也」的「詩解」中說明「峭壁ハ、切岸さがしうて壁の如なるを云（中譯：『峭壁』指如同斷崖險壁）」等，之後皆將「迫門」與「切岸」等和訓後的譯詞用於「詩意」之中。

[11] 許六的「未譯」主要有七種情況：（1）無詩意可譯，如：孟遲「閒情」（森川許六，1714，卷之三・二・裏）；（2）詩意一目瞭然，如：劉商「送王永」（森川許六，1714，卷之四・三・裏）；（3）和漢無共通處，如：姚合「採松花」（森川許六，1714，卷之四・六・表）；（4）詩意難以譯出，如；竇牟「奉試圖圓篴」（森川許六，1714，卷之六・十二・表～十三・表）；（5）譯出恐損原意，如：王維「寒食汜上」（森川許六，1714，卷之七・三・表）；（6）於詩解已說明和漢相通之處，如：張祜「集靈臺」（森川許六，1714，卷之六・十五・表～十六・表）；（7）沒有翻譯，如：戎昱「寄許鍊師」（森川許六，1714，卷之五・二・裏）。因《和訓三体詩》是許六晚年之作，「（7）沒有翻譯」的現象主要集中在第五～七卷，推測可能當時氣數有限下的取捨結果。除「無譯出」以外，自其「未譯」的狀況，可知許六會依原詩的可譯性及對譯的必要性，選擇譯出與否。

[12] 如趙嘏的「經_汾陽ㄚ舊宅ㄖ_」（森川許六，1714，卷之四・十一・表～裏）以織田信長的古城「安土山」為背景，對照「汾陌陽舊宅」進行俳譯；或張喬的「寄ㄙ_山僧ㄗ_」（森川許六，1714，卷之三・七・裏～八・表）採用「南都燒討」（清盛於治承四〔西元 1180〕年時為一掃反平家的勢力而燒毀南都〔奈良〕的佛寺〔東大寺與興福寺等〕的事件進行俳譯）。見国史大辞典編集委員会（1979－1997）。

[13] 本文表所引用文字之底線及框線，皆為筆者所標註。

表 1

〈患ㇾ眼ㇷ〉譯文對照

原文	詩解	詩意
三年患ㇷ眼ㇷ今日較<ruby>免<rt>イユ</rt></ruby>ルㇳ與ㇵ風光ㇶ便ㇳ隔<ruby>ルコトㇳ</ruby>ㇺㇾ生ㇷ（森川許六，1714，卷之四・七・表〜裏）	較ハ直也、明也と字訓ありて、瘉と云心なし、又差の字の字訓に較也とあり、差をや、とよみいゆとよむ、依之昔よりいゆと点を付たり。隔生と云ハ死て今生をへたつるおもひと云事也。（森川許六，1714，卷之四・七・裏）	①三条院と申奉る十禅の<ruby>帝<rt>ヤマヒ</rt></ruby>も。病にハ御心をまかせ給ふ事も叶ずまして賤しき身の。はか〴〵敷醫療もなくて。三とせ患て少し怠りぬれば。②こひしかるべき夜半の月哉と。③讀ませ給ふ御製も悲しく。④花鳥と壁を隔たる事を<ruby>免<rt>マヌカ</rt></ruby>れたり。⑤されど岐阜山の花ハ。霞を帯ひて分明ならずといへど。⑥大智坊[1]の後園にあそび侍るしるしなりと。⑦蘇生たる心地したり。（森川許六，1714，卷之四・七・裏〜八・表）
昨日韓家後園ノ裏 看ㇷㇾ花ㇷ猶自未ㇵ分明ㇷラㇲ（森川許六，1714，卷之四・七・裏）	三の句、三年眼を患のうち、韓退之をたのミ書を作らせて、藥を李中亜に求てなかば効を得たり、されど眼疾残るゆへに不分明と云事也。（森川許六，1714，卷之四・七・裏）	

註：1. 如比叡山有間東塔的寺廟，其住持名為大智房（馬淵和夫等，2000，頁 574）。同時，戰國時代名眼醫馬島重，為尾張（今愛知縣）馬島医王山藥師寺之馬島流眼科的別流：大智坊馬島派之祖，之後獲得大智坊的法號（日本人名大辞典編集委員会，2001）。

　　三条院為 67 代天皇三条天皇（西元 976－1017 年），因患有眼疾而讓位，[14]《榮花物語》三条天皇即位儀式為寬弘八（西元 1011）年十月，於長和三（西元 1014）年八月〜寬年元（西元 1017）年的記載中，提到三条天皇龍體欠安之事，甚至遭藤原道長逼迫退位（山中裕等，1996，頁 19－92）；並於長和五（西元 1016）年時因眼病而親赴比叡山的延曆寺（吉川弘文館編集部，2006－2008）。《大鏡》中亦有提到三条天皇雖患眼疾，仍受到賞識而獲得一条天皇授位，順利登基（橘健二、加藤静子，1996，頁 49－53）；之後即使用盡偏方醫治，甚至登上比叡山祈願，依然沒有好轉。許六在此將此史實以俳文敍之（表 1 底線①）來對譯原詩的背景，隨即引用三条天皇的名歌：「心にもあらで憂き世に長らへば恋しかるべき夜半の月かな」（三条院，無日期）。表 1 底線②筆者中譯為：「即使（活著）非吾心所願／若

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[14] 1011 年即位，1016 年讓位給敦成親王（後一条天皇）（日本大百科全書編集部，1994）。

能在此無常的現世倖存下去／<u>必會惦起此深夜明月</u>」，後世每拜讀此作亦愴
然涕淚（表 1 底線③）。之後，回應原詩的「免ルニト與ニ風光ニ便チ隔ルコトヲ上レ生
テ」（免待來生便可見光明），[15]將「風光」轉為「花鳥」，將「隔生」轉為「隔
壁」，形成「免與花鳥隔有障壁」之意（表 1 底線④）。最後俳文將場景選
定三条天皇駕臨岐阜縣的比叡山延曆寺，以「大智坊後園」（表 1 底線⑥）
對應原詩提到韓退之的後花園，以岐阜縣賞花時亦帶有雲靄般視力模糊（表
1 底線⑤），來譯出原詩「看テレ花ヲ猶自未ニ分明ナラニ」。隨即以宛如重生般
的心情作結尾（表 1 底線⑦），突顯出眼疾好似轉好的狀態，回應原詩的情景。
在史實上，三条天皇最終眼疾沒有獲得治癒，故俳文選定在上比叡山時的場
景，描寫天皇當時看景感到好似痊癒的心境，與原詩一樣雖留有眼疾而無法
看清楚花景，卻彷彿有重生的喜悅。

（二）物語典故類

　　許六亦運用大眾耳熟能詳的經典 ── 《源氏物語》（阿部秋生等，
1995），作為對譯的題材，以〈吳城／覽古〉（森川許六，1714，卷之三・一・
表～裏）為例。俳文中的「六條院」為《源氏物語》的主角源氏新建作為後
宮的宅邸，由此來對應原詩的吳王舊城（阿部秋生等，1995，頁 76－80）。
許六在俳文還原此宮邸精心打造的四町 [16] 之春夏秋冬的情景：「春稍帶秋草，
冬澤畔水煙」（表 2 底線①），然而現在只剩明月受夜雲遮蔽，日夜變化無
常的風聲，山谷回音似鬼吼，令人毛骨悚然（表 2 底線②），此段以日本秋
天的景色，來回應此段原詩的秋景。接續提到「花散里」一詞，回顧《源氏
物語》的六條院落成時景，當時定在「秋の彼岸」（和曆八月十日左右）一
起遷入六條院，但因為秋好中宮著覺太驚擾大家，遂行延期；沒想到向來便
我行我素的花散里，在八月六條院落成後，當夜搬至其所配屬的「夏町」。

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[15] 由於許六於《和訓三体詩》的「凡例」中述有「一本註は。高安圓至書記。釋天隱の作也。」（森
　　川許六，1714，卷之一・序三），即該書的詩註主要參考天隱增註版（紀昀等，無日期）。原詩解
　　釋主要參照許六參用的《三体詩素隱抄》（說心慈宣，1637）。
[16] 一町為 120 平方公尺，1.5 萬平方公尺（阿部秋生等，1995，頁 76，頭注）。其中共有四町，代表春
　　夏秋冬，春町由源氏、紫上與明石之姬君居住，夏町配予花散里及夕霧，秋町配予秋好中宮，冬町
　　配予明石御方。

原詩由於是覽古，即古人已不復在，故俳文提到「花散里」已不復在（表2底線③）；唯每年春天搶先盛開的八重櫻，不留雲霞（表2底線④），反應出原詩對於秋天之時，顧念春天之美，憐惜每年早早綻放的花景，最後以懷古之淚濕滿襟作收。在此可見得許六引用物語對應吳王的故事，同時也站在覽古的視角回顧《源氏物語》的方式，來表達今非昔比。

表2

〈吳城ノ覽古〉譯文對照

原文	詩解	詩意
吳城ノ覽古（森川許六，1714，卷之三・一・表）	吳王の城を云、姑蘇の事也、覽古ハ旧跡を見て作るを云。（森川許六，1714，卷之三・一・表）	六條の院と申侍しは光源氏の世さかりに。四町につくり琢れたる。①春の梢に秋の草。冬
陳羽（森川許六，1714，卷之三・一・表）	与_韓退之_同年に登第す。（森川許六，1714，卷之三・一・表）	の澤邊の水煙。②只有明の雲かくれより。日夜にあれる風の音。木
吳王ノ舊國水煙空シ 香徑無シテレ人蘭葉紅ナリ（森川許六，1714，卷之三・一・表）	古城の荒たるを云んため水烟と云、香徑ハ西施に香草を採せたる所なり、蘭葉ハ葉の事にあらず、花に千葉万葉と云がごとし、紫蘭は秋に至て紅也と云詞見えたり。（森川許六，1714，卷之三・一・表）	玉の鬼こそをそろしけれ。③花散里はなけれども。④年ン〳〵まづ開く八重桜。煙霞あとなし。むかし誰か住しと、そゞろに袂をしほり侍る。（森川許六，1714，卷之三・一・表〜
春色ハ似タリレ憐ニ_歌舞ノ地ヲ_ 年々先發ス舘娃宮（森川許六，1714，卷之三・一・表）	歌舞の地ハ吳王の西施を愛するの所、秋のころ春をおもひやりて、年々早く花の咲たる事をあはれむと作りたるハ、覽古の詩なるゆへ、ひろく見るやうに作りたるもの也、舘娃宮ハ註に委し。（森川許六，1714，卷之三・一・表）	裏）

　　許六在使用的「物語類」典故時，主要採用《源氏物語》為主，而且使用次數極少。[17]自許六大量使用史實或實際可見風景名物來作為轉換素材，推

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[17] 其它如杜牧「宣州開元寺」（森川許六，1714，卷之三・六・裏）詩的俳譯中，對應杜牧冬末訪開元寺的情節，許六以紫式部隱居石山寺時寫出〈須磨明石〉一卷的傳聞，來作對譯的題材（国史大辞典編集委員会，1979−1997）；而紫式部的此說在近世初期的《源氏物語》的名註解書──北村季吟《湖月抄》（延寶元〔西元1673〕年成），北村季吟與有川武彥（2013）《源氏物語湖月抄（上）增注》「一　此物語之發起」（頁8−9）已有提及，且其書名《湖月抄》本身也是源自於紫式部隱居寫出物語的俗說，在當時的文人皆認為此為事實，如：「人をはめる湖」（井原西鶴，1686，頁322），篇章中亦有提到此事，可見得許六在選用素材時，傾向採用真情實有、而非虛構之事。

測可能是因「物語類」以虛構居多之故。

（三）俳諧典故類

　　俳諧亦是典故的選項之一，如〈過﹦南隣ノ花園﹦―〉（森川許六，1714，卷之三・九・表～裏）所示。

表 3

〈過﹦南隣ノ花園﹦―〉譯文對照

原文	詩解	詩意
過﹦南隣ノ花園﹦―（森川許六，1714，卷之三・九・表）	花園ハ酒屋の事也。（森川許六，1714，卷之三・九・表）	支那彌三郎[1]といふもの隠遁して山崎の方に。纔なる庵をむすひ。①されど朝夕の烟を立る事なく。十文盛に五臓を養ひ。南隣の酒屋を招き。二合半をつがせて。ちろり[2]切の醉をむ勸む。人是を怪とすれど。②年華の移り変る愁をわすれて。世を輕んずる癖もの也。③東風かぜの暖に吹ハ。南枝花はしめて開を賞し。[3]西風急なる時ハ。落花を惜む。[4]哥ハ天地を諷する風なりとて。俳諧の躰を常に讀て。古今の風雅を殘されたり。（森川許六，1714，卷之三・九・表～裏）
雍陶（森川許六，1714，卷之三・九・表）	傳記前に出ツ、A才子傳に辭シテ榮ヲ閑居すとあり、世の富貴をにくんで詩に諷ずる尤也。	
莫レ怪コト頻﹦過ル二有ルレ酒家﹦― 多情長是レ惜﹅年華ヲ―（森川許六，1714，卷之三・九・表）	莫怪ハ發端度々酒屋に這入る事を斷置也、物思ひの多き事ハ浮世の業にハあらず、四時の移りかはるにつけて感慨の情甚ダ起る時、酒にすぎたる物なしと云義也。（森川許六，1714，卷之三・九・表）	
春風堪レ賞スルニ還テ堪タリレ恨ルニ 纔ニ見レハ﹅開花ヲ又落花（森川許六，1714，卷之三・九・表）	春風あたゝかに吹て花を催すハ賞するの義也、風又落花をもよほすハうらみの理屈也。（森川許六，1714，卷之三・九・表）	

註：1. 山崎宗鑑，室町後期的禪僧、連歌師與書法家，著有《犬筑波集》，遍歷日本各地方，晚年據說在山崎結庵閑居（日本大百科全書編集部，1994）。
　　2. 於《書言字考節用集七器財》中標示其漢字為銚鎣，為溫酒器；於《倭訓栞 前編十五知》中，標示為酒器之一（神宮司庁，1909，頁 219）。
　　3.《和漢朗詠集》菅原文時：「誰言春色従東到、露暖南枝花始開」（藤原公任，1013，頁 64）。
　　4.《万葉集》（西元 759 年西本願寺本）〈第二卷 1〉「秋風者（アキカゼハ）急之吹来（ハヤシフキケリ）芽子花（ハギノハナ）落巻惜三（チラマクヲシミ）競竟（キホヒキホヒニ）」（大伴家持，759，第 2112 首）。

　　許六於「附註」中闡述──原詩作者的雍陶為辭榮閑居、厭惡世間富貴無德之事而作詩諷刺之人（表 3 底線 A）。對此，許六以室町末期的名俳諧

祖師山崎宗鑑的故事來對應原詩。宗鑑 25 歲時跟隨將軍足利義尚攻戰，因義尚陣亡故而剃髮出家，晚年隱居在山崎（約莫是今京都府南部）並結庵獨居。宗鑑滑稽機智且天性自在灑脫的性格，與重視傳統的貴族連歌格格不入，故發展出自由奔放且富含搞笑的俳諧句風，與荒木田守武並稱為俳諧始祖。許六在「詩意」中，描寫宗鑑早晚從不開伙，僅以十文一杯的酒或十文一碗的飯來祭五臟廟，邀請南鄰的酒屋，倒得二合半（約今 4.5 公合）的小酒，便舉杯勸醉，眾人覺得奇怪也不以為意（表 3 底線①），以此呈現其灑灑自然不受拘束的個性，來對應原詩的「莫ㇾ怪ㄈ頻ㆌ 過ㇽㆌ有ㇾ 酒家ㆌ」。接續寫道宗鑑是名忘懷年華變遷的愁緒，玩世不恭的性情中人（表 3 底線②），來譯出原詩「多情長是ㇾ惜ㆌ年華ㆌ」，即重感情又歎惜韶光流逝者，才會須借酒消愁。之後借用和歌集詠嘆之詞——東風（春風）吹來暖，南方枝頭花初開，賞花突逢西風（秋風）吹，憐惜落花飄凋零（表 3 底線③），來對譯原詩末兩句。最後許六加評道：和歌雖作為諷刺天地之風，但常讀俳諧之作，可發現其中遺留古今風雅，來總結宗鑑俳諧的風格。

　　許六使用俳諧人事物作為轉換素材，為特色之一，但由於當時俳諧師屬新興職業，因此能使用的故事相當有限，[18] 許六在引用典故上，主要以近世以前的典故為最大宗。[19]

二、沿用詩語

　　許六在對應原詩情景時，除了將景色轉為日本風景外，亦會善用原詩裡用詞，以「訓讀」的方式導入譯文，以下三作為例。[20]

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[18] 最多可能再找到一例：嚴維「歲初ㇲ喜ㇵㆌ皇甫侍御ㄉ至ㇽㆌ」（森川許六，1714，卷之四・二・表～裏）詩選用連歌師「紹巴」的故事，作為轉換素材（日本大百科全書編集部，1994）。

[19] 如：張喬「寄ㇲㆌ山僧ㆌ」（森川許六，1714，卷之三・七・裏～八・表）使用平安時代末期的淨土宗開山祖師：源空作為對譯素材（国史大辞典編集委員会，1979－1997）；劉商「送ㇽㆌ王永ㇴㆌ」（森川許六，1714，卷之四・三・裏～四・裏）使用平安時期的名官人兼歌人藤原仲文作為對譯素材（日本人名大辞典編集委員会，2001）；羅隱「偶興」（森川許六，1714，卷之四・十二・裏～十三・裏）使用平家的無常觀作為對譯素材等，例子相當多。

[20] 為使內容精簡，依狀況無列許六的「詩解」，以下同。

表 4

導入原詩用詞

	原詩	詩意	對應處
詩題①	酬マ下曹侍御ヵ過テニ象縣ヲ見ルニ上レ寄	石山の麓。勢多の流れに。木蘭舟をつなきて。夜泊せる俳諧の翁いませりと遥に聞けり。其風を慕ふもの。あるハ官袴につなかれ。佞ならぬ身の恨に。春風の無ㇾ限を添たり。江東筑摩江にハ。蓴菜いたづらに肥て。五老井の新茶は。空しく壺に朽たりとて。相訪らハざるうらみを述たり。（森川許六，1714，卷之三・十三・裏）	「春風無ㇾ限」⇔「春風の無ㇾ限」
作者	柳宗元		
漢詩	破額山前碧玉ノ流ㇾ騷人遥ニ駐木蘭舟　春風無ㇾ限瀟湘ノ意　欲スルニㇾ採ㇳニ蘋花ヲ不二自由ナラ（森川許六，1714，卷之三・十三・表〜裏）		
詩題②	宿スニ武關ニ	宮古をは霞と共に立出て。萬里にあそぶ旅ころも。伊豆の御崎ハはる／＼と。乱山高下海に入る。鎖さぬ関の箱根路を。越えて一夜の旅まくら。犀の河原の水の音。寐られぬ袖をしほりけり。（森川許六，1714，卷之三・十四・表）	「萬里ニ遊ブ」⇔「萬里にあそぶ」「亂山高下」⇔「乱山高下」「不ㇾ鎖」⇔「鎖さぬ」
作者	李渉		
漢詩	遠ク別テニ秦城ヲ萬里ニ遊ブ　亂山高下入ルニ商州ニ　関門不ㇾ鎖寒溪ノ水　一夜潺湲トシテ送ル客愁ヲ（森川許六，1714，卷之三・十四・表）		
詩題③	宿スニ虛白堂ニ	秋の月の斜にひづみて。西のかたに傾くころ。一方ならぬ堅田舟。波のうき寐の浮御堂。いざ漕よせて寐て行む。霜夜のさむしろにハ。きり／＼すの足をかゞめ。蒼々たる水鏡にハ。魚も梢に宿す。比良の根渡シ袖さえて。寐れで起る九たび。二十五声の霜の鐘。銀河白けて秋の空。尾上の杉にはなれたり。（森川許六，1714，卷之三・十五・表〜裏）	「秋月斜ニ」⇔「秋の月の斜に」「蒼々」⇔「蒼々たる」「不ㇾ得ㇾ寐」⇔「寐れで」「二十五聲」⇔「二十五声」
作者	李郢		
漢詩	秋月斜ニ明也虛白堂　寒蛩唧々樹蒼々　江風徹シテㇾ曉二不ㇾ得ㇾ寐コトヲ　二十五聲秋點長シ（森川許六，1714，卷之三・十五・表）		

由上文可見，除了直接沿用詩的用語，如；「春風の無﹂限」、「乱山高下」、「二十五声」，成為文中風景；亦可發現將原詩用語轉為訓讀，成為和文邏輯的用語，如：「萬里にあそぶ」、「鎖さぬ」、「寐れで」等，使文中出現以詩語來修飾和景的現象。

三、文化補償

黃佳慧（2023）提到許六在譯成俳文時，會在譯後加上評論，使讀者得以瞭解原詩的真切情感；不僅如此，亦可發現會在譯前開頭處，比較漢和之間風俗的不同處後，再行譯出；以下文（森川許六，1714，卷之三・十一・裏～十二・表）為例。

表 5

〈寄維楊故人〉譯文對照

原文	詩解	詩意
張喬	傳記前に出ツ。（森川許六，1714，卷之三・十一・裏）	①もろこしの人の別を惜む時ハ。柳の枝をわげて。別るゝ人の袂に入るゝ。再會を祝くしるしとかや。②我朝にハ鬼の豆に。胡桃を添て出すも。年立帰ころ戻りて。此豆を祝へといふことぶき。胡桃は帰りくるみといふ緣義也。古鄉を立別てより。同し世にすむとハいはじ濁江の。互に影を見るめなき。海山遠く隔つれど。忘れかねたる友衛。妹がり行し月の夜の。川風寒み難波潟。大手京橋玉造り。城東風を鎖す橋の數。算盤橋の名もゆかし。（森川許六，1714，卷之三・十一・裏～十二・表）
離別河邊二縮二柳條ヲ一千山萬水玉人遥也（森川許六，1714，卷之三・十一・裏）	一の句維楊にて別たる事を云、縮二柳條一ハ二たびめぐり逢べき祝きに用ゆ、千山萬水ハ其時の別れをへたてたる事也、玉人ハ故人をさす、本註に委し、譽たる詞。（森川許六，1714，卷之三・十一・裏）	
月明二シテ記得ス相尋シ處城鎖ス二東風ヲ一十五橋（森川許六，1714，卷之三・十一・裏）	記得すハよく昔の事を覚えて居ると云事也、相尋ハ故人の事也、維楊にもと十五橋あり、後二十五橋あり。（森川許六，1714，卷之三・十一・裏）	

　　參照表 5 底線①所示，許六解釋唐人在離別時，會將柳枝一分為二，告別者會將柳枝放入衣袖內，以示雙方期待再會之意。表 5 底線②則解釋和人則會在「鬼豆」[21]（炒過的大豆）中加上核桃，以示祝賀年底前歸來的話則用此豆來慶祝，這也是為何核桃有「保暖歸家」之意。[22] 完成上述說明後，才連結後續譯文。

肆、許六翻譯特點

　　許六使用當時新創立的俳文體來進行翻譯，為前所未見、至今無出其右的重大特色。調閱近世期以「和訓」為主的相關資料中，漢詩「和訓」類僅有二筆，而漢詩註釋類則只有一筆。[23] 其中僅有一筆的漢詩註釋類即為本研究的文本──許六的《和訓三体詩》（森川許六，1714），[24] 而二筆的漢詩和訓類則只有當代大流行的《唐詩選和訓》，以及《長滝詩話和訓》；[25]《唐詩選和訓》主要以和文解說各「詞意」為主，較近似訓詁或詩解，而《長滝詩話和訓》則已佚失。另一方面，若提到以「漢字與片假名交錯文」來解釋漢詩的「國字解」之相關資料，則相當眾多，[26] 此類主要由漢學家主導，故文體較

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[21] 日本習俗中，在晚冬撒出炒過的大豆，代表趕鬼之意（小学館国語辞典編集部，2000）。

[22] 「くるみ」與「帰りくるみ」有諧音處，和歌〈延文御百首〉裡面可見：「たれかげにすみうしといひて帰りくるみ山の里はさびしけれども／釈空」（後光厳天皇，1356）。

[23] 「和訓」資料之各類別與筆數為可見如下（括號內的數字為筆數，筆者標示粗體及底線）：辞書（23）、語学（14）、仏教（14）、語彙（13）、神道（6）、音韻（4）、教訓（3）、往来物（3）、漢学（3）、本草（3）、注釈（2）、医学（2）、法制（2）、文字（2）、植物（2）、**漢詩（2）**、日蓮（2）、占卜（2）、絵本番附（2）、字彙（1）、真言（1）、考証（1）、農業（1）、家伝（1）、教育（1）、聯句（1）、浄土（1）、和算（1）、浄瑠璃／義太夫（1）、番附（1）、博物（1）、書道（1）、兵法（1）、脚本（1）、連歌（1）、**<u>漢詩　注釈（1）</u>**、浄瑠璃（1）、和歌（1）、風俗（1）、道教（1）。見「国書データーベース」，https://kokusho.nijl.ac.jp/。

[24] 《和訓三体詩》屬尚待研究的作品之一，由於許六本身也精通漢文，該作品對於「詩解」的說明相當淺顯易懂，推測因此受歸類在註釋類。

[25] 近世中期的神職者，生卒年不詳（日本人名大辞典編集委員会，2001）。《長滝詩話和訓》可見於《国書総目録》，但該書已佚失，無法調閱其具體譯文。

[26] 「國字解」資料之各類別與筆數為可見如下（括號內的數字為筆數，筆者標示粗體及底線）：漢（302）、**<u>漢詩（137）</u>**、医学（94）、兵法（73）、法制（64）、天文（29）、火術（28）、花道（23）、弓術（21）、往来物（19）、教育（17）、植物（17）、書簡（17）、歌謡（12）、心学（10）、商業（9）、相法（8）、教訓（7）、政治　財政　教訓（6）、伝記（5）、仏教（4）、薬物（4）、語学（4）、注釈（4）、祝詞　注釈（4）、政治（4）、経済（3）、儒学（3）、辞書（3）、暦（3）、漢詩文（2）、神道（2）、放鷹（2）、外国語（1）、絵画（1）、外国史（1）、史論（1）、柔術（1）、狂詩　狂文（1）、金石文（1）、祭祀（1）、書道（1）、考証（1）、気象（1）、文集（1）、暦法（1）。見「国書データーベース」，https://kokusho.nijl.ac.jp/。

近於漢文直譯的「訓讀文」。而除了主流的「國字解」，近世中期以後甚至出現採用「庶民俗語」的文體的譯文。由於論文篇幅有限，本次主要列舉以俗語翻譯漢詩的《絕句解弁書》[27] 之〈東村同殿卿送子坤赴選〉（中川南峰，1763，二十裏～二十一表）的前四句為例，簡單回顧近世中期漢詩譯成不同文體的現象。[28]

表 6

李攀龍〈東村同殿卿送子坤赴選〉

原文	俗語訓	筆者回譯（back translation）
青雲明日羨翻飛（森川許六，1714，中卷・二十裏）	其元都ヘ上ラレテ。富貴ニナルニハ。間モアルマヒ。明日ハ其元ハ富貴ニナリ。雲ノ上ニ飛アガラルノヲ。羨ヂヤ。（森川許六，1714，中卷・二十裏）	君獲召入京，功名在望，富貴唾手可得。明日君將飛黃騰達，榮上青雲，吾心羨然！
應念陶家獨掩扉（森川許六，1714，中卷・二十裏）	其元富貴ニナリタラバ。其時必ス陶淵明ガ如ク。我独友モナク。扉ヲ引掩テ居ルヲ思ハルベシ。（森川許六，1714，中卷・二十裏）	倘君榮華富貴，到時想必如陶淵明般，我獨無友，閉門隱居。
君最往還知五柳（森川許六，1714，中卷・二十裏）	其元、最モ平日。我家ニ往来セラルヽコトナレバ定メテ門前ノ五柳ノ意ヲ。知テ居ラレウ。（森川許六，1714，中卷・二十裏）	君平日最常出入寒舍，必然明白門前那株五柳的含意！
何曾送客解依依（森川許六，1714，中卷・二十裏）	陶淵明ガ門前ノ柳ハ灞橋ト云処ノ。諸人シバ／＼客ヲ送リ別ルヽ処ノ柳ノ。送別ニ折テ送ルコトニナレテ。自ラ依々ト愁ヘル態ヲナシテ。シダレルトハチガフテ。吾家ノ五柳ハ。ツヒニ人ヲ送ラヌユヘ。何ソ客ヲ送テ。依々ノ愁ル貌ヲ合点セフゾ。（森川許六，1714，中卷・二十裏）	陶淵明門前的柳樹，位於名為「灞橋」的別離之地，眾人送客到此道別時，常有折柳相贈的習慣；不同於灞橋垂楊那離情依依的愁緒，吾家的五柳至今沒送別過任何客人，怎會明白送客而離情依依的別緒？

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[27] 該書使用「國字解」類的荻生徂徠《絕句解》（享保 17〔西元 1732〕年成）之解釋，語內翻譯成庶民用語。

[28] 《絕句解弁書》〈中〉，（早稻田大學図書館「古典籍総合データベース」藏書），僅取俗訓譯文；原著資訊介紹參照〈江戸時代の漢詩和訳書（上）〉（日野龍夫，1992a，頁 85－89）。

　　由上述的「俗語訓」中，可見得當時即使採用平易近人的庶民用語，因口語化使其看起來類似於「台詞」，所以譯文的功能主要釋出詩意全貌。[29] 然而，近似台詞類的「俗語訓」出現於許六逝後 50 餘年，之後亦陸續出現越來越貼近詩調的譯文。唯在許六以前，以「漢字與片假名交錯文」解釋漢字的「國字解」，為當時主流，故許六採用的和文體或漢文訓讀以外的俳文體來打造譯文，可說是當代的一種創舉。

表 7

韓偓〈野塘〉

原文	詩意	筆者文譯	筆者詩譯[1]
浸シレ曉ヲ乘シテレ涼ニ偶〳〵獨リ來ル（森川許六，1714，卷之四・一・裏）	寝られぬまゝの夏の夜に。曉起キの涼しやと。（森川許六，1714，卷之四・一・裏）	輾轉難眠的夏夜裡，破曉夙起，驚覺冷涼！	寐夢難成夜夏間，拂曉晨起驚感涼！
不レトモレ因ニ魚ノ躍一見ルニ萍ノ開クヲ（森川許六，1714，卷之四・一・裏）	草むらごとに立よれば。烏芋澤瀉菱の花[2]。もてなす魚も波の底。（森川許六，1714，卷之四・二・表）	走進草叢間一探，得見烏芋、澤瀉、白菱花，就連來去游走的魚群也在水波底。	各間草叢挨近看，烏芋、澤瀉、白菱花四游魚群水波深。
捲荷忽チ被レテニ微風ニ觸レ一（森川許六，1714，卷之四・一・裏）	濁りにしまぬ蓮池に。風をまき葉の生出て。（森川許六，1714，卷之四・二・表）	不受淤泥所染的蓮池內，招風嫩生荷捲葉。	淤泥不染蓮塘間，頜風孕生荷捲旋。（「捲旋〔まき葉〕」：季語，「夏」）。
瀉下ス清香ノ露一盃（森川許六，1714，卷之四・一・裏）	さつと開けば露の玉。匂ひこぼるゝ我袖に。一盃もりていざ行ん。（森川許六，1714，卷之四・二・表）	陡然撥開一看，玉露般的水珠，芬芳四溢濶袖內，裝滿一杯再走吧！	忽揭一探露珠滴，清香傾灑袍袖間，盛滿一杯向前行！

註：1. 筆者依許六的斷句，以七言字譯出。
　　2.「烏芋」，生於水中，屬「澤瀉」類，又名「荸薺」；「澤瀉」類的花草，夏天時花莖長高，並於上部長出三瓣的輪狀白花。「菱の花」是夏天盛開的四瓣花，中文稱作「日本菱」，「澤瀉」與「菱の花」皆是夏天的季語。（教育部，無日期；小学館国語辞典編集部，2000；神宮司庁，1911，頁 948－950）。

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[29] 許六同時代出版的《三体詩詳解》（元祿 13〔西元 1700〕年刊）主要採用譯註與譯解的方式來引導讀者理解詩意（日野龍夫，1992b，頁 70－75）。直到近世中後期的《六朝詩選俗訓》（安永三〔西元 1774〕年刊）及《聯珠詩格譯註》（享和元〔西元 1801〕年）才再次出現以帶有詩感（而非台詞類）的譯文，其中《六朝詩選俗訓》主要採用俗謠調，而《聯珠詩格譯註》則盡量以貼近當代口語的文體譯出（日野龍夫，1992c，頁 72－77）。

　　不僅如此，許六因使用雅俗交錯的俳文，除可採用文章的方式來讀解詩意外，大部分的譯文可依許六標示的斷句處，[30] 吟誦出如詩般的韻律與蘊意，以上表的〈野塘〉（森川許六，1714，卷之四・一・裏～二・表）為例，日文有「てにをは」等助詞，可將句子前後連貫起來，成為一篇文章；許六的譯文不僅止於如此，在斷句的設計上，亦巧生音律，使斷句之間可各自成句與獨立意涵。

　　除翻譯文體與形式外，大部分的譯文場景大多以許六周邊的景物居多，可知許六主要採用親身經驗或觀察到的自然場景，作為轉換的素材。此精神不但與蕉門追求親身感受的「風雅の誠」[31] 之展現相符，也呼應其譯序所言：

> 愚按唐（カラ）の景気と。日本の景気とは。相違あると見えたり。〔……〕遍（タマ）／＼。木曽山中に。旅寝せし時。山水を見るに。唐詩画譜の間に。遊ぶに似たり。濃州太田の境にいづれば。景気幽微（ユウビ）にして。帰國をしたる。おもひをなせり。〔……〕和人。唐の西湖に遊んで。詩を作らば。唐詩の俤（オモカゲ）も出べし。漢人須磨明石の詩を賦し。李白杜子美が如き名人ならば。幽微にして。あはれなる景氣を述べし。哥にちかゝらんか。（森川許六，1714，序一・表～裏）

筆者中譯：

> 本人以為唐國與日本的「景氣（景象）」[32] 不同。〔……〕偶然，於木曾山中旅宿時，看望山水，好似游於《唐詩畫譜》[33] 之間。到達濃州的太田 [34] 邊境，其景緻幽微，彷彿已歸返故里。〔……〕和人若遊唐國西湖作詩，必作出唐詩的風彩；漢人為須磨明石賦詩，若是李白或杜子美等名人，必闡述幽微且感性的「景氣（景象）」，近似和歌！

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[30] 山下一海（1973）指出依許六斷句處來看，可發現譯文不只是文章類的俳文體，還切出「詩」的形式（頁 124）。

[31] 意指「真情實意」，芭蕉曾言：「松のことは松に習ひ、竹のことは竹に習ふ。唯、風雅は虚のなきことこそ誠とやいはん」（服部土芳，1702，頁 577），即風雅需「無虚」（いつはり）（無偽無假），才能稱作「真誠」。

[32] 意指將「實際的自然景色」依創作者的「美感」建構的景象，與依實體描繪的近代寫生所標榜的「客體」物象不同，蕉門強調創作者「主體」心象（尾形仂，2009，頁 255，「景気」）。關於蕉門對於「景氣」（景象）之相關討論，另參照黃佳慧（2023）。

[33] 推測意指《八種画譜》（黃鳳池，1672）。本推測、書誌及刊本資料參照砂田步（2020）。

[34] 今日本岐阜県美濃加茂市（日本大百科全書編集部，1994）。

　　許六一直以為和漢的「景氣」（景象）本就有所不同，然而在旅歸道途的偶然間，赫然發現和漢「景氣」（景象）相同之處，進一步領悟到和漢「景氣」（景象）之所以不同，在於文人所親身經驗的景物之所致，即和人若看到唐國山水，肯定詠出唐國的景緻，反之亦然。因此許六在譯成俳文時，亦用心採用自身的閱歷，作為對譯的素材。

　　許六以自身訂立的方針，在和漢「景氣」（景象）轉換方面的成果，可見於〈送_魏十六ヲ_〉（森川許六，1714，卷之四・三・表～裏）。

表 8

皇甫冉〈送_魏十六ヲ_〉

原文	詩意	筆者中譯
清夜沈々シテ此ニ送ルレ君ヲ（森川許六，1714，卷之四・三・表）	旅より旅へ人を送るこそ哀れなれ。（森川許六，1714，卷之四・三・表）	無盡出旅送別傷，
陰蛩切々不レ堪ヘレ聞（森川許六，1714，卷之四・三・表）	夜寒に秋のきり／＼す。声弱り行わかれ路の。遠ざかるをやかこつらむ。（森川許六，1714，卷之四・三・表）	夜寒秋深蟋蟀鳴，聲漸弱，分叉口，漸行漸遠哀聲嘆！
歸舟明日毘陵ノ道（森川許六，1714，卷之四・三・表）	明（アケ）なば乘ん汐舟や。八重の汐路[1]を漕出て。跡を遥に三保が崎。[2]（森川許六，1714，卷之四・三・表）	破曉搭上啓航船！划出茫茫海路上，漫漫長途「三保岬」。
回サハレレ首姑蘇是レ白雲ナラン（森川許六，1714，卷之四・三・表）	富士の裾野（スソ）にかゝる雲。これや故鄉の空ならんと。首（カウベ）をめぐらし給ふべきを。（森川許六，1714，卷之四・三・表）	富士麓野白雲繚。此乃故鄉碧空天！回首遙望盛景悠！
（文化補償）（森川許六，1714，卷之四・三・表～裏）	推量したるこゝろ也。（森川許六，1714，卷之四・三・表～裏）	心繫深思情感慨。

註：1. 歌語，比喻遙遠的海程之途（小学館国語辞典編集部，2000）。
　　2. 歌枕，位於駿河國（現靜岡縣清水市的三保岬附近）的歌枕（久保田淳、馬場あき子，2014，頁 847）。

　　許六通常會於「詩解」，針對詩語或背景等做一次和文解釋，本詩的首聯與頷聯的「詩解」為：「清夜ハ秋の夜、沈々ハさひしき貌、切々ハきり／＼すのしきりなる啼やう。不堪聞ハ得こらゑさるを云」（森川許六，1714，卷之四・三・表）（中譯：「清夜」意指秋夜，「沈沈」意指寂寞的樣子，「切切」意指蟋蟀鳴音不歇的狀態。「不堪聞」意指悲不自勝），頸聯和尾聯則是：「常州より潤州に趣き、今又常州皈る時、毘陵と云所を通る也、毘陵より魏十六が故鄉姑蘇は程近し、毘陵ハ常州にあり、姑蘇ハ蘇州也」（森川許六，1714，卷之四・三・表）（中譯：自常洲前往潤州，現又再返回常洲時，需經過「毘陵」這個地方。毘陵離魏十六的故鄉——姑蘇相當近，毘陵在常洲，姑蘇在蘇州），由此「詩解」清晰可見送別者皇甫冉的心情以及魏十六的行走路線。

　　對此，首聯與頷聯的對譯文中，依其意鮮明描述詩意中道別與寂寞的心情；頸聯和尾聯主要以景代情，於是歸途所使用的「毘陵」場景轉換成「三保が崎」（三保岬）（駿河國[35]的歌枕），「姑蘇」則置換成「富士の裾野」（スリ）（富士麓野）（跨駿河國與甲斐國[36]），原詩中魏十六的故鄉是「姑蘇」，位於常州的「毘陵」，近鄰蘇州「姑蘇」，故許六在轉換所使用的場景的確對應原詩後，依日本實際景觀，重塑景緻。

　　由此可歸納出許六譯文的三項特點：（1）獨一無二的俳文體；（2）散文與詩形兼具；（3）以個人真實體驗或日本實有景觀來重塑原詩的「景氣」（景象）。

伍、綜結與課題

　　至今，對於《和訓三体詩》的認識上主要停留在許六的意想，認為其僅

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[35] 現靜岡縣。
[36] 現山梨縣。

是使用俳諧的文體譯出漢詩的結果，其內容主體多為許六的隨創。[37] 然而，仔細探究其實，可發現其「轉換」的方式不同於和訓、俗訓、和文譯、與「翻案」（改編），即許六的譯文於主題與劇情上，皆與原詩一致，但採用日本素材進行轉換。同時，素材本身主要來自實際發生在日本且有記載的著名「地方風景」、「習俗」或「典故」（包含物語或歷史人事物），用字與修辭則適時沿用詩語，並運用俳語與歌語。

　　由於原詩的素材受到置換，此點是否如村上哲見（1994）等前人研究所言，當視為一種「翻案」（改編）？回顧本文第貳章之討論，若以中世文學相比，許六的「詩意」不屬「忠實」的譯文，卻不至於改寫主題與劇情，故若未細究許六的翻譯方針與譯文，僅能推測其譯作可能介於翻譯與「翻案」（改編）之間。然而，「翻案」（改編）於近世期大量發展，不只限於和漢對譯，亦有如「說話」類改成戲劇之時代淨瑠璃類的語內「翻案」（改編）。以近松門左衛門的「翻案」（改編）法為例，已總結出以下九種方式：

　　　　一、滑稽（parody）

　　　　二、對調（主客或主角配角的立場對調）

　　　　三、濃縮或簡化劇情

　　　　四、增加新劇情或人物

　　　　五、重覆描述糾結的場景來深化情感

　　　　六、場面轉化（締造新局）

　　　　七、改變敍事者或敍事視角

　　　　八、合成相關的傳說或故事

　　　　九、立體感（多重視角、概念視覺化、更動順序製造劇情高潮、角色重疊等）。（阪口弘之，1972，頁 296－317）[38]

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[37] 《和訓三体詩》相關的先行研究甚少，至今針對此文本的研究僅有志田義秀（1935）、村上哲見（1994）、藤井美保子（2015）、福井辰彦（2016），共計四篇；雖有針對一小部分的「詩意」進行探討發句引用及俳文賞析，但研究主軸聚焦在許六的創作與引用，而非翻譯。

[38] 各「翻案」（改編）的日語原文為：「滑稽、対照、凝縮、増加、繰り返し、転化、語り手の転化、合成、立体化」。

　　即若與當時的已明確採用「翻案」（改編）手法的近世文學 [39] 相比，許六譯文中出現的「翻案」（改編）現象，主要彰顯於素材的轉換，但顯少另闢劇情或虛構。同時，許六的譯序中提到和漢之所以不同在於親身經歷的「景氣」（景象）之所故，故將漢景轉換成符合原詩主題與劇情的和景，且強調對譯的不是文字或景色，而是「情感」。基此原理思考，原詩不是許六二次創作的素材，而是透過文字與景色的轉換，企求「還原」原詩的「情懷」，即「翻」（轉換）文字與場景，以和語「譯」出「詩情」。若許六的譯序或「詩意」中，皆未發現其刻意虛構或借題發揮成其它喻意之意圖，難以一語論斷此屬「翻案」（改編）。

　　其次，於「翻」（轉換）文字與場景方面，在蕉門俳諧活用詩語來創新文辭的潮流下，許六盡可能在譯出的俳文中沿用詩語（而非引用），即俳文間又有詩語交錯相間，使內容即使轉為日本典故，依然與漢詩緊緊相扣相依，故可以在俳文中理解漢詩的原意與用字。換言之，通常轉譯成和文後，如同自「異化」走向「歸化」（domestication），原文的色彩難以復再，也無法再透過譯文習得原文的用字遣詞。但許六發揮日本自古的「訓讀」法吸納漢字的原理，在俳文中交錯詩語，使讀者可能在俳文間同時習得和文與詩語，達到提昇跨文化涵養與文辭造詣的目的，可說是獨樹一格的譯法。

　　由此可見，許六的譯文展現出和漢之間「相互輝映」的轉換，而非意圖借用素材另闢他意的「翻案」（改編）。若深入探析其譯文，可歸納出許六在進行和漢轉換時的主要三點技巧：首先，於翻譯原則上，欲譯出的對象不是「文字」，而是原詩「意涵」，以和漢相通的意涵為基軸進行釋義，若無相通或無詩意則適時選擇不譯；其次，轉換文體、場景與文字，但不改變原詩主題或加入其它虛構劇情；最後在修辭上融合詩語與俳語，擴大詞彙量，並發展創新的描寫方式（「景氣」〔景象〕）。

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[39] 近世期「翻案」類形成作品過程，通常經過「原書→和刻（訓讀）→翻訳（和訓）→翻案」的順序，即漢文加點作成訓讀書（和刻本）出現後，會以和語譯出後刊行「通俗」版，最後再出現改編（サービス企画課展示企画係，2022）。另佐々木孝二（1969）表示日本早在中世的戰記物語中引用中國的典故，從中發現和漢的類似點後，以引用或改寫等方式導入和文，只是中國民間故事或白話小說則是到近世才開始有許多改編作品並廣為流傳（頁 6－9）。

圖 2

《和訓三体詩》之和漢轉換技巧
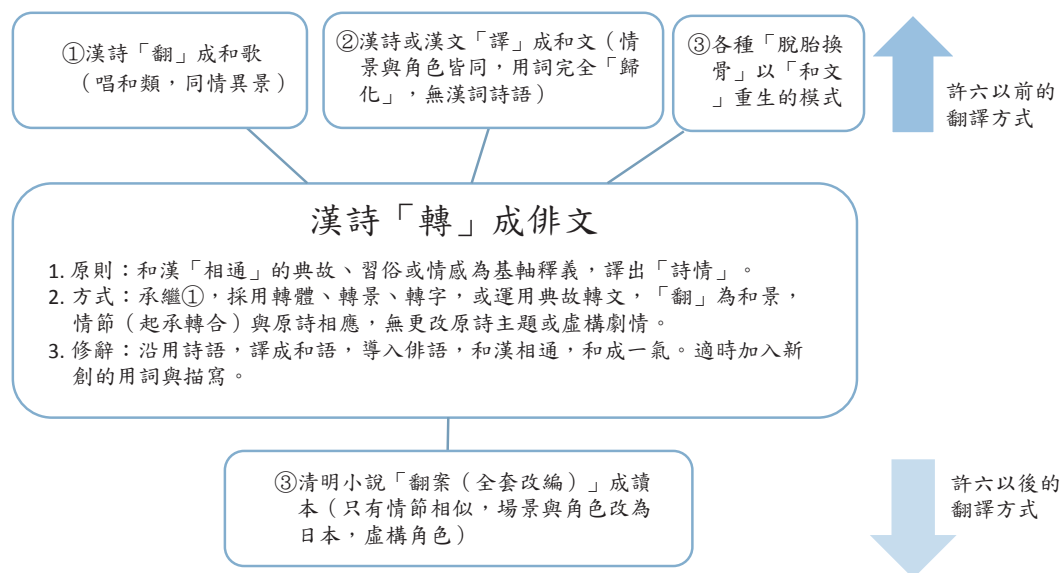
以當今翻譯研究的角度來看，近似於一種「在地化」（localization）的譯法。事實上，漢詩大多為表達真情實感的文學，再加上芭蕉於俳諧革新時提唱「風雅の誠」，身為蕉門十哲之一的許六將漢詩譯成俳文時並不虛構內容，而是以實存的情景作為轉換的基礎，難以忽視其譯成俳文手法與蕉門精神實踐之間的關係。換言之，不論是許六譯序中提到的「景氣」（景象），抑或採用真情實景來潤色譯文的轉換技巧，皆可窺見蕉門的俳諧精神的展現。許六如何實踐蕉門俳論來編織「詩意」，耐人尋味。

同時，由於研究篇幅的限制下，本次研究聚焦在《和訓三體詩》的時代背景、日本翻譯法的演變、文本的分析等翻譯層次上的討論，希冀為和漢翻譯研究添章續頁。惟仍存有許多議題尚待探討，例如，漢詩譯成和文的各作品比較、日本亙古至今各種不同文類的和漢轉換、漢詩在日本的接受與影響之交流史與研究、以語言學或文化學的視角分析原詩與譯文之間的關係等，盼日後持續開拓研究視野，以祈為和漢翻譯研究增闢新篇。

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臺灣翻譯碩士班翻譯科技課程開設現況調查與建議

金瑄桓

臺灣翻譯相關系所在面對人工智慧浪潮所做出的因應方式、速度實屬相對落後，然而臺灣翻譯相關系所的教學安排究竟有哪些面向落後仍待闡明，故本研究透過課程綱要調查、觀課與教師訪談，以及問卷調查和學生訪談，探討臺灣翻譯碩士班翻譯科技課程之現況並給與建議。結果課程名稱有效代表每門課程的內容，多數翻譯科技教師共同認為翻譯科技課程應教授電腦輔助翻譯工具，翻譯科技班級均為小班制，教師多用溝通式教學、採用真實教材、無論作業、報告與考試等評量方法均為任務導向、課堂強調討論、合作，高度符合社會建構主義的特性。同時學生對翻譯科技持開放態度，目前的教學方法確實給予學生良好的學習體驗與效果，但缺乏對科技運作原理的解釋和教學。此外，評量方法受制於課程時數，效果不盡如人意，且單一翻譯科技的學習使學生對自身的科技能力存有疑慮。因此，學生強烈支持開設翻譯科技課程，並建議擴充課程內容和教授的科技種類。從學生的回饋中可以看出，教師已達到課程和教學目標，將翻譯科技的知識和技能傳授給學生。然而課程種類單一、教學目標未能深入、班級人數受限、軟硬體設備不足、課程時數不足，以及學習僅止於課內等六大困境明顯，臺灣翻譯研究所急須增加課程多樣性、深化教學目標、設定修課人數上下限、補足軟硬體設備、增加課程時數，並強化課外學習資源，方能提供更全面的翻譯科技教育。

關鍵詞：翻譯科技、翻譯科技課程、翻譯教學、翻譯教學困境、教學建議

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Survey and Recommendations on the Translation Technology Courses in the Translation and Interpretation Master's Program in Taiwan

Syuan-Huan Jin

In the face of the global surge in artificial intelligence (AI), translation studies programs in Taiwan appear to lag behind in adapting to this technological wave. Through curriculum analysis, on-site course observation, interviews with teachers, and surveys and interviews with students, this study aims to investigate the current status of translation technology courses in Taiwanese translation master's programs and provide suggestions for improvement. The results reveal that courses are effectively represented by their titles, mainly focusing on operating translation. Most instructors agree that translation technology courses should impart knowledge of computer-assisted translation tools. Classes of translation technology in Taiwan are typically small, adopting communicative teaching methods and real-world materials. Assessment methods, including assignments, reports, and exams, are task-oriented, emphasizing discussions and collaboration, aligning well with the characteristics of social constructivism. Students maintained an open attitude towards translation technology. Current teaching methods indeed provide students with a good learning experience and results, but they lack explanations and instruction on the operational principles of technology. Additionally, assessment methods are constrained by course hours, resulting in less-than-satisfactory outcomes. Moreover, learning a single translation technology raises doubts about students' own technological proficiency. Therefore, students strongly support the establishment of translation technology courses and suggest expanding the course content and the variety of technologies taught. From students' feedback, it is evident that teachers have achieved the goals of the courses and the instruction of translation technology knowledge and skills to students. This study highlights six major challenges, including a lack of course diversity, insufficient depth in teaching objectives, resources, limitations on class size, a lack of hardware and software, inadequate course hours, and insufficient extracurricular learning. To address these challenges, Taiwanese translation studies programs urgently need to diversify their course offerings, deepen teaching objectives, set upper and lower limits on class sizes, enhance hardware and software resources, increase course hours, and strengthen extracurricular learning resources. Only through these measures can translation studies programs in Taiwan provide a more comprehensive education in translation technology.

Keywords: translation technology, translation technology courses, translation teaching, translation teaching dilemmas, teaching suggestions

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壹、緒論

　　近年來，Google Translate、DeepL Translate、Amazon Translate 相繼問世，Läubli et al.（2020）採實徵研究（empirical study）檢測數種機器翻譯的品質，皆證實機器翻譯飛速進展，有時與人類翻譯的品質幾乎已經難以區別，即便如此，人類具有推理、分析與想像力，故可透過人工前或後編輯，改善機器譯文品質，此乃是史宗玲（2020）所提出的人機合作之協作翻譯模式，亦是碩士班開設機器翻譯相關課程的部分內容。儘管現在許多用戶仍對自動翻譯（automated translations）的品質不是很滿意，然而因近 20 年來人們對機器翻譯的興趣高漲，促使機器翻譯背後的推手更積極改良他們的服務（Sutrisno, 2020），譯者所面臨的「科技性失業」可說是迫在眉睫。

　　二十一世紀專業翻譯的一個特點即科技化（technologisation），促使譯者不斷升級自身的技能組合，才得以於不斷變遷且競爭激烈的市場中生存下來（Wu et al., 2019），世界各國許多的翻譯高等教育機構進而紛紛將「翻譯科技」納入核心課綱，Barros 與 Vine（2018）便曾針對全英國（United Kingdom）提供翻譯碩士學位的學程進行調查，發現於 27 所學校中，就有八校以提供資訊科技及翻譯輔助軟體教學為核心的模組（module），另有十校提供翻譯科技相關的核心模組，其餘九校中亦有五校將翻譯科技列入修選模組的課程中。翻譯科技已徹底改變了翻譯領域，如何讀翻譯與如何做翻譯也產生劇變（Sikora, 2014），由於翻譯科技於翻譯實踐已幾近不可或缺，如何教授翻譯科技成為翻譯研究的重要主題（Tao & Wang, 2022）。翻譯技巧及語言能力雖仍為選擇譯者時優先考量的條件，但翻譯技巧並非產業唯一需要的能力。

　　臺灣目前提供翻譯碩士學位的研究所共九所，向來強調實務翻譯訓練且能符合市場需求，雖不同校系之間的開課趨勢與現況有差異，但總體而言皆與國際及產業趨勢存在顯著斷層（唐瑄，2022），學界和產業之間對於翻譯專業人才培養的認知仍有差異（陳子瑋等，2017），呼應林慶隆等（2021）

所提及臺灣翻譯相關系所面對人工智慧的浪潮時，所做出的因應方式、速度是相對落後的。

汝明麗（2011）曾表示大學部與研究所的翻譯課程之定位與分野，學界已有共識。臺灣學士層級的翻譯課程教學目標多旨在增加翻譯基本知識與技巧，更重要的是提升學生的英語能力；而碩士層級的翻譯課程教學目標旨在培訓專業的翻譯工作者；博士層級的翻譯課程教學目標則旨在培育翻譯教學與研究人員。本研究著力於透過翻譯科技教學減少學用落差，故欲了解當前全臺灣翻譯碩士學位翻譯科技教學課程的現況，並進一步了解當前翻譯科技教學的成效；陳子瑋等（2017）也顯示大學部的翻譯課程雖名為翻譯課程，但多數教師仍以培養學生外語能力為主，唯有翻譯研究所層級才是真正訓練翻譯技能。

故本研究將從教師與學生的兩個面向了解翻譯碩士班的翻譯科技教學，擬以問卷調查與半結構訪談等多元方法蒐集資料，以期回答以下問題：

一、臺灣翻譯碩士學位所開設的翻譯科技課程的實施現況為何？

二、學生對於翻譯科技接受度以及翻譯科技課程修習的觀感為何？

第一個問題一探臺灣翻譯科技教學的現況，第二個問題了解學習修課後的感想與產學間的落差以鑑成效，並為後續臺灣翻譯碩士班後續翻譯科技教學的何去何從提出解方。本研究之成果盼能協助各界了解臺灣各翻譯相關系所翻譯科技課程之現況與未來可能發展趨勢，更有信心迎戰科技時代。

貳、文獻探討

翻譯科技的作業定義（working definition）泛指翻譯服務提供者於翻譯過程中所使用的科技，例如 He 與 Tao（2022），有助於概括各類型的翻譯科技。其中 Bakul（2016）、Mellinger（2017）、Nzuanke 與 Ngozi（2018）等眾多學者均將翻譯科技歸為機器翻譯（machine translation）與電腦輔助翻譯（computer-assisted translation or computer-aided translation）共兩類，可謂為

最典型的分類（Alcina, 2008），故部分翻譯科技研究致力於區分此兩個類別，如 Hutchins（1997）即致力於闡述機器翻譯與電腦輔助翻譯的發展史、應用及研究。

　　He 與 Tao（2022）曾統整 1999 至 2020 年間核心合輯（Web of Science Core Collection）、中國知識基礎設施工程、翻譯研究參考書目（Translation Studies Bibliography）、口筆譯參考書目（Bibliography of Interpreting and Translation）與 Google 學術搜尋（Google Scholar）等重要文獻資料庫的翻譯科技教學相關文獻。

　　翻譯科技教學最大宗的英文文獻即集中於機器翻譯與電腦輔助翻譯兩大主題；中文文獻雖亦聚焦於電腦輔助翻譯，但對於機器翻譯的著墨較少，而是傾向於研究語料庫。翻譯科技雖不僅止於機器翻譯與電腦輔助翻譯，但許多學者仍僅將翻譯科技歸為此兩類，因此部分翻譯科技研究僅專注於機器翻譯或電腦輔助翻譯其一。

　　綜觀機器翻譯的相關研究，Gaspari et al.（2015）曾透過問卷調查歐洲翻譯專家、政府、業者和學者，發現機器翻譯的使用普及，可能改變翻譯工作趨勢，呼籲增加翻譯科技元素的培訓；機器翻譯納入譯者培訓後，必然會遭遇教學上的挑戰，He（2021）即探討了在教學中應用機器翻譯的困境，提倡譯後編輯的學習；雖有挑戰但也為翻譯學習帶來了益處，如 Lee 與 Liao（2011）的研究發現，使用機器翻譯可以減少學生的翻譯錯誤，改善翻譯品質；Shih（2022）更進一步發現，機器翻譯不僅能用於翻譯學習，也能應用於外語學習，使用控制性語言前編的機器翻譯可以提高學生的英文理解能力。

　　電腦輔助翻譯的相關研究則可見得教學的概況調查，例如 Yao（2017）調查了中國大陸大學翻譯課程對電腦輔助翻譯的使用情況，發現大部分教師對此不太熟悉，以及 Zhang 與 Nunes Vieira（2021）從教師回覆中得知多數的電腦輔助翻譯課程模式為軟體操作指導。微觀的則有電腦輔助翻譯課程的設計與呈現，如 Shih（2006）先以個案研究呈現高雄第一科技大學運用電腦輔助翻譯軟體 Trados 教授翻譯記憶，課程細分為理論、技巧與應用，再如

Rodríguez-Castro（2018）呈現北卡羅來納大學（University of North Carolina）電腦輔助翻譯課程的設計，進而指出一次只教一種工具或許更佳，再者是電腦輔助翻譯科技的學習十分仰賴科技素養，無論於研究者或是於翻譯科技課程教師而言都是珍貴參考資料。

　　不少翻譯科技教學相關研究將翻譯科技視為一集體，而不加以將機器翻譯與電腦輔助翻譯區分開來，如為訴說環境變遷影響譯者所需之能力，He 與 Tao（2022）、Nitzke et al.（2019）均點出翻譯科技素養的重要性，顯現當今的翻譯科技教學不足以將翻譯科技素養傳授給學生。然而也並非所有研究者都將翻譯科技融入教學視為理所當然，部分研究亦對翻譯科技提出質疑與反動，如 Zheng（2019）提出對機器翻譯的質疑，認為過度依賴機器翻譯可能會危害翻譯的原創性；Ramírez-Polo 與 Vargas-Sierra（2023）也再進一步探討了翻譯科技的倫理問題，值得反思。

　　為應對新型翻譯人才的需求，中國大陸於 2020 年頒布《翻譯專業本科教學指南》（Jiang, 2022），並提及應增設翻譯科技、專案管理、職業素養的課程內容。而後 2021 年舉辦了首屆全國翻譯科技教學大賽，來自 249 所大學共 346 位參賽者，Jiang（2022）從競賽作品中統整出中國大陸的翻譯科技教學內容主要包含資訊素養（information literacy）、搜尋科技（search technology）、文本處理科技（text processing technology）、術語庫與語料庫處理科技（terminology and corpus processing technology）、機器翻譯科技（machine translation technology）以及翻譯品質管理（translation quality control）。

　　據 Shei（2002）所述，教授機器翻譯最直接的方式就是讓學生處理機器翻譯的產出，即譯後編輯。Mellinger（2017）則表示術語管理（terminology management）、控制性書寫（controlled authoring）、譯後編輯（post-editing）與搜尋引擎訓練（search engine tuning）雖然並非全部，但可以說是近期機器翻譯教學研究中提到具代表性的技能。Ramírez-Polo 與 Vargas-Sierra（2023）則針對阿根廷（Argentina）、比利時（Belgium）、加拿大（Canada）等 14

個國家，分析共 30 份的翻譯科技教學課綱，出現頻率最高的課程目標包括習得專案管理能力、術語資料庫知識、資訊科技的應用、電腦輔助翻譯的應用，以及翻譯科技知識。

　　從教學觀的層次上，Juan 與 Yahaya（2019）提出電腦輔助翻譯教學立基於建構主義（constructivism），即學習並不是如傳輸教學法中由教師和教科書不斷地線性傳輸知識給學生，也不是讓學生被動記憶所謂的客觀真理，而是學習者在面對新資訊時，基於自己的背景知識，並與他人和環境交互作用所主動建構，創造出對自己有意義的知識（廖柏森，2014），而依循建構論教學觀逐漸形成重視翻譯溝通互動特性和社群意識的「溝通式翻譯教學法」（廖柏森，2009）。

　　廖柏森（2022）彙整溝通式翻譯教學法展現社會建構主義特質的幾大層面：

　　一、知識並非客觀永恆的存在，翻譯不同的文本也如認識多元的真實一般不會有固定的方式或觀點，並無所謂的正確答案，而教師應多鼓勵學生的個人特色與創意。

　　二、強調多元的真實需要在社會環境中經過商議（negotiation）與辯論（debate）才會使個人的觀點改變成長，翻譯知識也是由學習者與教師、同儕、教材、乃至於整個社會文化環境的互動才得以建構進展。

　　三、教師的教學居於輔助地位，重心是為學生提供學習的支持鷹架（頁87－88）。

簡言之，溝通式翻譯教學是以學生為中心（student-centered），協助學生發展自主學習翻譯的知識和技能，教師需要在教學時實施多元的溝通式教學技巧和任務（tasks），並融入問題解決（problem-solving）、合作學習（cooperative learning）、同儕指導（peer tutoring）、真實教材（authentic materials）等（廖柏森，2009）。

　　從教學法的層次上 Alcina et al.（2007）提出採行任務導向的教學法

（task-based approach）教授翻譯科技， Esqueda（2021）與 Sanchez Ramos（2022）同樣主張機器翻譯應以任務導向的教學法教授。此主張完全呼應 Juan 與 Yahaya（2019）對於教學觀的認知，根據廖柏森（2022）所述，任務型教學深受社會建構主義的影響，主張提供學生自然真實的情境去實際使用他們所要學習的技能，以完成所設定的任務，不僅重視任務的成果，更重視完成任務的過程（頁85），據廖柏森（2022）表示，Candlin 與 Murphy（1987）也曾說在完成任務過程中，學生會有許多機會互動協商和解決問題，進而增長他們的知識和能力

　　Zhang 與 Nunes Vieira（2021）於線上平臺以問卷調查了解教師電腦輔助翻譯課程的教學方法，從 120 份來自 33 個國家的教師回覆，超過 70% 的教師具有超過五年以上的電腦輔助翻譯教學經驗，將近一般以上教師的授課模式採用大量的軟體操作指導，超過一半以上的教師會以「做中學」為課堂活動，也有將近一半的教師會於課堂納入團體討論，八成以上的教師均有學習評量，其中九成以上均採以用電腦輔助翻譯完成翻譯任務作為評量方法，再次呼應眾多學者對於翻譯科技教學的教學觀與教學法的認知。Mellinger（2017）則提出善用鷹架（scaffolding）的技巧，再次與前述學者的教學觀與教學法相互呼應。

　　Jiang（2022）從首屆全國翻譯科技教學大賽的作品中統整出多數教師採用的教學方法，他將教師的教學方法區分成課前、課中與課後三階段：

　　一、課前囊括學生討論、事先查找資料、短影片學習、預習作業與參考
　　　　素材。
　　二、課中包含理論解釋、應用示範、操作指引、操作示範、學生操作、
　　　　教師講評。
　　三、課後包括團體創作、團體產出、集思廣益、個人作品產出（p. 4）。
顯然可見眾多學者對於翻譯科技的教學方法具有共識，亦即立基於社會建構主義得有效引領學生建構翻譯科技的知能。

參、研究方法

　　本文探討臺灣翻譯碩士學位所開設的翻譯科技課程內容、教學與評量方法。筆者首先以文獻分析法整合各翻譯研究所的翻譯科技課程課綱，並實際走訪教師的翻譯科技課堂觀課，記錄教師實際的教學情況與師生互動，而後採訪談研究法，以半結構式訪談（semi-structured interview）針對課程內容、教學、評量方法及翻譯科技教學等主軸提問，最後以三角檢核進行分析與驗證。後以問卷調查臺灣翻譯碩士學位所開設的翻譯科技課程的修課學生，再以半結構式訪談了解學生對於翻譯科技接受度以及翻譯科技課程修習的觀感。

一、研究對象

　　研究對象為全臺灣之翻譯碩士班 112 學年度第一學期的翻譯科技課程，包括國立臺灣大學翻譯碩士學位學程、國立臺灣師範大學翻譯研究所、輔仁大學跨文化研究所翻譯學碩士班、長榮大學翻譯學系碩士班、國立彰化師範大學翻譯研究所、國立高雄科技大學應用英語系口筆譯碩士班、文藻外語大學翻譯系碩士班、東吳大學英文學系翻譯碩士班，以及中原大學應用外國語文學系碩士班口筆譯組。[1]

　　各校翻譯科技課程課綱均公布於其開課查詢系統中，但開課查詢系統中的課綱不盡完整，故筆者向開課教師索取，但並非每位教師都同意提供，因此翻譯科技課程課綱的分析為以教師提供的版本為主，開課查詢系統中的版本為輔。研究者接著寄信向提出全臺灣九所翻譯研究所十門翻譯科技課程之九位授課教師提出觀課請求與訪談邀請，[2]最後共有六位教師同意接受觀課，與七位教師同意接受訪談。

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[1] 國立彰化師範大學翻譯研究所與中原大學應用外國語文學系碩士班口筆譯組通常將機器輔助翻譯課程開設於第二學期，故 112 學年度第二學期查無任何翻譯科技課程的開設資料。

[2] 十門翻譯科技課程之所以有九位授課教師，是因為國立臺灣師範大學翻譯研究所的基礎譯後編輯（中譯英）與輔仁大學跨文化研究所翻譯學碩士班的基礎譯後編輯（中譯英）為同一位教師所開設。

　　研究學生鎖定七位願意接受訪談之授課教師之翻譯科技課堂上的學生，共 60 人，採問卷調查法，受試者邀請各翻譯科技課堂之學生填寫問卷，再依照問卷調查結果從樣本中進行隨機抽樣，進行訪談。

二、研究方法

（一）翻譯科技課程課綱調查

　　首先以文獻調查法透過有計畫與系統的程序，蒐集翻譯科技課程課綱，並對蒐集到的大量資料進行分析、綜合、比較、歸納。

（二）教師訪談

　　筆者參考 Zhang 與 Nunes Vieira（2021）的問卷，擬定訪綱。當面訪談每一位教師前，筆者都會說明本研究的主旨，讓受訪者對於問題有基本的了解，並請受訪者簽署研究知情同意書。為確保訪談問題清楚明瞭且適切，研究者先邀請同意受訪一位教師進行試訪，以了解受訪的經驗，該受訪者表示問題都非常明確易懂，並能確切提出答案。將課程課綱內容與教師訪談結果比對與分析後，筆者針對當前臺灣翻譯碩士班翻譯科技課程的不足之處提出討論與建言。

（三）問卷調查

　　唐瑄（2022）、Kodura（2022）、Sanchez Ramos（2022）均提出翻譯科技的觀感以及學習翻譯科技對於翻譯職涯發展的看法等問題，故筆者以這些研究的訪談與問卷問題基礎。本研究問卷共分為兩大部分，第一部分為個人基本背景資料，第二部分則為翻譯科技課程修習的認知與觀感初探，採用李克特五點量表（5-Point Likert Scale）擬定出以下問卷，共可區分成兩個面向，第一個面向是以唐瑄（2022）為參考依據，立基於 Venkatesh 與 Davis（2000）的第二代科技接受度架構，了解當前翻譯碩士班學生翻譯科技的使用情況與態度；第二個面向是比照 Sanchez Ramos（2022）的問卷設計，延續 Guinovart Cid 與 Colominas Ventura（2021）的研究，一探學生對於當前翻譯科技課程施行與翻譯科技融入翻譯碩士班的看法。

肆、調查結果

一、翻譯科技課程綱要調查

（一）課程名稱和學分數

　　依課程名稱可略分為學習翻譯科技原理課程、翻譯軟體操作課程，以及翻譯技巧課程三大類，且以翻譯軟體操作課程為最大宗（見表 1）。七門課程中以電腦輔助翻譯工具為名的就有四門，唯「機器與人工智能翻譯」一門從課程名稱較難分類，可以說目前臺灣碩士班翻譯科技課程是以電腦輔助翻譯工具為主軸。

表 1

翻譯科技課程名稱

翻譯科技課程名稱	課程數	補充說明
翻譯科技基礎程式撰寫（一）	1	學習翻譯科技背後原理課程
基礎譯後編輯（中譯英）	1	翻譯技巧課程
電腦輔助翻譯工具	4	翻譯軟體操作課程
機器與人工智能翻譯	1	單從課程名稱難以界定與分類

　　多數翻譯科技課程為二學分或三學分，唯輔仁大學跨文化研究所翻譯學碩士班開設之「電腦輔助翻譯工具」為一學分（見表 2）。

表 2

翻譯科技課程學分數

學分數	課程數	課程名稱
3	3	翻譯科技基礎程式撰寫（一） 電腦輔助翻譯與專案管理 機器與人工智能翻譯
2	3	翻譯科技：電腦輔助翻譯工具 基礎譯後編輯（中譯英） 電腦輔助翻譯
1	1	電腦輔助翻譯工具

（二）課程目標

　　相似課程名稱的課程目標可能較為相近，故依上述課程名稱分類依序討論各課程的課程目標。翻譯科技基礎程式撰寫（一）的課程目標為習得撰寫 Python 程式解決各種文本及語料處理相關難題、習得正規表示式檢索語言、學會撰寫網路爬蟲程式下載文本，並分析 HTML 以擷取可用的資料、習得中英文分詞（tokenize）、學習命令提示字元或終端機下達各種指令處理大量資料。簡言之就是以程式設計語言 Python 進行文本處理、語料處理、網路爬蟲以及資料分析等。基礎譯後編輯（中譯英）的課程目標則非常簡略，即為透過機器翻譯快速處理中文文件，並有效做譯後編輯。電腦輔助翻譯工具的一類共四門課程之課程目標如表 3。

表 3

電腦輔助翻譯工具類課程目標

課程名稱	課程目標
翻譯科技：電腦輔助翻譯工具	習得如何使用電腦輔助翻譯工具創建專案、逐步建立翻譯記憶與術語庫等翻譯資源並匯出、翻譯文本。
電腦輔助翻譯工具	探討電腦翻譯軟體的各種可能性，並學習翻譯記憶軟體的操作與實務流程。
電腦輔助翻譯	介紹翻譯學中電腦輔助翻譯軟體的基本理論，以及訓練筆譯當中常用的具體電腦輔助翻譯方法與技巧。培養學生電腦操作能力，對國際最新翻譯技術的了解，建立職業翻譯員的道德規範，以及在電腦輔助翻譯工具環境下對語文的使用。
電腦輔助翻譯與專案管理	熟悉 Trados 使用方式、分析兩篇相似文章之能力、使用電腦輔助工具進行專業術語之翻譯、建立資料庫之能力、具備翻譯專案管理之能力。

　　雖然這四門課的課程名稱略有差異，但均是以電腦輔助翻譯工具為課程主軸，教師敘述課程目標的方式雖略有差異，但課程目標幾乎一致。其中長榮大學的電腦輔助翻譯特別將輔助翻譯軟體的基本理論，以及建立職業翻譯員的道德規範列出，可將此類課程的課程目標簡化為三項：習得電腦輔助翻譯工具的操作、翻譯資源的創建，與專案管理的能力。

　　機器與人工智能翻譯的課程目標是為了讓學生理解翻譯科技及機器翻譯系統運作之原理，並具備「前機器翻譯編輯」之能力，將待譯文本（自然語言）改寫為機器較容易理解之「控制語言」。課程並介紹神經機器翻譯，並簡介訓練機器深度學習之方法及翻譯質量評估。從課程目標來看，東吳大學的機器與人工智能翻譯更近似於基礎譯後編輯（中譯英），將教學重點置於文本編輯。

（三）課程內容

　　相似的課程名稱的課程內容可能較為相近，故而同樣依上述課程名稱分類依序討論各課程的課程內容。翻譯科技基礎程式撰寫（一）的課程內容包含 Python 語言概論、翻譯記憶標準格式 TMX 與 Word 和 Excel 檔轉換、爬蟲程式撰寫、翻譯語料庫建置，與光學字元辨識工具。基礎譯後編輯（中譯英）的課程內容則為文史哲、財經、科普文類的全編輯。電腦輔助翻譯工具的一類共四門課程課程內容如表 4。

表 4

電腦輔助翻譯工具類課程課程內容

課程名稱	課程內容
翻譯科技：電腦輔助翻譯工具	Wordfast Anywhere、MemoQ、Termsoup、Phrase，與 Trados Studio 2022
電腦輔助翻譯工具	WinAlign、Trados
電腦輔助翻譯	Trados
電腦輔助翻譯與專案管理	Trados 與專案管理

　　四門課程儘管內容多元，然而均著重於電腦輔助翻譯工具，四門課全都將 Trados 納入教學內容的主軸。機器與人工智能翻譯的課程內容為 Termsoup、Memsource、Phrase、Trados，以及譯後編輯和神經機器翻譯。從課程內容來看，可說是基礎譯後編輯與電腦輔助翻譯工具類課程總和。

二、教師訪談

　　共有七位教師接受訪談，他們的課程分別為翻譯科技：電腦輔助翻譯工具、翻譯科技基礎程式撰寫（一）、基礎譯後編輯（中譯英）、電腦輔助翻譯工具、電腦輔助翻譯、電腦輔助翻譯與專案管理、機器與人工智能翻譯，以下依順序將教師編號為 T1、T2、T3、T4、T5、T6、T7。

（一）教授翻譯科技年資

　　受訪教師的翻譯科技教學年資數跨度廣，有三位教師近年才開始接觸翻譯科技教學，教授翻譯科技年資不到五年；另也有三位教師的於翻譯科技教學領域非常資深，均有超過 15 年以上的翻譯科技教學經驗（見表 5），能呈現不同授課經驗教師的教學樣貌與觀點，同時證明翻譯科技教學並非新興議題，於臺灣其實行之有年，且有多校長期都有投人經營，但除了國立臺灣大學近年來求新求變外，不多發展與改革所上的翻譯科技課程，發展出今日有多元翻譯科技課程可選擇的成果，他校則墨守成規，課程發展有限。

表 5

教授翻譯科技年資

教師編號	教授翻譯科技年資
T1	15 年
T2	1 年
T3	2 年
T4	7 年
T5	20 年
T6	15 年
T7	5 年

（二）課程的主要目標

　　同時課程目標與教師授課內容相符，唯獨機器與人工智能翻譯的課程內容為電腦輔助翻譯工具、機器翻譯、譯後編輯，然而課程目標僅為習得機器

翻譯原理與歷史與全編輯，並未將電腦輔助翻譯工具的學習納入課程目標中，根據授課教師的說法，於課程中教授電腦輔助翻譯工具必非主要課程目標，而僅是達成課程目標與增進學生學習動機的手段。

（三）班級人數

　　七位受訪教師的班級都不大，人數至多 13 人，最小的班級僅有四人（見表 6）。其中三位教師均提及因為碩士班招收人數本就不多，所以課程規模並不會太大。有四位教師表示班級規模小有助於翻譯科技課程的運作，因為翻譯科技課程均需實際操作，班級愈小，教師愈能掌握每一位學生的學習情況，並給予個別教學。另有三位教師提出班級規模受限於軟硬體設備的數量不足。

表 6

班級人數

教師編號	班級人數	原因
T1	10 人	實作課程不適合太多人，且課程使用之電腦輔助翻譯軟體有限
T2	13 人	碩士班人數本就有限，且學生人數愈少愈能照顧到每一人
T3	4 人	為選修且為中進英課程，修課人數少為常態
T4	10 人	課程電腦設備有限
T5	6 人	碩士班人數本就有限，小班制更能有效幫助學生補強個別的不足
T6	7 人	碩士班人數本就有限
T7	12 人	班級人數愈少，教師愈能掌握個別學習狀況，且課程使用之電腦輔助翻譯軟體有限

（四）教學方法

　　教師的講述多用於軟體介面的介紹與解釋，同時進行操作示範（見表 7），與 Jiang（2022）彙整出的多數教師教學方法相同，包含理論解釋、應用示範、操作指引、操作示範。多位教師善用問答與討論，不是讓學生被動

記憶資訊，而是協助學習者在面對新資訊時，基於自己的背景知識，並與他人和環境交互作用所主動建構知識。

　　課堂中的隨堂考與演練則均符合任務導向教學法，學習者通過實際參與任務或活動，實踐和應用知識來獲得技能和理解。教師通常提供一個具體的問題或挑戰，需要學生運用已學的知識和技能來解決，例如於翻譯科技基礎程式撰寫（一）的課堂中，教師會請學生撰寫出得以抓下某內容各句的平行文本之程式碼，並請學生實際運作程式碼，驗收撰寫成果，最後一一檢視程式碼的疏漏。

　　任務導向教學法與 Alcina et al.（2007）、Esqueda（2021）、Sanchez Ramos（2022）等人對於教授翻譯科技的主張相同；也和 Zhang 與 Nunes Vieira（2021）研究中自 33 個國家的 120 中九成的教師採行相同的策略。七位受訪教師的教學方法皆符合 Juan 與 Yahaya（2019）所提出翻譯科技教學應符合社會建構主義。

表 7

教學方法

教師編號	教學方法
T1	講述、演練
T2	講述、問答、隨堂考
T3	譯文分析與討論
T4	講述、問答、演練
T5	講述、演練
T6	講述、演練
T7	討論、問答、講述、演練

（五）學習評量

　　教師普遍重視學生的課堂參與，畢竟從教師教學方法觀察可知，教師教學均符合社會建構主義的理念，翻譯知識是由學習者與教師、同儕、教材、乃至於整個社會文化環境的互動才得以建構進展（廖柏森，2022），迫切需

要學生主動積極地參與課堂。

　　除了課堂參與，教師評量的方法相當多元，翻譯科技：電腦輔助翻譯工具的授課教師特別採用學生自我評量。教師的作業、隨堂考、期中考與期末考的形式皆類似，均是由教師指派與課堂學習之功能的應用任務，請學生達成。節錄教師受訪內容如下：「期末報告就請他們做一個小專案，譬如說去光華雜誌下載雙語語料，做一個語料庫，把之前學過的技能整合，作為主要的評量方式」（T2）。

　　另一位教師表示：

　　　　期中和期末會是真實的翻譯工作，譬如說學生假設自己是一位使用Trados譯者，現在接到一份工作，我要求交一份翻譯記憶給我，交一份專案給我，在翻譯的過程中，使用我交給他們的翻譯記憶或詞彙庫翻譯一篇文章。（T5）

雖然作業的產出時常是學生的譯文成果，但翻譯的品質並不會納入成績評量，而僅僅是為了達成操作目標的元素之一：

　　　　這學期的目標就是要會操作，所以我看的就是在翻譯作業上用這種工具最容易犯的錯是什麼，我會從這點糾正，至於用詞正不正確我不管，那有其他教師來幫忙教。（T4）

期中報告與期末報告進行的方式則各異，但確實體現出了個別課程的特色：

　　　　期末他們會做一個專案……學生會找自己喜歡的素材，譬如要做網站的，就找自己喜歡的網站，要做技術手冊也可以，中間要與我討論團隊有多少人，翻譯能力是多少字，要合理給我評估，而且每一週要做什麼都要做出來，所以我要看到整體規劃與團隊於最後八週到底做了哪些事。（T6）

　　　　期中報告是透過閱讀相關研究寫心得，期末報告這是團隊協助，學生要寫一篇使用某一電腦輔助翻譯軟體，我會叫他們作分析比較，該電腦輔助翻譯軟體的優劣以及翻譯過程中所遇到的困難。（T7）

　　七位教師不論是何種形式的教學評量方法，均非常符合社會建構主義的
教學觀，提供學生自然真實的情境去實際使用他們所要學習的技能，以完成
所設定的任務，不僅重視任務的成果，更重視完成任務的過程（見表 8）。

表 8

教學評量方法

教師編號	教學評量方法
T1	課堂參與、學生自我評量
T2	隨堂考、期末報告
T3	作業、出席率、課堂參與
T4	作業、課堂參與、期末考
T5	課堂參與、作業、期中考、期末考
T6	作業、期中考、期末報告
T7	作業、期中報告、期末報告

（六）授課困難

　　有三位教師都提及技術性問題是教學翻譯科技時的一大困境，主要是軟
硬體的缺失，例如，教室插頭不足、學生電腦系統的差異、偶遇停電等，尤
其多數翻譯科技課程涉及軟體操作，軟體的購買成為教師授課的一大困境。
軟硬體設備的數量不足則源於經費的短缺：

　　　　要上電腦輔助翻譯工具一個很大的缺點或是限制就是我今天要上
　　　　Termsoup 就要幫學生買帳號，我要上 Trados，我當然可以用試用版，
　　　　但並非長久之計，學校還是得購買 Trados 的軟體安裝在電腦，而大家
　　　　都知道 Trados 非常貴，等於是說開課成本非常大。（T7）

即使有經費購買電腦輔助翻譯軟體，還是會遇到如何延續與方便使用的問題，
一則是軟體時時在更新，然而學校不可能年年購買最新的版本：

　　　　這些軟體日益更新，Trados 原本是兩年出一個新的版本，最近好像每

> 一年都出一個版本，Trados 又特別貴，總不可能一直更新，我自己使
> 用正式版，我用我的示範，但學生用試用版可能是最新的版本，那學
> 生就會抱怨介面不同。（T7）

二則是購買軟體後往往會綁定硬體，就可能必須使用特定的電腦授課，授課
空間的選擇受限：

> 當時購買 15 套 Trados……因為安裝在某間教室內，所以就變得只能用
> 那間教室授課，後來因為伺服器交接之類的，也就沒有了……沒有軟
> 體之後，我們有幾年的時間就都是用試用版，一直到後來才有經費，
> 我們覺得這個就是看系所對於翻譯科技重視的程度。（T1）

像長榮大學與文藻外語大學非常注重翻譯科技課程的發展，不僅專門為課程
設立「機械翻譯教室」與「專業翻譯數位教室」，並在教室內的每臺電腦都
購買並下載正版 Trados，然而如果想要教授除了 Trados 之外的軟體，那就需
要更龐大的投入：

> 現在在學習也不只學習 Trados，小型的翻譯社就算有用電腦輔助翻譯
> 軟體，也會選擇雲端類型像是 Termsoup，價錢不會那麼高，入門門檻
> 比較低，遇到的問題就是學校不是只要買 Trados，也要買 memoQ、
> Memsource 或 Termsoup，我覺得就經費而言，在臺灣真的是非常侷限。
> （T7）

有三位教師表示教學時數不足，翻譯科技課程多涉及操作，需要頻繁的練習，
造成課程內容就必須有所取捨。而學生無法自己回家多加練習也與上述的第
一個困境息息相關，操作的軟體往往需要與學校的系統綁定，學生下課後就
幾乎沒有機會再使用課程中教過的系統：「我希望授課時間能夠有半天，或
一個禮拜能夠有兩三天，這種操作的東西，一個禮拜不碰的話難免會忘」
（T5）。

還有兩位教師提出學生學習動機薄弱的困境：

> 我還是比較喜歡是選修課，學習動機強的話課程會比較有趣，學習動
> 機弱的話，自我效能就不高，學生可能覺得自己的電腦能力本就很弱，

修一門翻譯課程竟然還要用電腦。（T6）

另有兩位教師認為學生基本的資訊力不足：「有學生不會壓縮、不會改檔名、連上瀏覽器登入帳號密碼都不會」（T4）。

表 9

教學困難

教師編號	教學困難
T1	技術性問題
T2	學生程度參差、技術性問題
T3	學生學習動機薄弱、教學時數不足
T4	學生基本的資訊力不足、教學時數不足
T5	學生基本的資訊力不足、教學時數不足
T6	學生學習動機薄弱
T7	技術性問題

三、學生問卷調查與訪談

　　本研究樣本來自於願意接受訪談之授課教師 112 學年度第一學期翻譯科技課堂上的學生，共 60 人，回收有效問卷共 38 份。另接受半結構訪談者共 13 人，以下將受訪學生依序編號為 G1、G2、G3、G4、G5、G6、G7、G8、G9、G10、G11、G12、G13，以問卷為訪綱，針對每一題加以追問。

　　為驗證問卷內部的一致性，本研究採用 SPSS 23.0 對 38 份問卷結果進行信度分析（α 係數），根據 Nunnally 與 Bernstein（1994）的研究顯示，問卷分析後的 Cronbach's α 最低應接近或大於 0.7，問卷方具備可以接受的信度。本問卷整體 Cronbach's α 為 0.871，因此可知本問卷具有相當的信度，顯示該問卷具有高度一致性和可靠性。

　　Venkatesh 與 Davis（2000）的第二代科技接受度模型主要的核心架構為知覺易用性（perceived ease of use）、知覺有用性（perceived usefulness），

與使用意圖（intention to use）三個面向。

　　第一個面向為知覺易用性，其定義為使用者主觀認為特定科技產品容易使用的程度，探討知覺易用性的五點平均數為七題中最低，該題填答為「不同意」與「非常不同意」的共 16 份，也就表示四成多的填卷者認為翻譯科技並不容易上手，同時凸顯翻譯科技得花時間學習的需求，若欲上手仍得投入相當的精力；另有九份填答為「沒意見」，根據數位受訪者表示，翻譯科技是集合名詞，若細分的話，有些翻譯科技較為平易近人，有些則較為困難，另外亦有受訪者說明，學習翻譯科技的難易度十分取決於學習者的科技力，亦即對於科技的熟悉程度，如若平時就有頻繁使用電腦的習慣，相對而言對於科技的操作會流暢許多。

　　第二個面向知覺有用性的定義為使用者主觀認為使用特定科技產品能夠提升工作績效，有超過半數的填答者非常同意學習翻譯科技有助於完成翻譯工作，即便如前面調查資料所呈現，有將近半數的同學並未有實際承接翻譯工作的經驗，但仍主觀認為學習翻譯科技有助於完成翻譯工作，根據受訪者表示，許多翻譯公司會要求使用翻譯科技，所以使用翻譯科技有助於完成翻譯工作成為必然，同時完成翻譯工作的時間往往較為受限，亦即翻譯公司時常要求譯者於短時間內完成相當份量的翻譯，而翻譯科技恰能大幅提升完成翻譯工作的速度。

　　學習翻譯科技對完成翻譯作業助益的平均數明顯較低，幾位受訪者表示儘管有修課學習如何使用翻譯科技，然而由於翻譯科技軟硬體的所有權歸學校所有，所以離開翻譯科技的課堂後，往往就沒有機會再接觸到翻譯科技，與前兩節中教師所提出的教學困境不謀而合，由於軟硬體的不足，造成學生未能學以致用的窘境；另外亦有受訪者表示，於傳統的翻譯課堂中學習就是要磨練翻譯轉換的能力，所以非翻譯科技課程的作業就會避免使用翻譯科技；然而整體而言填卷者仍普遍認為學習翻譯科技有助於完成學校派發的翻譯作業。

　　第三個面向是使用意圖，則指涉個人實現特定行為的意願強度，立基於

此面向的兩題的五點平均數都相當高，且所有填答均為「同意」或「非常同意」，所有填答者都有意願使用翻譯科技，且願意繼續使用，眾多受訪者都體會到翻譯科技的便利性，另有受訪者表示翻譯科技對翻譯產業的影響已經是現在進行式，大勢所趨所以不得不用。

除了第二代科技接受度模型的核心三面向之外，Venkatesh 與 Davis（2000）也認為知覺有用性會受認知工具性過程（cognitive instrumental process）以及社會影響過程（social influence process）的影響。認知工具性過程是測量使用者個人內在認知如何影響使用意圖，包括工作關聯（job relevance）、產出品質（output quality）以及成果展示性（result demonstrability），故而詢問翻譯科技對專業翻譯活動的影響力，即是探究工作關聯體現，結果也顯示九成的填答者都認為具相當程度的影響。

而社會影響過程則指涉外生因素對於使用者的影響，包括主觀規範（subjective norm）及形象（image），主觀規範是指社會大眾與重要他人的看法對個人觀點的影響。將近八成的填卷者表示「同意」或「非常同意」多數師長認為學生應該學習翻譯科技，受訪者表示就曾有非翻譯科技的教師於課堂上說過，會被淘汰的都是不會使用科技的譯者，證明有些師長十分鼓勵翻譯研究所的學生積極學習與採用翻譯科技，但幾位受訪者也有表示有些師長則不無表態，並非所有的師長都強調翻譯科技學習的重要性。

對於「多數客戶認為我應該學習翻譯科技」一題，則有四成多的填卷者選填「沒意見」，根據受訪者表示是否需學習翻譯科技的答案會因不同的客戶而異，雖然市場上確實有要求使用翻譯科技的業主，但也有不理會翻譯科技，或要求不得使用翻譯科技的業主存在，前一節中就有教師提及，有些職業譯者即便完全不會使用翻譯科技，依然在市場上有一席之地，與學生所感相互呼應，彙整如表 10。

表 10

翻譯科技接受度

因素類別	量表題目	五點平均數
主觀規範	9. 多數師長認為我應該學習翻譯科技。	4.16
	10. 多數客戶認為我應該學習翻譯科技。	3.83
知覺有用性	11. 學習翻譯科技對我在學校完成翻譯作業很有幫助。	4.13
	12. 學習翻譯科技對我的完成翻譯工作很有幫助。	4.40
使用意圖	13. 我有意願使用翻譯科技。	4.64
	14. 我會繼續使用翻譯科技。	4.62
知覺易用性	20. 學習翻譯科技很容易上手。	3.29

　　為一探學生對於當前翻譯科技課程施行與翻譯科技融入翻譯碩士班的看法，此面向題目延續 Guinovart Cid 與 Colominas Ventura（2021）的研究，並比照 Sanchez Ramos（2022）的問卷設計，以下分為當前臺灣翻譯碩士班翻譯科技課程成效（見表 11）與翻譯科技課程開課需求（見表 12）兩部分呈現與討論。

　　於探究當學期翻譯科技課程成效的六個題目當中，五點平均數最高的為「修習翻譯科技課程可以提升我的翻譯速度」，五成的填卷者都選答「非常同意」，剩下將近五成的人都選答「同意」。於討論翻譯科技接受度的面向時，受訪者就有提及學習翻譯科技有助於完成翻譯工作，因為可以透過翻譯科技滿足翻譯公司對於減少翻譯時程的要求，可知學生普遍認為學習翻譯科技帶來的一大優勢即為提升翻譯的速度。

　　相對而言，「修習翻譯科技課程可以提升我的翻譯品質」的五點平均數較低，有將近兩成的填卷者選答「沒意見」或「不同意」，前面談及翻譯科技對翻譯專業活動的影響時，有些受訪者就表示，儘管科技提供很多參照的資料，然而實際上決定要選用哪一筆資料並產出譯文的仍然是人類譯者。如是採用機器翻譯做編輯或直接使用，影響產出品質的因素就很多，諸如涉及的語言與文本的類型。也有受訪者提出會因為翻譯科技的方便而過於依賴。

　　然而整體來說，普遍學生仍認為修習翻譯科技課程有助於提升翻譯的品質。六個題目中五點平均數第二高的題目為「教師的教學方法有助於我了解翻譯科技」，有將近五成的填卷者都選答「非常同意」，另有將近五成的人選答「同意」，表示填卷者普遍認同教師的教學方法，同時也認為課程能提升學生對於翻譯科技的興趣，有些受訪者表示會想要更進一步精熟教師教授的特定翻譯科技，另也有些受訪者欲探索更多不一樣的翻譯科技。

　　普遍教師會從宏觀的角度切入一項特定功能，學習因此得以全面而不會顯得破碎，且學生能夠確實了解使用的時機。節錄學生受訪內容如下：

> 兩個小時的課會先跟大家講說今天要教什麼，這個功能或作法是翻譯流程中的什麼階段會使用到，譬如說建翻譯記憶，教師就會花時間講解翻譯記憶，以及為什麼要用。（G3）

許多教師會於教學的過程中融入自身實務經驗的分享，多位學生深深認為對翻譯科技的學習很有幫助，與前一節中教師們認為有翻譯科技實務經驗對於教學是有加分效果：「教師本身有做過軟體工程師與翻譯的經驗，所以他知道如何應用」（G5）。然而也有數位受訪者都提出，翻譯科技的課程應融入更多科技運作的原理講解與教學，會更有助於了解翻譯科技：「翻譯科技除了幫助翻譯本身之外，也可能可以學習如何設計軟體或軟體會往哪個方向開發」（G7）。

　　儘管多數填卷者仍同意教師的評量方法有助於翻譯科技學習，然而相較於對教學方法滿意程度，有較多同學對於「教師的評量方法有助於我了解翻譯科技」持沒意見的態度，課程的評量方式通常是操作的驗收，與翻譯不盡然相同：「因為作業不一定與翻譯相關，雖然說是可以用到，但不一定直接關聯，譬如說寫一個爬蟲程式等」（G5）。受訪者有提及之所以認為評量方法之所以受限是因為課程時數的不足，正好呼應前兩節中教師提及之教學時數不足的其中一大教學困境：

> 我們這學期的課表還蠻趕的，時間並不是很多，除了當下的那一堂課堂報告以外，並沒有太多時間能夠討論，或者是跟教師交換心得與想

法，當然教師平常作業也會給，但是教師可能也很忙，不一定能提供
即時性的意見。（G12）

六個題目中五點平均數最低的題目為「我於修業期間習得足夠的翻譯科技能
力」，儘管有 27 位填卷者表示「同意」與「非常同意」，但仍有四位填卷者
表示「不同意」，另有七位填卷者表示「沒意見」，根據受訪者表示，於課
堂中僅有學習到翻譯科技的一部分，而沒有見得翻譯科技的全貌，每個人的
需求也不同，故而難以定義足夠與否。

表 11

翻譯科技課程成效

量表題目	五點平均數
1. 修習翻譯科技課程可以提升我的翻譯品質。	4.10
2. 修習翻譯科技課程可以提升我的翻譯速度。	4.43
18. 修習翻譯科技課程增加我對翻譯科技的興趣。	4.35
21. 教師的教學方法有助於我了解翻譯科技。	4.37
22. 教師的評量方法有助於我了解翻譯科技。	4.16
23. 我於修業期間習得足夠的翻譯科技能力。	3.78

　　對於翻譯科技課程開課需求的認知調查，六個題項中有五個都將近甚至
是遠高於 4.5（見表 12），顯示填卷學生對於翻譯科技課程開課需求的認同
程度頗高。五點平均數最高的題項為「翻譯研究所應開設翻譯科技課程」，
超過七成以上的填卷者都表示「非常同意」，其餘的填卷者也都表示「同意」，
填卷學生普遍意識到修習翻譯課技課程的重要性。

　　填卷學生普遍認為翻譯研究所不僅應開設翻譯科技課程中，且翻譯科
技課程於翻譯研究所已是不可或缺，從受訪者的回應中可知，從微觀來看，
人工智慧的發展正在衝擊翻譯產業，翻譯產業的科技化已經是必然的趨勢，
不學習翻譯科技的應用就會被淘汰；從宏觀的角度切入則是人工智慧已無
所不在，學習科技已然是所有學門的課題。同時填卷學生多數認為翻譯研

究所應開設更多翻譯科技課程，從前幾節中可知，當前多數臺灣的翻譯碩士班皆僅開設一門翻譯科技課程，不僅是教師認為授課時數不足，學生也有同樣的看法。

　　據受訪者表示，當前臺灣翻譯碩士班的翻譯科技課程急需增加深度與廣度，深度即是加深課程內容，以電腦輔助翻譯工具課程為例，不僅應教授操作，而是應融入理論與原理以及實務應用，並增加教授的面向，囊括各式不同款、不同版本的工具；廣度則為增加翻譯科技課程的種類，本文於文獻回顧處即有提及臺灣當前翻譯碩士班的翻譯科技課程可略分為學習翻譯科技背後原理的課程、翻譯軟體操作類型的課程、翻譯技巧類課程共三種，然而多數翻譯碩士班卻僅有開設一門翻譯課程，勢必就無法囊括翻譯科技的各個面向，導致學生學習的缺口，而其一的解決之道便在於開設更多的翻譯科技課程，以彌補當前的不足。

　　「修業期間習得的翻譯科技於翻譯職涯發展是不可或缺」為六個題項中五點平均數相對低的題目，儘管學生認同學習翻譯科技的必要性，也表示於課程中習得的翻譯科技有助於職涯發展，然而就當前的翻譯市場來看，確實仍存在完全不使用翻譯科技且發展良好的譯者，與前一節中部分教師的看法相互呼應。

　　「翻譯科技可以自學，無需教師的協助」一題是整份問卷中五點平均數最低的題目，因為此題為反向題，五點平均數愈低，愈表示翻譯科技的學習需要教師的協助，儘管前一節中，教師普遍認為翻譯科技能透過自學習得，然而從學生的觀點來看，雖然確實有許多自學的管道，然而自學遭遇諸多無法克服的障礙，並強化翻譯研究所應開設翻譯科技課程的理由：「就是會一知半解，就算有說明書，甚至是有中文的說明書……就是會比較快，與其自己在那邊看老半天，我覺得有教師教會比較好」（G11）。

　　受訪者表示：

　　　　網路上雖然找得到教學，但畢竟是文字的東西，很可能就會走上錯的路且沒有發現，而且網路上找到的都是比較基本的內容，太深入可能

　　就需要教師來教。（G12）

另有受訪者表示：「教師可能本身就有實務經驗或接過案子，就會告訴學生業界做法為何或怎麼樣做比較快」（G13）。儘管受訪者認為可以自學，但有教師協助必能更有效率，不僅學習速度快，且不會走冤枉路，外加教師若納入實務經驗的分享，必定更能幫助學生接軌職場。

表 12

翻譯科技課程開課需求

量表題目	五點平均數
15. 翻譯研究所應開設翻譯科技課程。	4.75
16. 翻譯研究所應開設更多翻譯科技課程。	4.51
17. 翻譯科技課程於翻譯研究所已是不可或缺。	4.51
19. 翻譯科技可以自學，無需教師的協助。	2.91
24. 修業期間習得的翻譯科技有助於我的翻譯職涯發展。	4.45
25. 修業期間習得的翻譯科技於翻譯職涯發展是不可或缺。	4.37

伍、分析與討論

　　透過課程綱要調查、課程實地觀察與教師訪談的方法一探，結果顯示，課程大綱、課堂觀察記錄以及教師訪談紀錄之間呈現出相當一致的情況，課程命名有效反映出每門課程的內容，共可分為學習翻譯科技原理、翻譯軟體操作，以及翻譯技巧。其中以電腦輔助翻譯軟體為主題的課程為大宗，而教授 Trados 軟體更是眾多教師的共識，公認為最複雜且廣泛，習得後便能推及其他電腦輔助翻譯工具的應用。目前翻譯科技課程都採取小班制，教學方法主要以溝通式教學為主，使用真實教材，評量方法以任務導向為主，並強調課堂討論和合作，這些都高度契合社會建構主義的理念。

　　針對學生採用問卷及訪談後發現，學生仍對翻譯科技持開放態度，當然不同的翻譯科技給他們的感受有所不同，有些易於掌握，有些則較為困難，

學習翻譯科技的難易程度會取決於學生一般性的科技能力。許多學生主觀認為科技產品能提高工作效率，對於作業的幫助卻較為有限，凸顯出於學校缺乏翻譯科技應用的機會。學生認為教師對翻譯科技學習多表示支持或是不表態，而市場對於翻譯科技學習的觀感因客戶而異。

　　目前的教學方法確實給予學生良好的學習體驗與效果，但缺乏對科技運作原理的解釋和教學。此外，評量方法受制於課程時數，效果不盡如人意，且單一翻譯科技的學習使學生對自身的科技能力存有疑慮。因此，學生強烈支持開設翻譯科技課程，並建議擴充課程內容和教授的科技種類。從學生的回饋中可以看出，教師已達到課程和教學目標，將翻譯科技的知識和技能傳授給學生。然而當前臺灣翻譯碩士班的翻譯科技課程仍因六大困境而導致整體課程發展較為緩慢。

一、多校課程種類單一

　　當前臺灣所有翻譯碩士班除了臺大與輔大之外，其餘各校全學年皆僅開設一門翻譯科技課程，亦即全臺灣 80% 的翻譯碩士班翻譯科技課程過於單一。然而綜觀全球已有超過 575 個與翻譯科技相關的翻譯碩士學位學程，包括都柏林城市大學（Dublin City University）、海德堡大學（Heidelberg University）、倫敦大學學院（University College London）等校均於近年積極辦理翻譯碩士學位學程，亦即世界各地眾多學校皆認為若要完整學習翻譯科技，至少需要一至兩年，20 幾學分多樣的課程學習投入。

二、課程教學目標未能深入

　　不論是課程綱要內容或教師訪談紀錄都顯示，教師的教學目標不斷強調實際操作與理解原理的重要性，然而譯者應如何調整個人能力以因應翻譯產業的需求，僅僅具有知識與技能似乎並不足以應對翻譯科技帶來的巨變。例如面對科技帶來的挑戰，譯者的工作型態已開始轉變，隨之而來的是更詳細的分工，如林慶隆等（2021）所述現在的翻譯工作必須結合三個部分：個人、

團隊還有科技。

　　雖然教師鼓勵學生交流，但也僅止於鼓勵性質，並未將團隊合作納入翻譯科技學習的目標。譯者的角色正在改變，未來翻譯產業的版圖也會重建（陳子瑋等，2018），萬象翻譯公司編譯部的陳碧珠總編審就曾言該公司已成立譯後編輯小組，這個團隊需要的編輯，能力要求比一般編輯或譯者更高，結合科技並適應新工作型態的能力顯然已成為翻譯科技課程的一大課題，只有學會知識與技能並不能弭平產學之間的落差（林慶隆等，2021）。

三、班級人數受限

　　如教師於訪談中所述，除軟硬體的限制外，實作的課堂本就較適合小班制的教學，教師更能夠掌握每個學生的學習狀況，然而某些課程僅有四、五位學生，調查中超過 40% 的修課人數都不滿十人，課堂參與成為半強迫式，每位學生需得輪流發表意見，學生自我建構知識的時間和品質大幅降低，參與本研究的教師多用溝通式教學、採用真實教材、無論作業、報告與考試等評量方法均為任務導向、課堂強調討論、合作，人數不足的課堂大大影響社會建構主義教學的執行。

四、軟硬體設備不足

　　超過 40% 的教師將軟硬體設備不足列為一大教學困境，軟硬體設備的不足不僅限制了修課學生數，學校未能提供統一的軟硬體也造成教學指令無法統一執行的窘境；學生於訪談中也屢屢提及翻譯科技軟硬體的所有權歸學校所有，所以離開翻譯科技的課堂後就沒有機會再接觸到翻譯科技，學習無法延續。

五、課程時數不足

　　課程時數不足是所有問題之最，與其他各項困境皆有連動關係。課程目標未能深入的一大原因即是課程時數不足，即便教師能導入議題眾多，但受制於課程時數，故而僅能以完成知識性與操作性的課程目標為第一優先，甚

至多位教師指出，連基本的知識與技術都只能流於表面。

教師多採用社會建構主義教學，然而溝通式教學、完成任務、討論與合作均需要大量時間促成，然而 50% 的翻譯科技課程每週不足兩小時的課程時數，教師根本難以開展激發學生興趣、確立先備知識、學習引導、實際應用、即時回饋、互動設計與總結回顧的完整課程實施。

六、翻譯科技學習僅止於課內

學習應該是一種全面性的體驗，不僅限於教科書和課堂，然而多名教師都會保留課堂時間，給予學生練習操作上課所學的機會，因為多數學生離開課堂後就無法有機會再接觸到特定的翻譯科技，亦即離開課堂學生被迫停止特定的翻譯科技學習，誠如訪談中教師所述，操作性的內容非常容易忘記與生疏，如若學習僅止於課堂，而未能延伸，即便於修課當學期習得翻譯科技的知識與技能，待就業真要應用時，學生早已將所學拋之千里之外。

陸、結論與建議

教師均了解當前的翻譯科技課程實施的困境，故只能有所取捨，卻也導致課程發展的完整性受到破壞，各項困境環環相扣，以下七點建議盼能夠協助臺灣翻譯研究所改善翻譯科技課程並有效因應翻譯科技的衝擊。

一、增加課程多樣性

多數受訪教師皆認同課堂中教授的僅是翻譯科技的其中一個面向，然而多數學校卻僅有一門翻譯科技課程，未能更完整呈現翻譯科技的樣貌。各項翻譯科技應是相得益彰，片面習得單一的翻譯科技無法有效完成整套翻譯流程，如電腦輔助翻譯工具的教師必會於課堂中納入譯後編輯的概念，因為不了解譯後編輯，電腦輔助翻譯工具的使用就會有缺口。

是否要如國外各校成立翻譯科技研究所仍有待商榷，但為求更完善的翻

譯科技學習，該些翻譯科碩士學位學程的課程安排絕對值得參考與借鏡。以世界首創由文學院創辦的香港中文大學電腦輔助翻譯碩士學位學程為例，其學程設計總共經歷三個時期，第一個時期的必修課程即包含進階翻譯學、機器翻譯史、自然語言處理程式撰寫，以及電腦翻譯專案；第二個時期的必修課程為電腦輔助翻譯概論、翻譯理論與方法、編輯技巧與電腦翻譯，以及電腦翻譯專案；第三個時期則是進一步與文學院翻譯學位學程整併。必修課程就確實囊括翻譯科技的各面向，諸如學習翻譯科技背後原理、編輯技巧與翻譯軟體操作，值得臺灣各翻譯研究所效法，予以學生更全面的翻譯科技觀。

二、深化教學目標

　　除了知識與技能外，教師應將團隊合作、素養等產業必備觀念融入翻譯科技課程的教學目標中。例如為因應全新的作業型態，Ramírez-Polo 與 Vargas-Sierra（2011）提出「訓練網路互動與翻譯科技」（training web interaction and translation technologies）的學習模組，為促進科技理解與管理並學習協作能力，模組由下而上共分為五個層次：

（一）認識工作情境並激勵團隊（introducing the working scenario and motivating the team）：即確立學習情境，介紹團隊成員相互認識，並了解執行計畫。

（二）社會化（socialization）：從傳訊息與貼文開始互動，使用社群媒體溝通，並與現存譯者網絡連結，熟識工作團隊，分配職務並維繫關係。

（三）資訊交換（information exchange）：即在網路上搜尋有用的資源與資訊，管理並儲存概念性、術語性及語言性等不同種資訊，了解翻譯執行計畫的細節，諸如翻譯主題、檔案格式及繳交期限等，細分工作，計畫各階段持續維持團隊合作。

（四）知識建構與發展（knowledge construction and development）：即習得並深入探討科技技術，將原文經翻譯記憶、機器翻譯等系統處理，並監督團隊的工作成效。

（五）收尾（completion）：即更新翻譯記憶與詞彙庫，並確保翻譯成果的品
　　　質，諸如審校訂以及術語的一致性。

　　再如 Sanchez Ramos（2022）的研究就是素養導向翻譯科技課程的實例。
據歐盟翻譯總署（Directorate-General for Translation, 2022）與各大學合作的
歐洲翻譯碩士計畫（European Master's in Translation）所述，除知識與技能外，
也應學習「素養」，所謂素養即無論身處工作或研究的環境、無論面對個人
或專業發展，均能有效實際應用知識、技能，與個人（personal abilities）、
人際和方法（methodological abilities）能力。Sanchez Ramos（2022）以西班
牙阿爾卡拉大學（University of Alcala, Spain）的公共服務口筆譯的技巧與資
源課程（Techniques and Resources for PSIT）為研究案例，該課程的目標即為
鑑別翻譯問題，並選用適合的翻譯科技解決之。如 Hurtado Albir（2015）表示，
習得素養具備知道如何解決問題（know-how-to-act）、融會貫通（integration）
以及因地制宜（use in context）等特徵。知道如何解決問題並非只了解如何使
用等操作性知識；融會貫通即結合認知、情意、社交及陳述性知識；因地制
宜即在任何環境下都能有效使用所學。

三、設定修課人數上下限

　　從操作性的角度來看，愈小班愈有利於教學，教師愈能掌控每一位學生
的學習情況；然而從教學方法的角度切入，若為了營造出更好的社會建構主
義教學空間，課程人數則不能太少，理想上應將修課人數設定為十人左右，
人數太少則應鼓勵更多同學修課或不開班，額滿亦不開放加簽，將課堂人數
保持在最有利於學習的人數。

四、軟硬體的補足

　　課程時數之所以不足一部分是因軟硬體的不足，教師往往得於課堂保留
時間給學生演練，而課堂演練確實是教師能收到即時回饋的一種教學方法。
但多數翻譯科技教師是迫於軟硬體不足的限制，不得不讓學生於課堂演練，

以 Trados 教學為例，因為 Trados 價格高昂，學校僅能購買並綁訂於學校的設備，學生即便上課學習了如何操作，但回家後完全無法自行練習，導致教師僅能保留課堂時間供學生使用學校課堂設備練習應用。

另有數名教師表示，因為學校購買的軟硬體設備有限，也限縮了課程修習人數。學生自行攜帶設備，教學時就會面臨設備系統不一致，而導致教學指令無法統一執行的問題；即便學生攜帶設備到校，然而教室沒有足夠的插座，一樣無法上課。翻譯研究所理想上應與軟體開發商協商與合作，購買能暫時安裝於學生電腦的最新版本軟體，待學期結束後再將軟體返還給學校，將軟體名額保留給之後修課的學生，學生方能不僅於課堂操作，回家也能反覆練習，同時教室的硬體設備也應符合課程的需求，每個學生都能分配到插座，以利課程持續進行。

五、增加課程時數

有其中一位受訪教師表示，即便是教授知識與操作，每週也至少需要三個小時以上才足夠，然而臺灣翻譯研究所有超過半數以上的翻譯科技課程每週僅有兩小時，教師連自身認同之社會建構主義教學方法都無法有效貫徹，更談何要完整融入團隊合作或素養等議題。當前的翻譯科技課程最少應增加至三學分，亦即每週至少有三個小時的授課時數，讓教師得以確實施行主流的翻譯科技教學方法，同時有更多時間補足理論與議題等授課面向。不僅能有效落實教學，同時學生接觸與暴露於專業科技的時間提升，得以有效彌補學生資訊能力不足的問題。

六、增加課外的學習資源

Chan（2010）曾言學生在學術環境中學習不僅能夠更全面掌握翻譯科技，還能透過實習或參與翻譯案件增加實際經驗，然而當前臺灣翻譯研究所提供給學生的實習或參與翻譯案件的機會卻有限，學生大多仍得自食其力。然而如 Astley 與 Torres-Hostench（2017）分享之翻譯碩士學位學程為學生媒合實習的

經驗，該計畫根據學生回饋其中一大收穫即為學生實習後學會有效管理術語以及翻譯相關科技，讓學生進入職場實習可能是彌補學術與實務差距的一個有效方法。若想延續翻譯科技的學習，為學生媒合實習或參與翻譯案件至關重要，學生才得以實際應用課堂所學，進而引發學生反思與解決問題的能力。

除了實習或參與翻譯案件外，學校亦應提供線上的學習資源，如 Nitzke et al.（2019）所述的 DigiLing 線上課程學程計畫。該計畫不僅提供給學生學習，主要對象為翻譯專業的學生，要求要有基礎的翻譯及編修能力，亦提供給教師與校友進修。課程各章節都會有講述，通常包含影片、練習與小考。當今科技日新月異，多元的學習選擇已然成為趨勢，永續學習亦是翻譯科技學習的一大課題，Pym（2013）也提出學習翻譯科技不應當只是一步一步學習如何操作，而是應該發展出如何學著自學的能力，不依賴傳統的學校、教師或課堂環境，而是根據自己的興趣、目標和時間表，並選擇學習內容，與 Jiang（2022）所述相互呼應，包含學會如何找出並處理線上資源的能力以降低學習曲線、以需求與價格衡量工具的適切性、與同儕合作，以及批判性思考運用翻譯科技的過程。誠如 Enríquez Raído（2013）所述，翻譯科技應是終其一生不斷學習、成長和發展，快速變化即是科技的本質，亦是現代社會的需求。陳子瑋等（2018）也說科技教學本身不是終極目標，而是培養學生隨時隨地學習的能力。

筆者深知不論課程多樣性、教學目標深化、教師聘用、修課人數規定、購買軟硬體的經費、課程時數的安排與課外學習資源的提供皆非翻譯研究所或學校就能定奪，而是有賴於政府與教育部的支持與關注。然而面對人工智慧的時代，投注於翻譯科技教育已是刻不容緩，盼望本研究能拋磚引玉，以期臺灣翻譯研究所翻譯科技課程更健全的發展。

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Not Just a Mock Conference:
Online Mock Conferences for Undergraduate Interpreting Students

Gracie Peng

Mock conferences (MCs) are often included in postgraduate (PG) interpreting training as a way for student interpreters to practice their acquired interpreting skills. These conferences can take various forms, such as simultaneous interpreting for a multi-lingual conference or bilateral interpreting for community settings, depending on the course design and purpose of the exercise. However, MCs have not been widely practised in undergraduate (UG) interpreting classes due to administrative and pedagogical challenges. However, it is believed that immersing UG students in situated learning of MCs would greatly benefit them, in addition to their usual class sessions. To address this, a UG interpreting course on Conference Orgaznisation and Preparation for Interpreters (COPI) was designed. It covers the basics of interpreting professions and skills for UG students and incorporates the benefits of situated learning of event organisation, meeting preparation and MCs at the end of the semester in the format of MCs. Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, the emergency lockdown halfway through the semester posed an extra challenge by turning all class activities online, including MCs. A semi-structured questionnaire was given to participants at the end of the two MCs, and the feedback was positive. Many participants enjoyed exploring different roles and tasks during the event organisation and appreciated the complexity and significance of meeting preparation in bilingual communication for language professionals. The study found that careful planning beforehand was vital to the success of an event, but flexibility, teamwork, and collaboration were needed to deal with unexpected situations onsite. Overall, the study hopes that by sharing the course design and implementation of COPI for non-major students, it will offer space to explore further development of interpreting teaching and learning for students with different aspirations and strengths.

Keywords: situated learning, online mock conference, undergraduate interpreting training, conference orgaznisation

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探索大學口譯教學結合線上模擬會議

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口譯研究所課程中常有的模擬會議，是讓學生將所學之口譯技巧付諸實際演練。模擬會議的形式取決於課程設計和練習目的，如多語會議的同步口譯，商務會議的逐步口譯或社區情境的雙邊口譯，但一般大學部非翻譯系的口譯課程常鑒於課程及行政因素，模擬會議並不多見。然而在大學部口譯課中，除了課堂教學之外，若把模擬會議的情境學習納入其中，相信應對學習大有裨益。為此，我們設計了會議籌辦與譯前準備課程（Conference Organisation and Preparation for Interpreters，簡稱 COPI），除了教授基本口譯技巧，還融合了情境學習來引介會議籌辦和譯前準備，在期末以模擬會議的形式來落實學習的成效。但學期進行中遇上新冠肺炎的緊急封鎖，迫使所有教學活動，包括原本的實體模擬會議變成線上教學及會議。在兩次期末的線上模擬會議結束之後，我們發放了一份半結構性的網路問卷來收集參與學生的意見，學生大都表示肯定。許多學生也表示他們喜歡在會議籌備過程中探索不同角色和任務，並且瞭解到在雙語溝通中，會議準備對於口譯員的重要性和複雜度。研究也發現，會前規劃攸關活動成敗，現場各種突發狀況則需彈性、團隊合作及配合。本研究希望透過分享 COPI 課程的設計與實施，提供探索口譯教學更寬廣的面向，來兼顧及激發學生不同的志向和潛能。

關鍵詞：情境學習、線上模擬會議、大學部口譯培訓、會議籌辦

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Introduction

Career preparation has always been central to conference interpreter training. Being "booth-worthy" used to be a key criterion for professional bodies such as the European Commission's Directorate-General for Interpretation to determine whether a novice interpreter was competent to join the profession (Peng, 2004). The same concept has also shaped the pedagogical philosophy of one of the oldest and reputable interpreting schools such as the Faculty of Translation and Interpreting (FTI) at the University of Geneva, formerly known as ETI, which emphasized producing graduates who could perform at the level comparable to that of their professional colleagues in the simultaneous interpreting booth (Komatsu, 2017, p. 19).

One of the most natural and direct approaches to achieving this goal is to immerse students in conference settings after acquiring the basic skills and knowledge of interpreting to facilitate and consolidate their learning. By participating in simulated meetings and conferences, student interpreters can put their acquired knowledge and skills into practice. Therefore, mock conferences (MCs), which simulate an actual conference, are an ideal setting for interpreting students to benefit from situated learning and have been adopted by interpreting schools at all levels (González-Davies & Enríquez-Raído, 2016; Kiraly, 2005; Li, 2015; Pan, 2016; Risku, 2016).

MCs can take various forms and modes, such as simultaneous interpreting for a multilingual conference, consecutive interpreting for an invited speaker, or bilateral interpreting for community settings, depending on the course design and exercise's purpose. The interpreter training circle has extensively reported and discussed relevant course designs, applications, and various testified pedagogical benefits of MCs (De Laet, 2010; Gillies, 2013; Ju, 2021; Li, 2015; Lin et al., 2004; Tsuruta & Naito, 2011). For many valid reasons, most MC studies focused on

adopting MCs to enhance simultaneous interpreting learning in postgraduate (PG) or undergraduate (UG) interpreting programmes. However, the incorporation of MCs into UG courses for non-major students to benefit students' learning of different modes of interpreting, such as consecutive interpreting, leaves ample space for further investigation, which is the aim of the current study.

To contextualise the pedagogical considerations for the current study, it is essential to recognise the dramatic changes in human communication brought about by COVID-19, one of the most notorious pandemics in the 21st century. Conventional face-to-face activities, such as meetings and classroom teaching and learning, have been forced to adapt to online formats in response to the long months of lockdowns to contain the pandemic outbreaks worldwide. Against this backdrop, plus the emergency nationwide lockdown of all onsite teaching and learning activities during the first significant surge of COVID cases in Taiwan in 2021, the study reports on the implementation of a contingency course design to retain all the vital elements in the interpreting course reported in this study as meaningfully and effectively as possible to engage students in interpreting learning.

The challenge of conducting online MCs presents a valuable opportunity for both the trainer and the students to explore practical possibilities, collaborate, and reflect on the process collectively to achieve the goal of social constructive learning (Kiraly, 2000). In summary, this study aims to share experiences of incorporating online MCs in a non-major UG interpreting course and explore the possible pedagogical benefits.

Mock Conferences as Situated Learning

Competence development is a key goal in education across various fields, including translation and interpreting. In the past two decades, the perspective on

competence in this field has evolved from an "information process" to "situated cognition" (Risku, 2002). This shift underscores that acquiring knowledge and skills for interpreters goes beyond linear, classroom-based learning. Instead, it flourishes through social interaction in multilingual and multicultural settings, offering interpreters rich opportunities to deepen their learning. Interpreting is a "situated" activity that benefits from collaboration with various stakeholders — fellow interpreters, speakers, audience members, technicians, and organisers. Without summative assessment pressure, MCs provide an ideal platform for autonomous and cooperative situated learning (Brown et al., 1989), and such a collaborative nature aligns with Kiraly's (2005) project-learning approach, where learning is experiential (p. 1102).

MCs have emerged as effective pedagogical tools in PG interpreting programmes, widely recognised for their educational benefits. Simulating real work scenarios, as in MCs, also enhances students' decision-making and coping strategies in interpreting tasks (Klein & Hoffman, 1993). The value of authentic settings in interpreter training is well-documented, with studies highlighting their importance in skill development (Conde & Chouc, 2019; De Laet, 2010; Gillies, 2013; Setton & Dawrant, 2016). Alexeeva and Snutova (2010) suggest that experiencing the stress of working in front of a real audience is one of the most efficient approaches in interpreter training (p. 14). The exposure to interpreting in MCs, whether simultaneous or consecutive, focuses on developing diverse skills for different modes and encourages self and peer assessment. Facing a real audience in controlled challenges boosts confidence, encourages autonomous learning, and facilitates expertise development (De Laet, 2010, p. 254). This project-based situated learning allows students to feel active in the learning process, an essential element in translation and interpreting teaching (González-Davies, 2004, p. 15).

Mock Conferences in Action

Over the past two decades, interpreting trainers and researchers have significantly integrated MCs into interpreting training to optimise pedagogical benefits. Setton and Dawrant (2016) provide tips for incorporating MCs at advanced levels, suggesting a biweekly schedule with active student preparation (p. 39). However, institutional variations exist; for instance, many PG interpreting programmes in the UK, as listed in the AIIC School Directory,[1] regularly host multilingual MCs for simultaneous interpreting and bilingual MCs for consecutive interpreting. In Leeds and some other PG interpreting schools in the UK, for example, based on the researcher's personal experiences and observations as an interpreting trainer in those programmes, trainers and trainees collaboratively organise these conferences, with one trainer acting as the chairperson. Native speakers are recruited from diverse sources, with English or Chinese students often serving as speakers, and speakers from smaller language groups, such as Portuguese or Italian, are sourced from assistants or interested PhD students. Recruitment of speakers and trainers occurs at least a week before the meeting, allowing ample preparation time, and financial compensation is provided. Notably, resource levels and arrangements differ across programmes and courses.

Locally, the organisation of MCs varies due to differing administrative resources. Ju's (2021) survey on MC arrangements in interpreting programmes revealed administrative challenges requiring substantial instructor involvement. Ju studied practicum course syllabi from seven PG interpreting schools in Taiwan (2016-2017), noting various experiential learning forms like internships, dummy-

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[1] The AIIC School Directory, a global database by the International Association of Conference Interpreters (AIIC), lists interpreter training programmes without endorsing or accrediting them. While offering information for aspiring interpreters, AIIC emphasises high training standards and encourages students to evaluate programmes carefully. See https://aiic.org/site/dir/schools

booth practices, invited talks, MCs, and role-play activities. Four out of seven schools held occasional formal MCs with invited speakers, but not regularly (Ju, 2021, p. 13). More popular scenarios included "mini-conferences," where invited speakers gave talks, students practised simultaneous interpreting from class booths, and "role-plays," where students played different meeting roles (Ju, 2021, p. 14). Maximising pedagogical benefits through MCs demands integrated planning efforts under diverse local circumstances and constraints.

Community of Practice

MCs also serve as a gateway to forming a community of practice, a well-established educational concept as described by Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner (2015), that "communities of practice are groups of people who share a concern or a passion for something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly" (p. 2). In MCs, participants such as the audience, speakers, fellow interpreters, experts, and trainers provide constructive feedback, aiding students in skill improvement and shaping their professional identities (Tsuruta & Naito, 2011). González-Davies and Enríquez-Raído (2016) emphasise that situated learning stresses presenting knowledge authentically, fostering learning through project work, and prompting reflection on cognitive needs (p. 8). Effective learning requires social interaction and collaboration, necessitating teaching adaptation to the specific "community of practice." De Laet (2010) argues that, unlike traditional interpreting classrooms using speeches out of context, the situated learning dimension in MCs offers simulations that replicate conference stages for contextualised experiences (p. 254). In multilingual MCs, students practice interpreting and experience it from the customer's perspective, enhancing their well-rounded learning (Conde & Chouc, 2019, p. 2). As Li (2015) concludes, MCs serve as valuable pathways bridging classroom and professional realities (p. 338).

Online Mock Conferences

Running MCs for UG interpreter training has proven challenging because of administrative constraints, and the sudden COVID-19 lockdowns added extra challenges. However, Schwarz's team states that online meetings offer advantages over physical ones (Schwarz et al., 2020). Digital platforms and online chatrooms facilitate real-time interaction, overcoming geographical and temporal constraints without extra costs (Biernacka, 2018). Nonetheless, Braun (2007) touches upon specific challenges and adaptations needed for interpreting in videoconferences.

Undeniably, the COVID-19 pandemic has significantly impacted human activities, prompting adaptations in interpreting courses. Remote and hybrid meetings, prevalent during the pandemic, offer interpreting students new learning opportunities in online conferences (Ju, 2020, 2021). However, online interpreting classes require distinct setups, and organising conferences online presents unique pedagogical considerations. A recent report from the University of Cologne's MA course in Conference Interpreting identified drawbacks like the absence of non-verbal communication and immediate eye contact in remote learning (Ahrens et al., 2021, p. 273). The study's context coincided with Taiwan's first wave of COVID-19 lockdowns in mid-2021, necessitating an urgent adaptation of the syllabus for online teaching. Unlike PG interpreting training, UG interpreting courses cater to students with varying proficiency levels and needs (Peng, 2017, 2022). Despite this heterogeneity, UG students in the study shared the motivation to learn about conference organisation and meeting preparation for interpreters. This motivation led to the project recording and reporting the process of applying online MCs, encouraging situated and cooperative learning in the community of practice, and exploring new terrain in online interpreting teaching and learning for UG communities.

Experiential Learning

Adopting MCs in an UG course aims to involve students in organising conferences and preparing for meetings, enabling them to experience the entire process and achieve learning goals. According to D. A. Kolb's (1984) experiential learning model, "learning is the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience" (p. 38). Effective learning involves four stages: (a) experiencing a task; (b) reflecting and observing; (c) forming abstract concepts; and (d) applying concepts to new situations (A. Y. Kolb & Kolb, 2005; D. A. Kolb, 1984). This cyclical process fosters continuous learning and growth, providing a framework for understanding how interpreting students progress through MC organisation and meeting preparation. Engaging in various tasks, reflecting on experiences, and observing others in similar settings enhance understanding and skill development. This iterative cycle, aligned with Kiraly's (2000) social constructivist approach, empowers participants to proactively collaborate on authentic tasks, addressing the needs of speakers, the audience, interpreting colleagues, and logistics teams for a successful conference.

Undergraduate Interpreting Training

PG interpreting programmes have influenced UG interpreting courses to incorporate MCs for a more immersive learning experience. Apart from some UG courses primarily catering to translation and interpretation (T&I) majors, more courses are now offered to non-majors from language programmes who seek T&I skills. Over 100 language departments in Taiwanese universities offer UG interpreting courses, targeting non-majors with varying language proficiency levels. Many of these courses are focused on language enhancement and are

usually taught by language instructors instead of interpreter trainers (Ju, 2014; Peng, 2017). However, interpreting skills are often mistakenly treated as language exercises, emphasising equivalence-matching between two languages. Meanwhile, language graduates are socially expected to act as mediators in cross-language communication, which requires basic interpreting skills to be done effectively. Therefore, non-major interpreting classes should encourage students to acquire basic T&I skills and develop an understanding of T&I as a profession (Naimushin, 2002).

Nowadays, students actively seek project-based learning, immersing themselves in simulated scenarios for enriched experiences. This holds true for students acquiring basic interpreting skills. Unlike using MCs to test PG students' interpreting skills to the full extent, the purposes and setup of integrating MCs into the course design focus on allowing students to experience meeting scenarios — from initial preparation to event delivery — and explore various roles, including moderators, speakers, interpreters, and event organisers.

Due to administrative and pedagogical challenges, there is limited discussion on setting up MCs for non-major UG interpreting classes. One significant hurdle is choosing the interpreting mode. While PG programmes focus on simultaneous interpreting, non-major UG students may find consecutive or dialogue interpreting more suitable. Addressing these challenges and designing courses and activities based on students' skill levels is essential for incorporating MCs and promoting engaged learning (Ju, 2021, p. 29).

We addressed challenges in organising MCs for non-major UG interpreting to achieve these objectives. We empowered students to organise bilingual conferences where genuine interpreting services were needed collaboratively. These opportunities showcased the crucial function of interpreting beyond language exercises and equivalence findings.

Aims

The study aims to share the experiences and pedagogical implications of organising and running online MCs in an elective interpreting course for non-major UG students. The course was introduced to incorporate experiential and situated learning to deepen students' understanding and appreciation of conference organisation and the importance of meeting preparation for interpreters as part of professional learning.

Through planning and presenting their online MCs due to COVID lockdowns, the study attempts to document students' participation and reflections through online questionnaires to understand better how they interact with one another. Joint debriefing after the MC also allowed participants from all ends to exchange their observations and immediate reactions to the whole process.

The trainer, also a professional conference interpreter and thus an experienced member of the community of practice, served as a situated learning facilitator, encouraging dialogues and learning among students taking different tasks and roles through the online MCs.

In summary, unlike most MCs organised to facilitate training for PG interpreting training on-site, the study aims first to record and report how online MCs for non-major UG students were initiated, organised, and operated via joint efforts among the study participants. Through scaffolded guidance and steps with weekly tasks, interactions among individuals would help foster team spirit for autonomous learning in the community of practice. In addition, we believe it is vital to extract pedagogical implications by collecting and analysing feedback and reflections from participants within 48 hours after the event takes place to capture the most authentic reactions and close observations of various critical issues from their experiences.

Method

Settings: Conference Organisation and Preparation for Interpreters Course

This exploratory study reports results from the participation of 13 UG students in an elective course on Conference Organisation and Preparation for Interpreters (COPI) to address our research objectives. The course is an integral part of the university-level T&I curriculum, designed to introduce students to the field's landscape and provide basic skills in translation and interpreting. The overall curriculum aims to spark interest in the discipline, though only very few will pursue advanced training and a professional career in this area.

The COPI course, in particular, aims to encourage students to apply what they have learned in other interpreting classes, such as public speaking, consecutive interpreting, and meeting preparation, and experience how conferences and meetings are organised in reality. Through situated learning as proposed, we hope that this hands-on approach reinforces their learning and inspires students to explore relevant career paths. The COPI course was a semester-long elective with two contact hours per week, catering to UG students with varying levels of exposure and proficiency in interpreting and translation training.

According to the initial course plan, the MCs for the COPI course were scheduled for on-site sessions in weeks 16 and 17 of the 18-week semester. In preparation, students spent the first ten weeks learning about various types of meetings and the fundamentals of conference organisation while also practising key aspects of meeting preparation, such as background research and glossary building. Initially, the pandemic's impact on teaching and learning in Taiwan was minimal. However, as we introduced various meetings and conferences during the preparatory

stage, discussions naturally turned to remote interpreting and online conferences, given technological advancements. The possibility of conducting the MCs online wasn't seriously considered until global lockdowns and educational disruptions occurred. The eventual implementation of lockdown measures in Taiwan became inevitable. Consequently, after discussing the feasibility of transitioning their MCs to an online format with students, a consensus was reached to adopt a completely different setup. Active participation and proactive engagement from the participants in planning and implementing their proposed MCs became crucial.

Participants

Among the 13 UG students, nine were seniors, and four were juniors; all consented to this study during the COVID-19 lockdowns. While most participants (12) belonged to the same language department, one came from a non-language background. All participants had prior experience in one or two interpreting classes, such as Introduction to Interpreting Skills, Introduction to Consecutive Interpreting, and Sight Translation, but displayed different levels of language proficiency and preparedness for interpreting tasks. In addition, individual temperaments also played a part when they needed to collaborate closely to either organise a meeting or offer interpreting services for the meeting. Some preferred working behind the scenes, while others enjoyed challenges under the spotlight. Despite the heterogeneous nature of the participants, the small group size facilitated comprehensive engagement in teaching and learning, fostering closer bonds among participants and promoting collaborative learning throughout the project.

Online Mock Conference Orgaznisations

The acquisition of conference organising skills was one of the learning objectives for participants enrolled in the course, with all activities and tasks

aligned to this primary goal. Under the guidance of the trainer, the participants learned to take ownership of every aspect related to the mission of organising a conference and delivering interpreting services accordingly.

In typical Taiwanese PG interpreting programmes, students at various levels would be allocated different tasks, such as having first-year students serve as conference organisers and second-year students fulfil interpreting roles (Ju, 2021, p. 26). Yet, such an approach was not feasible for the present study. To facilitate the MC organisation involving 13 participants in the same class, students were divided into two distinct groups: one group comprised six participants, while the other seven. For the first MC, one group (Group A) assumed the role of organiser, responsible for coordinating and managing the event. At the same time, the other (Group B) functioned as the team of interpreters tasked with providing interpretation services, as illustrated in the following table (Table 1). The roles were then interchanged for the second MC, allowing each group to experience event organisation and interpreting responsibilities.

Table 1

Arrangements of Online Mock Conferences

Week	Theme of the MC	Orgazniser	Interpreters	Platform
16	A Thousand Miles Away (inspiring stories of overseas exchange)	Group A	Group B	Zoom
17	E-Travel (Tesla & Gogoro)	Group B	Group A	Google Meet

In defining the MC format, both groups agreed upon incorporating essential roles such as a meeting moderator and two speakers delivering presentations (one in Chinese and the other in English). A dedicated question-and-answer (Q&A) session was held following the presentations to encourage active interactions between the online audience and the speakers. In addition, consecutive interpreting

was deemed the appropriate mode of interpretation for several reasons. Firstly, all participants had yet to receive training in simultaneous interpreting. Secondly, the technical, financial, and administrative challenges associated with providing online simultaneous interpreting services exceeded the capacity of our current setup.

The participants agreed that Chinese and English would be the conference's working languages. This decision aimed to attract a broader audience of speakers of both languages and offer opportunities for the participants to practice interpreting in both directions. In summary, the MCs would use English and Chinese, with consecutive interpreting employed to facilitate bidirectional communication.

The selection of MC themes was a collaborative process within each organiser group, involving brainstorming, proposing, discussing, debating, and ultimately reaching a consensus. One of the primary criteria considered when choosing a theme was its potential to attract a significant audience, ensuring a wider reach for the conference. At the same time, the chosen theme had to be within the organisers' realm of confidence and competence, enabling them, particularly the speakers, to effectively address questions and feedback from the audience during the Q&A session.

The allotted duration for each MC was approximately 80 minutes, ensuring a timeframe of fewer than 100 minutes (i.e., two sessions of university classes) to accommodate unforeseen technical delays or unexpected circumstances. It was also imperative to allocate sufficient time for the interpreters, enabling them to deliver their services without undue time constraints.

Additionally, the organising group had the autonomy to determine the platform's opening time and establish audience engagement strategies before the MC started. In essence, the organisers were responsible for managing the overall time and workflow of the event, from its initiation to its conclusion, while

collaborating closely with the interpreting team to ensure seamless integration of interpreting services throughout the conference. An example of an event rundown of the MC on E-travel is shown as Figure 1.

Figure 1

Event Rundown of Online Mock Conference on E-Travel

時間 TIME	活動內容 TASKS	講者及主持人 speaker & moderator	口譯 linterpreter	口譯替補 standby
10:20	口譯員進場 Interpreters ready			
10:40-10:50	介紹：講座、講者、籌辦團隊、口譯員 Intro - theme/speakers/interpreters	Queenie(ZH)	Emily	Lyra
10:50-11:00	互動小遊戲、串場 Interaction games	Ruby(ZH)	Lyra	Christine
11:00-11:15	To Go or Not To Go? Gogoro	Enya(EN)	Christine	Eric
11:15-11:20	中場休息 Break	Ruby(ZH)	Ricky	Emily
11:20-11:35	特斯拉真的值得嗎？Is Tesla worth it?	Jonathan(ZH)	Alice	Jessica
11:35-11:40	串場 connecting sessions 講座總結 Meeting summary	Ruby(ZH), Judy(ZH)	Emily	Lyra
11:40-11:45	Q&A	Judy(ZH), Jonathan(ZH), Enya(EN)	Ricky Lyra	Emily Christine
11:45-12:10	觀眾Q&A互動時間（看狀況延長時間） Extended Q&A if needed	Ruby(ZH), Jonathan(ZH), Enya(EN)	Jessica Eric	Ricky Alice
12:10	結束會議 Meeting finish	Ruby(ZH)	Eric	Alice

Note. From Group B's internal preparatory notes for conference organisation.

To prepare students for online interactions and introduce potential platforms for their MCs, we dedicated ample time and resources to familiarise them with two popular platforms: Google Meet and Zoom. Both platforms were selected for their accessibility and availability, not only for the students but also for their intended audience. The students' first-hand experiences and feedback in organising or interpreting using either of the two platforms were subsequently examined and discussed during post-conference debriefing sessions and through questionnaires.

Overall, the students had around two weeks to organise their conferences, which involved selecting a theme, allocating roles and responsibilities within their teams, and promoting their events through physical posters on campus (Figure 2) and online publicity via social media and mailing lists. Additionally, both teams implemented online registration to facilitate interested participants signing up for the conference and began engaging with the audience one week before the event.

Figure 2

Posters of Online Mock Conferences

Note. Internal preparatory notes for conference organisation from Group A and B.

Interpreters were given about one week to prepare for the meeting. The organisers provided them with the speakers' presentation files, which contained concise content (three content slides per speaker) rather than lengthy texts. A key glossary was also shared to help the interpreters prepare for the presentations and a subsequent Q&A session. These arrangements aimed to ensure the students' active

participation in the conferences while highlighting the importance of adequate preparation for interpreters in their conference-related tasks. It was vital to note that the students encountered situations requiring prompt attention and spontaneous responses during the live conferences.

Online Questionnaires

In our case, as in other experiential learning programs, reflection is crucial (D. A. Kolb, 1984), mainly when participants invest significant time and effort. Semi-structured questionnaires were designed to help collect qualitative reflections, balancing between structured and open-ended questions. They provided in-depth insights, captured diverse perspectives, and identified emergent themes while allowing flexibility in data collection.

To collect comprehensive feedback efficiently and effectively from all participants, two online questionnaires were developed via Google Forms: one for the organisers and the other for the interpreters (see Appendix A and Appendix B). Following the completion of the first mock conference, the questionnaires were immediately sent to all participants in both teams of organisers and interpreters. They were to be completed online within 48 hours after the conferences, ensuring the participants' impressions and reflections were fresh and their motivation to share experiences remained strong. Notably, despite variation in the MC topics, the responses collected to address the research questions remained consistent, thereby not affecting the results.

The questionnaires served as guidance to facilitate students' reflection on the tasks they had just accomplished. Subsequently, after the second conference, where the two teams of students exchanged their roles and tasks, the process of sharing the questionnaire link was repeated.

The questionnaires used in the study consisted of six sections, which covered

various aspects of the process of online MCs. Section one recorded basic information about the participants, while the second section focused on their reflections on teamwork within their teams and with other participants. Section three investigated individual efforts and performances before, during, and after the MCs. Section four targeted their participation and reflections as an interpreter or an organiser. Section five recorded their evaluation of the meeting organisation or interpreting services. Finally, section six allowed participants to provide overall reflections and feedback on the learning process.

To make the questionnaire process more engaging, the researcher added a hint of humour to some of the questions. For example, a part of section three explored the participants' coping strategies during the MCs, and one of the options was "my inspiring professor," which reminded participants of the diverse interactions they had during the process. It is important to note that the wording of some questions in the online questionnaire was intentionally designed to be inviting and engaging, to encourage student participation. However, it is understood that such an approach may have inadvertently influenced the direction of responses. Moving forward, a better balance between engagement and neutrality in question design should be aimed to allow for a broader range of feedback. In short, the questionnaires were valuable in helping us understand how students responded to their learning experiences throughout the process.

Results

Through the questionnaires and debriefings after the events, we hope to gain reflections from the participants taking different roles and from different perspectives to form a comprehensive picture of how the experiences of online MCs impacted and facilitated students' learning overall.

Online Platforms: Zoom vs. Google Meet

Section one of both questionnaires (questions five to ten) invited participants (both the organisers and the interpreters) to reflect on their experiences using the online platforms for their virtual MCs. They would have experienced both Zoom and Google Meet by the end of the MCs. Table 2, as follows, shows the collective observations of the pros and cons of the platforms from both groups.

Table 2

Comparisons of Online Mock Conference Platforms: Zoom vs. Google Meet

Platforms	Zoom (exchange experiences)	Google Meet (E-vehicles)
Shared features	-Accessible via mobile phones, desktops and laptops. -Supporting audio, video, and text communication -Free plans available (with limitations) -Screen sharing -Messaging (chat box) -Virtual backgrounds available -Meeting recording	Enhancing Chinese community status and introducing Singaporean Chinese literature to local Singaporeans who are either not of Chinese ethnicity or still learning Chinese.
Pros	-More host controls -Similar to Microsoft Teams -Waiting room -Supporting local download of the recording	-Online platform ready without extra downloads -Many Google account users -Meeting recording on Google Drive
Cons	-30-40 minutes for up to ten people for Zoom accounts in Taiwan -Need to download a Zoom programme	-Only for Google account holders -The free plan allows 60 minutes for up to 100 participants
Solutions	Opted for the paid plan	Inserted a meeting break to avoid system cut-off

It was a valuable experience for both teams to tackle technical challenges together, fostering mutual understanding and compromises within their team and with the other team. The shared features between the two platforms were evident, aiding the teams in successfully executing their tasks of hosting an online MC with

interpreting services. The organisers focused on functions that would help them engage with the audience and collaborate effectively with the interpreters. Meanwhile, the platforms needed to support the interpreters in ensuring seamless collaboration with the organisers, including a steady flow of video and audio input and output. This would enable them to clearly receive messages from the speakers and provide their interpreting services effectively.

Each platform's specific advantages also enable the organisers to orchestrate their events to their expectations. For instance, the waiting room feature of Zoom allowed the organisers to take in participants in stages so that they could interact with the interpreting team for pre-event discussion before officially opening the platform for the intended audience. Google Meet, likewise, offers the convenience of using the platform online without downloading a separate programme, provided all participants have Google accounts. The organisers could also save the event recording on Google Drive without lengthy local downloads.

On the other hand, complaints regarding both platforms centred around limitations in meeting capacity and the time restrictions imposed by their free plans. For example, Zoom only offered 30 minutes for a meeting of up to ten people for accounts registered in Taiwan, while Google Meet allowed 60 minutes for up to 100 participants. However, neither plan was ideal for the organisers' needs in conducting their online MCs. Ultimately, Group A, which was responsible for the exchange experiences meeting on Zoom, opted for the paid version. Group B, handling the conference on electric vehicles via Google Meet, strategically incorporated a meeting break to effectively manage the 60-minute time constraint.

Both teams of organisers were also proactive in leveraging the technological advantages to engage with their audience. They encouraged participation in various ways, including inviting meeting participants to leave questions in the chat box of Google Meet for better interactions. Table 3 includes some of the questions raised by the audience in the chat box for Group B speakers on electric vehicles.

Table 3

Selections of Audience Questions in the Chat Box of Google Meet (Group B)

Questions for Gogoro	Questions for Tesla
@enya gogoro 要多久保養一次？ (How often does a Gogoro need maintenance?)	@J 請問特斯拉起步加速的速度會較其他車緩慢嗎？ (Does a Tesla accelerate slower than other cars?)
@enya 不知道休息時間能不能留言！針對剛剛的講解我想請問一下，聽說保養很麻煩，請問具體到底要怎麼做？ (I'm not sure if I can leave a message during break time! Could you clarify how maintenance is done? I heard it's quite troublesome—what exactly is involved?)	@J 特斯拉是不是不太推薦開長途？動力來源跟冷氣或是導航都是用電，會不會開沒到很久就要去充電？ (Is a Tesla suitable for long trips, considering that power, air conditioning, and navigation all use electricity?)
@enya 還有也想請問在顯示沒電了需要充電之前，還能騎多少里程數或時間？ (Before the battery goes flat, how many kilometers or how long can you still ride?)	@J 想請問如果在未來其他車廠製造電動車的技術更成熟後，你還會考慮購買特斯拉嗎？為什麼呢？ (If other manufacturers develop better EV technology in the future, would you still consider a Tesla? Why?)
@enya 什麼時候買 Gogoro 好呢？ (When is the best time to buy Gogoro?)	@J 在電動車普及之前，現在會推薦買油電混合的汽車嗎？ (Would you recommend a hybrid car instead before EVs become common?)

Additionally, the audience was invited to participate in an online feedback session at the end of the MCs to gather real-time insights (see Appendix C). According to student questionnaires, Group A's session on exchange studies attracted 24 participants to their Zoom meeting, while Group B's focus on electric vehicles engaged 11 active participants. Despite the smaller audience, Group B's discussion and interaction were positive and energetic. Figure 3 and Figure 4 show samples of audience feedback collected by Group B via Google Forms.

Figure 3

Example of Audience Feedback on the Conference Collected by the Organiser (Group B)
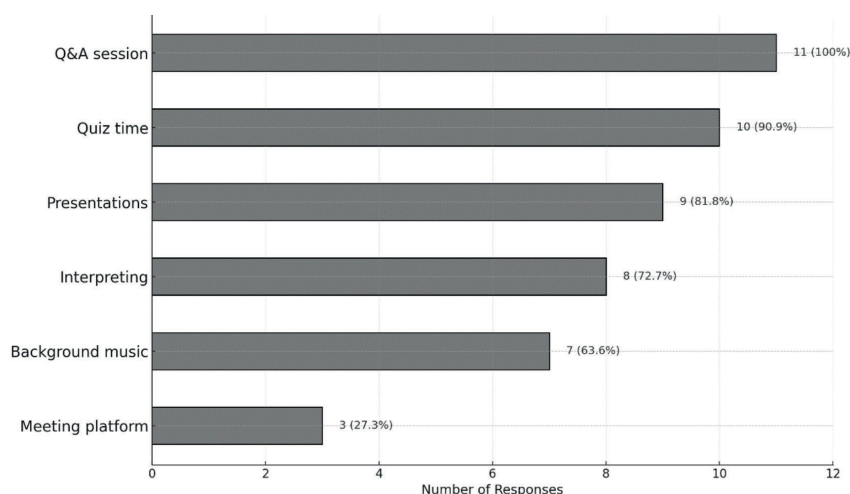
Note. From the results of the questionnaire for organisers via Google Forms.

Figure 4

Example of Audience Feedback to Speakers Collected by the Organiser (Group B)

「講者台風穩重，但內容有點淺」
"The speakers sounded calm, but the discussion lacked depth."

「講者的口條都很流利！內容也很豐富，在 QA 的部分也回答得很好 ，主持人們也不慌不亂的主持得很流暢～辛苦大家了」
"Speakers were fluent, informative and answered questions very well. The moderators did well and stayed calm."

「報告內容很容易就能聽到重點，讓原本對事項沒有那麼瞭解的人也能聽懂，而且問答部分也都回答得很詳細」
"The presentations were informative and questions were answered properly."

「很喜歡能用自身經驗和觀眾分享的講者，很棒」
"I like speakers sharing with us their experiences. It was great."

「講者的內容整體給人滿滿的誠意，都是基於自己的真實的主題有充足的認識經驗及準備，獲益良多」
"The speakers were clear and seemed to have done a lot of preparation. Very useful sessions."

Note. From the results of the questionnaire for organisers via Google Forms.

It is evident that students approached their projects with seriousness and dedication. The audience feedback assisted them in evaluating and validating their efforts effectively. In short, the ability to deliver their performances online, which presented a comparatively unfamiliar and challenging terrain compared to traditional classroom interactions, required a significant amount of teamwork, exploration, trial and error, and creative problem-solving.

Teamwork: Communication and Collaboration

Section two of the questionnaires (questions 11-13 for organisers, 11-12 for interpreters) explored teamwork dynamics, communication, collaboration, conflict resolution, and post-conflict solutions when organising online MCs.

Despite different missions in meeting organisation and interpreting services, both groups presented a unified front to the audience, underscoring the importance of their partnership. Regarding communication challenges, organisers reported a major issue with the confusing flow of information. Although a designated manager was established for streamlined communication, instances of individuals bypassing the system caused unnecessary confusion.

Interpreters expressed event-specific concerns, such as the lack of joint rehearsals, last-minute changes to the agenda, and uncertainties about the event flow and presentations. To address these uncertainties, interpreters proactively prepared by creating glossaries individually and as a group and extensively researching unfamiliar topics like electric cars to enhance their readiness for interpretation sessions.

In group collaboration and communication, interpreters and organisers had distinct concerns. Interpreters faced challenges related to work rota arrangements (i.e., deciding who would interpret for which speaker and in what format during each session of an MC) and meeting preparation (e.g., sharing the task of compiling glossaries). Consensus among interpreters was often reached through voluntary

task assignments, occasionally requiring compromises. One interpreter noted that although the team tried to divide tasks fairly, unexpected changes such as the addition of an interactive session during the MC, disrupted their schedule and therefore required a high level of flexibility (participant 5). Few others had similar reflections on these challenges but acknowledged that "Despite the occasional unfair task allocation, we managed to accomplish our mission as a team, and everyone was happy" (participant 4).

Communication and collaboration challenges within organiser teams centred on commitment and event organisation specifics. Both organiser groups (A&B) faced difficulties finding time for collective work. Some members treated online MCs as mere "pretend" sessions, lacking serious engagement. This perception hindered effective collaboration, as some viewed the task as routine classroom activities, while others recognised its complexity and aimed for an authentic conference experience. This understanding gap led to a lack of commitment and impeded efficient communication.

Fortunately, a few individuals in each group initiated the clarification and sharing of their understanding of the mission, resulting in a consensus on time for collaborative project work. Disagreements within organiser groups regarding conference organisation specifics, including meeting agendas, event promotions, audience engagement, and online flow control, were efficiently and effectively resolved through discussion.

Individual Effort and Performances

Section three in both sets primarily focused on participants' reflections on their learning process during online MCs. It covered pre-event, during-event, and post-event phases, prompting participants to document and reflect on roles, tasks, individual preparation, self-evaluation of performance, and other essential aspects.

Questions were tailored to the distinct experiences of organisers and interpreters. Interpreters reflected on meeting preparation's impact on their interpreting during MCs, while organisers focused on adherence to roles and specific tasks. The common questions aimed to capture unforeseen crises during conferences and their resolution. Participants were also asked to evaluate performances and provide plausible reasons for the outcomes.

Pre-Event Preparation

Interpreters emphasised critical aspects of meeting preparation, focusing on content, languages, and situational readiness. Regarding content, interpreters acknowledged the importance of background knowledge and subject-matter expertise. One interpreter highlighted anticipating audience questions during Q&A sessions to avoid being caught off guard. Another shared practice is interpreting for an imaginary audience to envision the speaker's content. For the technical topic of electric vehicles (e.g., Tesla cars and Gogoro scooters), interpreters extensively researched online, exploring official websites, YouTube videos, and discussion forums to enhance their understanding. Figure 5 demonstrates interpreters' proactive use of online resources alongside materials from organisers for meeting preparation.

Regarding languages, both groups emphasised the creation of bilingual glossaries for meetings, encompassing proper names and topic-specific expressions. Interpreters thoroughly searched for technical terms related to car parts, functions, and specifications. Some recommended incorporating set phrases for specific speech genres, such as welcome speeches, to enhance their effectiveness. Additionally, a few interpreters recognised the value of practising in front of a mirror to control pace and facial expressions, aiming to project a relaxed and confident demeanour on camera. One interpreter, for example, mentioned practising to avoid appearing nervous in front of the camera and deliberately speaking more slowly.

Figure 5

Materials for Interpreters' Meeting Preparation
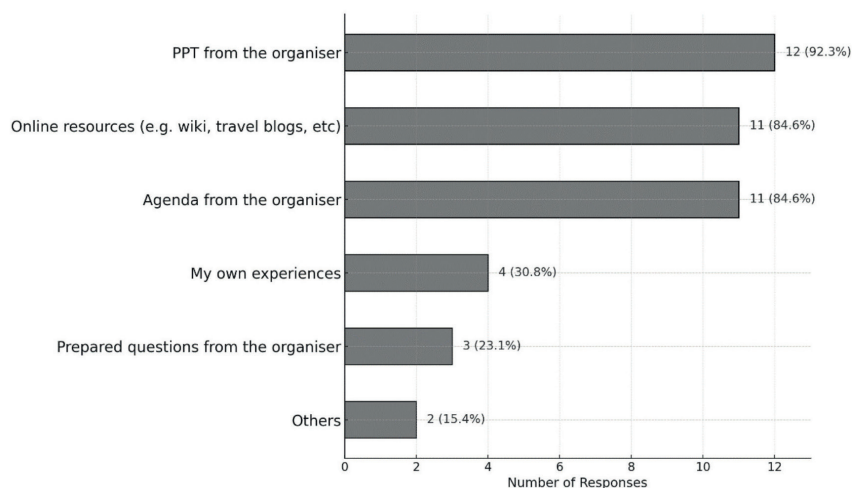
Note. From the results of the questionnaire for interpreters via Google Forms.

Organisers concentrated on event organisation, assigning distinct roles such as moderator, speaker, or team manager to each member. Interestingly, roles like publicity officer and technical officer were shared among team members; for instance, seven individuals shared the publicity officer role, and nine out of 13 shared the technical officer role. This sharing of roles involved the strategic distribution of tasks related to their roles, ensuring the successful execution of the event. Responsibilities such as designing posters, advertising the event, and engaging with the audience were distributed across the organising team, extending beyond the specific roles of publicity and technical officers. One speaker detailed his tasks, which included preparing a concise speech, ensuring clear communication, sharing his screen during the online session, and engaging with the audience. In preparation, he reviewed slide contents, drafted the conference agenda, and promoted the event on social media by sharing the poster.

During-Event Actions and Reactions

We observed how interpreters and organisers handled plans and crises during the online MC. Before going online, over half of the students (7/13) in both groups described feeling nervous but composed. Organisers (5/13) tended to be calm, while one felt unusually energetic. Interpreters faced higher stress levels, with two fearing they might faint. Understandably, their roles brought different stressors. Interpreters had to interpret unseen speeches on camera. Organisers worked as a team to manage the event's flow and engage the audience.

Interpreters prioritised key skills such as understanding the message, clear and confident delivery, and effective stress management. Their focus included grasping ideas (9/13), using correct terms (4/13), and note-taking for details (2/13). Language usage, glossary consultation, and delivery techniques were highlighted, emphasising a natural and confident on-camera presence.

Reported crises included challenges like long speeches, technical glitches, last-minute changes, and moments of panic. Interpreters coped by allowing situations to pass or assisting colleagues, employing strategies like paragraphing when terminology posed challenges. Despite facing unexpected difficulties, ten out of 13 expressed positive sentiments and appreciation for their experiences in online MCs.

In summary, interpreters' experiences in online MCs underscored their dedication to interpreting skills, including capturing the message, clear delivery, stress management, and effective use of supporting materials. They stressed language use, proper terminology, and delivery skills, recognising the importance of mental agility and prepared glossaries. Despite encountering challenges, interpreters demonstrated resilience and mutual support. Overall, these experiences offered valuable insights into the demanding nature of the interpreter's role, with many expressing positivity and appreciation for exposure to online MCs.

The actions of organisers during the event varied based on their responsibilities. Moderators and speakers focused on language expressions, fluency, and being camera-ready, ensuring interpreter-friendly speeches. Technical and publicity officers managed workflow, audience interaction, and engagement, handling tasks like playing music and monitoring the chat box. Team managers oversaw interpreter communication, ensuring seamless interactions among speakers, moderators, and the audience, contributing to effective communication, smooth workflow, audience engagement, meeting management, and time monitoring.

Unexpected situations served as learning opportunities. For example, a contingency plan was in place when a speaker's laptop crashed; the moderator shifted the Q&A session while a teammate shared a backup presentation. Time-keeping challenges were adeptly managed, with speakers and moderators shortening contributions when needed. Miscommunication with interpreters led to one intervention needing translation, resulting in an early finish, and the team extended the break slightly, adhering to the plan for the second half. In summary, effective coordination and communication among organisers were crucial for the events' success.

Post-Event Evaluation

The reflections of interpreters and organisers provide crucial insights for further exploration. The questionnaires prompted them to evaluate various aspects of their experiences, including their coping strategies and potential obstacles to their performance.

How to Survive the MC

Both groups highlighted "my preparation," "teammates' support," and "my inspiring professor" as critical reasons for their success across both groups.

Interestingly, they unanimously identified the course instructor as a significant moral support, indicating a solid reliance on and trust in their professor, particularly during moments of confusion and crises.

Figure 6

Views of Organisers and Interpreters on Surviving the Mock Conference
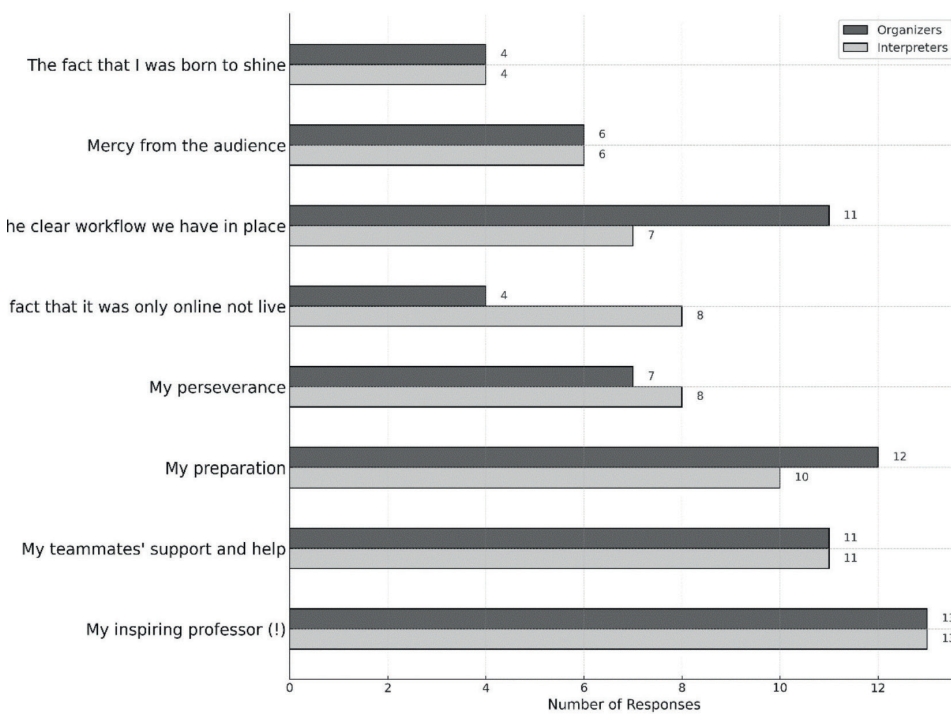
Note. From the results of the questionnaire for organisers via Google Forms.

Figure 6 present the views of organisers and interpreters on surviving the MC. Both groups ranked "teammates' support" higher than their preparation, indicating that the online MCs offered an ideal platform for teamwork to take its most substantial effect. Notably, all organisers (13/13) attributed their success to the support of their teammates. They also emphasised the significance of a clear workflow in running a successful MC. At the same time, interpreters (7/13) did not

prioritise it as much, given their role as one element among many for organisers to manage. Notably, over half of the interpreters (8/13) indicated that "perseverance" and the conference being "online" were significant factors contributing to their successful performances. In other words, interpreters appreciated individual perseverance and perceived the online format as a protective shield, reducing the vulnerability they might have felt in an on-site setting.

Factors Affecting Interpreting Performances

When reflecting on interpreting services and factors that may hinder interpreters from performing at their best, it became evident that interpreters and organisers held divergent views (Figure 7).

Figure 7

Views of Organisers and Interpreters on Factors Affecting Interpreting Performances
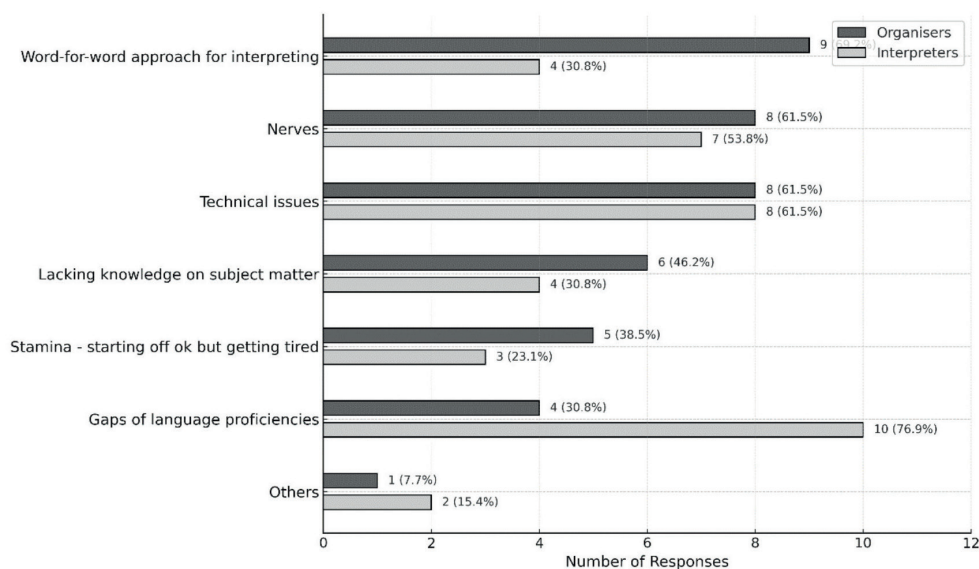
Note. From the results of the questionnaire for interpreters via Google Forms.

Most interpreters (10/13) believed that a gap in their language proficiencies was the primary factor affecting their performances, while only a few organisers (4/13) agreed with this assessment. Additionally, more than half of the interpreters (7/13) mentioned that nerves significantly affected their performances, and the organisers (8/13) were empathetic to such challenges facing their interpreting colleagues.

On the other hand, the organisers identified other issues that they believed to be influential in interpreting performances. Alongside nerves and technical problems (8/13), a more significant number (9/13) of organisers pointed to the word-for-word interpretation approach as contributing to less successful performances. They also suggested that interpreters would benefit from better stamina and a deeper understanding of the subject matter, yet only a few interpreters shared these observations. In other words, novice interpreting students tended to attribute their interpreting challenges to the lack of language proficiencies and stage fright, while colleagues going through similar learning seemed able to be more specific in identifying factors affecting their colleagues' performances from various aspects other than being generalising all problems as language problems. In summary, organisers and interpreters held differing perspectives on the factors contributing to less-than-satisfactory interpreting services.

Space for Improvement

After examining factors that influenced their performance, interpreters were asked to identify potential areas for improvement in question 25. Most interpreters (10/13) identified two areas for enhancement: terminology preparation and proficiency in English. Additionally, many interpreters (8/13) believed that increased familiarity with "relevant expressions related to the speaker's topic" and "enhanced skills in handling numbers and facts" would be beneficial.

The MC served as a valuable learning experience, allowing interpreters to recognise their areas of weakness and focus on skill refinement. Considering that English was the weaker working language for this cohort of interpreters, it was understandable for them to pinpoint it as a critical area for improvement. Furthermore, the appropriate use of specific terminology is crucial in interpreting, as it facilitates effective and efficient communication between experts and enhances the interpreters' confidence and credibility by making them sound like professionals in the field under discussion.

Moreover, mastering "relevant expressions" and "numbers and facts" cannot be overstated, as these elements pose significant challenges to interpreters. Besides understanding specific terminology or jargon, interpreters must also be familiar with the language expressions in a particular field. A lack of familiarity could lead to significant struggles for interpreters. Similarly, statistics and facts, often crucial to discussions on technological advancements and applications, require a specific skill set to handle appropriately. Effective note-taking skills and incorporating information into their interpretation require deliberate practice and strategic planning, which may be lacking in the initial stages of learning. Hence, it is understandable why interpreters would identify these elements as areas for further improvement. In conclusion, this introspective exercise has helped raise students' awareness of the areas that need further effort to become more effective interpreters.

General Feedback and Reflections

Among the six sections of the questionnaires designed for both interpreters and organisers, the study emphasises investigating individual efforts, experiences, and performances. Most questions, specifically questions 15-24 for interpreters and 13-27 for organisers, target these key areas. The final segment of both

questionnaires aims to gather students' reflections and feedback to gain deeper insights into their perspectives and learning experiences throughout the process. Both groups were prompted to reflect on their enjoyment of working within the team and were given space to elaborate further if they wished. Additionally, interpreters were encouraged to contemplate how the various interpreting skills they acquired in class contributed to their performance in the MCs and identify areas for improvement. These reflections on the MCs offer invaluable feedback for refining teaching and learning strategies.

Interpreters' Reflections

Figure 8

Interpreters' Enjoyment of Teamwork
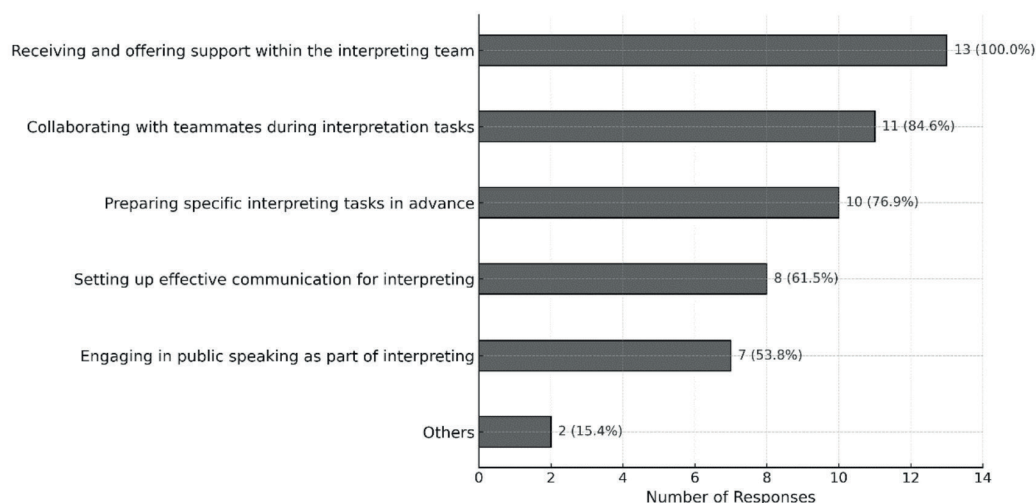
Note. From the results of the questionnaire for interpreters via Google Forms.

As shown in Figure 8, when working as a team of interpreters, students suggested that they enjoyed offering teammates timely support (13/13), completing the project as a team (11/13), and preparing for and delivering the services as

planned (10/13). Many (8/13) enjoyed coordination and communication tasks such as liaising with colleagues and the organisers, and more than half (7/13) enjoyed "talking to people under the spotlight." In other words, despite the stress of being interpreters, the teamwork needed and carried out helped boost their appreciation of one another to complete a joint project, especially during crises.

When asked to comment on the application of valuable skills in interpreting the MCs, most students (10/13) emphasised the importance of conveying the message accurately, effectively, and naturally rather than relying solely on word-for-word tactics often mistaken for translation. Some (5/13) noted that prioritising message conveyance helped alleviate stress and enhance their fluency in interpreting. Additionally, note-taking emerged as a valuable technique, aiding in capturing essential information and aiding memory recall, a sentiment echoed by many (7/13). However, they also acknowledged the need for further practice to cover details in their notes comprehensively.

Some students (6/13) reported struggles with unfamiliar terminology and highlighted how their prior preparation proved instrumental in overcoming this challenge. Regarding delivery, a significant portion (8/13) expressed the need to boost self-confidence to exude composure. They also noted that projecting confidence on camera for an online audience presented a distinct challenge from onsite interactions. Furthermore, they underscored the critical role of interpreter confidence in instilling trust and credibility. A few students also emphasised the importance of effective communication between conference organisers and interpreters in their reflections. They recognised the necessity for improved coordination and clear communication channels to ensure seamless interpreting services.

Organisers' Reflections

Figure 9

Organisers' Enjoyment of Mock Conference Organisation
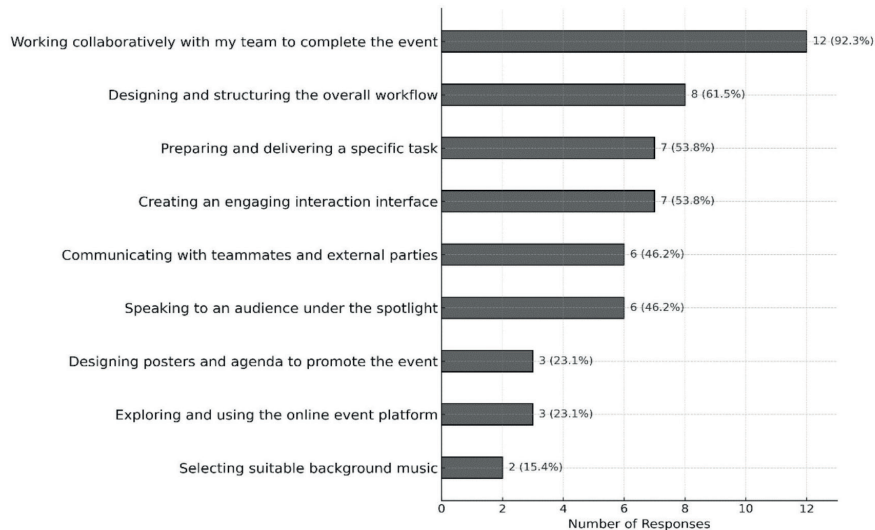
Note. From the results of the questionnaire for organisers via Google Forms.

In Figure 9, the organisers reflected on the most enjoyable aspects of organising the online MC. Nearly all of them (12/13) expressed that the collaborative aspect of completing a project with the team was their most significant source of enjoyment. Following closely behind was the satisfaction derived from "designing the workflow for the project to take shape" (8/13). Additionally, they found pleasure in preparing for a task and delivering results, even in the face of nerves. They also enjoyed refining communication interfaces to be pleasant but efficient and effective (7/13). While more specific aspects of event organising, such as publicising the event, designing posters, or exploring the platforms where online MCs took place, received fewer mentions, these tasks provided individuals with unique opportunities for learning and development in areas they may not have considered.

When the organisers were invited to comment further on their experience organising online MCs, their responses revealed a remarkably positive outlook, marked by a deep gratitude for their challenges. Some commented, "The final project was quite challenging, but I enjoyed the preparation process. It was nice to work with my amazing teammates, and it was great to challenge myself to do something I had never done before" (participant 3).

Despite the undeniable complexity, time constraints, and demanding nature of the tasks, the organisers viewed them as opportunities for personal and professional growth. They remained committed to the process even when faced with occasional conflicts within their teams, sometimes resulting in disagreements and frustration. These experiences offered valuable insights into the demands of the service industry and the complexities of collaborative work.

Interestingly, few of them discovered unexpected enjoyment in seemingly minor aspects of the project. For instance, one student found great satisfaction in efficiently managing email communications with various individuals. Throughout their reflections, the organisers consistently expressed a deep appreciation for the support and guidance provided by their course teacher. As graduation approaches, there is a palpable sense of loss as they anticipate the end of these meaningful experiences. For instance, one commented, "I am enjoying all these processes, but I think after graduation, I will miss them very much" (participant 8).

In conclusion, the reflections provide valuable insights into their development as interpreters, which help trainers identify areas for improvement and tailor their instruction to support students better to enhance their interpreting skills. By addressing the emerging themes, trainers can create a comprehensive and effective training programme that prepares students for the challenges of the interpreting profession.

Discussion

Through data analyses on how our UG non-major students organised online MCs and provided interpreting services as a form of situated learning, four key themes emerged: anxiety and concerns, collaboration in the community of practice, learning never stops, and finding one's roles and strengths. These themes highlight the challenges and opportunities students face as they navigate the complexities of event organization and interpreting within an online environment. For instance, anxiety and concerns highlight the emotional hurdles students encounter, such as managing expectations and handling unforeseen issues. Collaboration underscores the importance of peer support and the collective effort required to succeed in such a setting. The theme of continuous learning reflects the ongoing nature of skill development, crucial in adapting to dynamic, real-world scenarios. Finally, discovering roles and strengths emphasises the journey of self-discovery and the potential for students to explore careers in conference management or interpreting. We will discuss these four categories in detail, offering insights into how each contributes to students' experiential learning and future career considerations.

Anxiety and Concerns

Undoubtedly, the start of online interaction and learning could be very confusing, as that format was unfamiliar to trainers and students (Ahrens et al., 2021, p. 273). For instance, limited non-verbal clues such as eye contact would weaken participants' communication. During online MCs, participants would use multiple channels in addition to the online platforms, such as text messaging and social media, to stay in touch with one another and stay on top of their varying tasks. Such multitasking can also be distracting and exhausting, as research has shown that texting during lessons increases cognitive load (Ahrens et al., 2021, p. 253).

In addition, unexpected technical issues could incur delays and compromise performances. However, the participants were positive overall about the platforms (i.e., Zoom and Google Meet) for their online MCs. This may be since both groups put in a lot of effort to prepare ahead of time by finding ways to work efficiently and effectively with their respective platforms. They worked around any inherent limitations or challenges and rehearsed diligently to avoid any foreseeable problems before their big shows. Interestingly, Ahrens et al. (2021) also found that despite security concerns, Zoom was an ideal platform for online teaching and remote interpreting (p. 251).

As observed, although online communication among part-takers was less immediate and required extra effort, the setting of being online nevertheless seemed to offer a buffer for young interpreting learners. They would not need to deal with the frustration or embarrassment (if there was any) in person or under public gaze directly, which helped to lower the level of anxiety and lessen stage fright to a certain degree. The technology also allowed the recording of the entire online MC session, which allowed students to review their performances and form valuable reflections and lessons. Relevant studies suggest that recording students' interpreting performances through video can be a potent tool to promote self-assessment, peer assessment, and targeted teacher feedback. This enables students to recognise their strengths and weaknesses more effectively, enhancing their awareness of quality-related issues (Kurz, 2002; Tsuruta & Naito, 2011, as cited in Li, 2015).

Collaboration in the Community of Practice

Organising online MCs provided a valuable platform for students to engage collaboratively in various stages. They autonomously organised meetings from the outset, making joint decisions on conference topics, agendas, and labour divisions.

Event organisation encompassed preparation, on-stage and behind-the-scenes teamwork, publicity, and audience engagement. Students shared the workload on a jointly agreed plan, resulting in positive learning experiences. These situated learning opportunities allowed participants to form a Community of Practice (CoP) through joint efforts toward shared goals, ensuring the success of online MCs. Within this context, a CoP refers to a group of individuals with a shared interest or profession, in this case, interpreter training. The MCs create a collaborative learning environment where participants collectively engage in activities that mirror the real-world challenges they will face.

The post-event debriefing of online MCs also aligns seamlessly with the principles of CoP and situated learning as described previously. The debriefing sessions serve as a platform for the community to share insights, experiences, and knowledge, fostering a sense of belonging and shared expertise. Situated learning emphasises the importance of learning in context, and MCs provide a situated setting for interpreter training. The simulations replicate interpreters' authentic challenges, immersing them in realistic scenarios. This hands-on experience enhances the learners' ability to apply their skills in practical situations. The debriefing sessions further enhance situated learning by encouraging participants to reflect on their experiences within the specific context of interpretation, helping to bridge the gap between theory and practice.

In essence, the combination of MCs, debriefing sessions, and Community of Practice and Situated Learning principles creates a rich learning environment. It promotes skill development and nurtures a sense of community among interpreters, facilitating the sharing of knowledge and expertise within the specific context of their profession.

Learning Never Stops

The participating students of the study have also derived significant learning from organising and executing their online MCs. Engaging in planning, decision-making, and execution, the learning cycle becomes a dynamic framework for their education. Post-event reflection allows them to analyse performance and implement lessons learned in subsequent conferences, creating a continuous feedback loop. The collaborative nature of this process emphasises joint efforts, enhancing teamwork, and exposing them to diverse perspectives. Simultaneously, individual growth is fostered, encompassing technical skills, critical thinking, and adaptability. This experiential learning approach bridges the gap between theory and practice, preparing students comprehensively for the challenges of their future interpreting careers.

In addition, developing professionalism, psychological insight, and strategic skills, along with non-linguistic dimensions like interpersonal skills, problem-solving, negotiation, resourcefulness, and reflection, heavily depends on the context (Fernández Prieto & Sempere Linares, 2010). They argue that these skills are best honed through context-specific practice. It is not as easy in traditional classrooms to create such context, and MCs offer an ideal platform for such learning (Pan, 2016, p. 122). Pan (2016) also reports that students believe they learned more from MCs than in usual classroom sessions (p. 122). Likewise, Kiraly (2000) identifies that MCs help students increase their confidence and enhance their interpreting performances and are ideal for facilitating cooperative learning. Such combinations are crucial to social constructivism in situated learning.

Li (2015) adds that students' positive perceptions in MCs directly correlate with their interpreting participation frequency (p. 334). Active engagement in well-designed and organised conferences boosts students' empowerment. Despite

benefits, Li (2015) highlights a significant drawback, with over half of his participants citing "limited chances of practice" as a substantial obstacle in MC efficacy (p. 336).

During the study, it was found that although not all interpreters got the same amount of time to interpret during the two MCs, it did not lead to any complaints from the participants. This was because there were diverse motivations within the group that helped to mitigate this limitation. Some students preferred online chat interaction, while others found accomplishment in ensuring event flow. It is noteworthy that online MCs for interpreting students provide a positive learning experience, allowing for continuous skill development.

In addition to the primary objectives of the study, it is important to recognize its role in customer education. By involving the non-major interpreting students with COPI and MCs, the study not only deepens their understanding of interpreting and conference organisation but also prepares them to become informed users of these services in the future. This firsthand experience will foster a greater appreciation for the complexities and challenges of the profession.

Finding One's Roles and Strengths

The study also reveals that students have benefited greatly through online MC organisation and practice, especially in identifying their strengths and enthusiasm via playing different roles during the process. For instance, some students enjoyed working under the spotlight either as interpreters or moderators, while others appreciated opportunities to work behind the scenes to facilitate the workflow of the events. Li (2015) argues that professionalism, psychological and strategic competence, and non-linguistic elements would be better acquired in MCs than in regular interpreting classes (p. 339). Well-organised MCs also encourage confidence-building and authentic learning overall.

To conclude, the online MCs in this study provided a platform for students to engage and partake in the entire conference. Despite the absence of face-to-face interactions in physical conferences, virtual exchanges have become a prevailing norm today, especially after two years of restricted movements due to COVID lockdowns. Feedback gathered through Google Forms and the online debriefing sessions involving the participants facilitated dynamic discussions and fruitful learnings. These exchanges prompted students to reflect on their strengths and weaknesses, further understanding their progress and future career trajectories.

Conclusions

The project explored the benefits of using online MCs for non-major interpreting students during COVID lockdowns. Recognising the need to adapt our training practices to the new norm of online meetings, we created a safe and supportive learning environment through online MCs. This environment allowed students to develop their skills and confidence and explore their strengths and potential in addition to interpreting. It has also helped expand our understanding of why MCs are valuable in interpreter training by adding to the existing theoretical basis and as suggested by Li (2015), providing real-life examples of their effectiveness.

The COPI course in this study also offered unique opportunities to contextualise students' understanding of meeting organisation and professional interpreting services. Simulating the experience of interpreting in a meeting gave students a better understanding of the effort required to provide quality interpreting services. This understanding improved their preparation for future interpreting work and fostered greater respect for the profession.

Moreover, our findings and approach could inspire further research into online

MCs as a training tool and contribute to developing more efficient and effective interpreting training methods. Our project offered valuable learning experiences and contextualised students' understanding of interpreting work. It explored how online MCs can benefit non-major interpreting students during COVID lockdowns and in situations where face-to-face interactions are less likely. For instance, students' exploration and feedback regarding applying the two readily accessible online platforms, Zoom and Google Meet, for organising online MCs may serve as a valuable guideline for educators and students interested in similar arrangements to enhance interpreting learning and teaching. It would also be useful to investigate how the results of this online teaching study compare with findings from other offline interpreting teaching practices. Analysing the similarities and differences between the two, online and offline interpreting instruction, will benefit interpreting schools and educators in selecting the most appropriate teaching model.

As a researcher examining the use of online MCs for non-major interpreting training, it is essential to acknowledge the limitations of this project. Firstly, the sample size used in the study may not have been large enough to generate comprehensive observations and patterns. Additionally, the study's specific trainees and online context may not be transferable to other online contexts. However, the focus on enhancing the learning of the specific group of participants was valuable and provided insightful results that can be applied in similar online contexts.

One notable strength of the study was the use of the action research approach. By collaborating with participants and continuously evaluating online MCs as a training tool, the study allowed for changes and improvements over time. This iterative process is precious for interpreting training, where feedback and improvement are crucially intertwined.

Regarding data collection, student feedback and reflections were subjective

but valuable approaches. While this method may have limitations, it provided realistic and rich observations of the effectiveness of the training method. Nevertheless, the study could have been enhanced by involving a wider range of participants and incorporating diverse data collection methods, including interviews or focus group discussions. This approach would have enriched the findings and increased their applicability.

In reflection, the study's limitations serve as a reminder that research in interpreting training should always consider the context and limitations of the sample size, especially in the context of online MCs. However, the study's results demonstrate the value of using online MCs as a training tool for non-major interpreting training and highlight the importance of the action research approach in interpreting training research online.

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Appendix A

Questionnaire for Organisers

Meeting Preparation – Organisers (Online)

1. Email _____

2. Name (English & Chinese)_____

3. Student number _____

4. We organised
    ☐ Exchanges/Experiences
    ☐ E-Vehicles

5. Platform
    ☐ Team
    ☐ Google Meet

6. 3 advantages of the chosen platform are:

7. 2 (or more) disappointments of the platform are:

8. How many rehearsals have you gone through? What kind of 'bugs' have you found about the platform during the process? Solutions?

9. What were the potential worries of the platform for the D-day?

10. On the D-day, the platform supported us to (list at least 3 major functions)

11. On the D-day, we had few technical scares (list 2)

Teamwork

12. What had been the biggest challenges of communicating within the team (name 2 or more)

13. Biggest challenges of communicating with the Interpreters (name 2)

14. Where were the difficult decisions for our team during the process and the consensus reached (2 examples)

Individual work

15. My main role in the team this time is
    ☐ Moderator
    ☐ Speaker
    ☐ Publicity officer
    ☐ Interpreting manager
    ☐ Technical officer
    ☐ Others

16. I also shared some work in (select all that apply)
    ☐ Moderator
    ☐ Speaker
    ☐ Publicity officer
    ☐ Interpreting manager
    ☐ Technical officer
    ☐ Others

17. The major tasks of my ROLE (name 3)

18. Before the event, what exactly did I do to prepare for my tasks (name 3)?

19. Right before the event, I felt
    ☐ properly nervous, but I could still hold myself together.
    ☐ cool as a cucumber.
    ☐ strangely high as a kite.
    ☐ so petrified that I would pass out any minute.

20. During the event, I was trying to focus on (name 2 tasks)

21. During the event, what were the unexpected challenges and my reactions to them (name 2)

22. After the event, I would say that my performance was a (1-7): _____
    Tragedy (1); Triumph (7)

23. I survived ok, nonetheless, thanks to (select all that apply)
    ☐ my preparation
    ☐ my teammates' support and help
    ☐ my perseverance
    ☐ the fact that it was online not face-to-face
    ☐ the clear workflow we have in place
    ☐ the fact that I was born to shine
    ☐ mercy from the audience

☐ my inspiring professor (!)

24. If I may express special thanks to one of my teammates, who would that be and why.

The interpreters

25. With regard to the interpreting services today, I would give their team a (1-7): _____
Tragedy (1); Triumph (7)

26. What had they done very well in (name 2 areas), that we could learn from them for next time?

27. Factors that might affect their performances (select all that apply)
☐ Nerves
☐ Word-for-word approach for interpreting
☐ Lacking knowledge on subject matters
☐ Gaps of language proficiencies
☐ Technical issues
☐ Stamina – starting off ok but getting tired later
☐ Insufficient preparation on terminology and expressions
☐ Others

28. If you are to choose TWO of the most impressive interpreters, who would that be and why? What do they have in common and how do they differ?

To conclude

29. By organising our very own online event, I have learned that I enjoyed very much (select 3)
☐ Working with my team to complete the project
☐ Preparing for a specific task and delivering it bravely despite the nerves
☐ Designing the workflow for the whole project to take shape
☐ Liaising with teammates and publicising the event
☐ Designing the poster/agenda to attract audience
☐ Exploring the online platform and identifying ways to meet our needs
☐ Providing background music during the participant arrival period
☐ Creating a smooth, efficient, and engaging interaction interface
☐ Speaking to people under the spotlight.

30. All in all, I'd also like to add...

Thank you for organizing such a great event!

Appendix B

Questionnaire for Interpreters

Meeting Preparation – Interpreters (Online)

1. Email _____

2. Name (English & Chinese)_____

3. Student number _____

4. We organised
   ☐ Exchanges/Experiences
   ☐ E-Vehicles

5. Platform
   ☐ Team
   ☐ Google Meet

6. As interpreters, we find the platform (1-5)
   _____
   Almost impossible to use (1)
   Worked like a dream (5)

7. It would be better if it could support (name 2)

8. Our potential worries of the platform (name 2)

9. On the D-day, the platform supported us to (list at least 3 major functions)

10. On the D-day, the technical scares from the platform are (list 2)

Teamwork

11. What were the biggest challenges of communicating with the organiser this time and the what were the final solutions? (name 2)

12. What were the very difficult decisions to make within our team during the process and what kind of consensus did we reach at the end? (2 examples)

As an interpreter

13. What were my assigned speaker & session and what's the language direction? (into English or into Chinese)

14. To prepare for the meeting as an interpreter, I assumed that my session would be about… (a short summary)

15. To prepare for the task as an interpreter, what kind of preparation and details did I make and cover? (list 3 at least)

16. Materials available to me for preparation (select all that apply)
    ☐ PPT from the organiser
    ☐ Agenda from the organiser
    ☐ Prepared questions from the organiser
    ☐ Online resources (Wiki/Travel blogs, etc)
    ☐ My own experiences
    ☐ Others

17. What were the other materials and did you make a glossary list?

18. Glossary. If you made a glossary, please upload it here.

19. Right before the event, I felt (choose one)
    ☐ properly nervous, but I could still hold myself together.
    ☐ cool as a cucumber.
    ☐ strangely high as a kite.
    ☐ so petrified that I would pass out any minute.

20. When my show time was on, what did I have with me? (select all that apply)
    ☐ Notepad
    ☐ Pens
    ☐ Glossary
    ☐ Other documents I prepared
    ☐ Nerves
    ☐ Brains (some)

21. During my interpreting session, I was trying very hard to focus on (name 2 tasks)

22. During the event, what were the unexpected challenges and my reactions to them? (name 2)

23. After the event, I would say that my performance was a (1-7): _____
Tragedy (1); Triumph (7)

24. Factors to prevent me from performing my best are (select all that apply)
☐ Nerves
☐ Word-for-word approach for interpreting
☐ Lacking knowledge on subject matters
☐ Gaps of language proficiencies
☐ Technical issues
☐ Stamina – starting off ok but getting tired later
☐ Others

25. I thought I've made all the necessary preparation for the task, but during and after the meeting, I realised that I needed to put more work in (select all that apply)
☐ Relevant terminology
☐ Relevant expressions on the topic covered by the speaker
☐ My skills in dealing with numbers and figures
☐ My Chinese needs more work than I thought
☐ My English was fluent, but it crumbled so easily.
☐ Managing my nerves, as they prevented me from doing my best.
☐ I underestimated the importance of preparation for this meeting.
☐ Others

26. I survived ok, nonetheless, thanks to (select all that apply)
☐ my preparation
☐ my teammates' support and help
☐ my perseverance
☐ the fact that it was only online not face-to-face
☐ the clear workflow we have in place
☐ the fact that I was born to shine
☐ mercy from the audience
☐ my inspiring professor (!)

27. If I may express special thanks to one of my interpreting teammates, who would that be and why?

The organiser

28. With regard to the organiser today, I would give their team (1-7)_____
Tragedy (1); Triumph (7)

29. What did they do very well (name 2 areas), that we could learn from them when we organise another event again.

30. If I am to choose TWO of the most impressive team members from them, who would that be and why? What do they have in common and how do they differ?

To conclude

31. By working in the team of interpreters today, I have learned that I enjoyed very much (select all that apply)
☐ Working with my team to complete the project
☐ Preparing for the task and delivering the service as planned
☐ Liaising with teammates and the organiser to make sure we have the right materials to work with
☐ Supporting my teammates when they need me
☐ Talking to people under the spotlight
☐ Others

32. Which skills that we have covered in class this semester have helped you the most in this meeting as an interpreter? What are the skills that you would like to spend more time improving in the future?

Thank you again for the great interpreting service!

Appendix C

Post-Mock Conference Questionnaire for

Audience From Group A

Ten Thousand Miles Away From Home
（線上講座意見回饋表單）

感謝您今天的參與！邀請您撥空完成這份問卷，讓我們下次更進步！
我們也會選出三位送您精美小禮物！

Email：＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

1. 是否為外文系學生？ □是　□否

2. 整體來說，對於此次講座的滿意程度
　 □非常滿意　□滿意　□普通　□不滿意　□非常不滿意

3. 您認為本次會議的流暢度
　 □非常滿意　□滿意　□普通　□不滿意　□非常不滿意

4. 演講的資訊內容，有幫助到您嗎？
　 □有　　□無　　□其他

5. 想要對講者／舉辦方說的話：
　 ＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿
　 ＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

口譯實作意見回饋

6. 針對這次講座中口譯員進行的雙語翻譯，請給出您寶貴的意見！
　 我們將針對您的回饋改進！

7. 整體來說，對口譯員的滿意程度
　 □非常滿意　　□滿意　　□普通　　□不滿意　　□非常不滿意

8. 今天講座中的口譯翻譯，有幫助到您理解演講內容嗎？
　 □有　　□無　　□其他

9. 給口譯員的建議：
　 ＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿
　 ＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

Differences of Strategies Applied in English-Portuguese and English-Chinese Translations: From a Cultural Translation Perspective

Yuxiong Zhang

Translation studies often discuss the challenges posed by the lack of equivalents between cultures. It is widely believed that translation is frequently hindered by culture-specific items (CSIs) that exist between languages of different origins. This study analyzes 105 sets of translations of furniture-related terms from IKEA's websites using a corpus-based approach and a triangulation of quantitative and qualitative methods. The aim is to identify differences in translation strategies between English to European Portuguese and English to Chinese. CSI translation strategies, including foreignization, neutralization, and domestication, proposed by different authors, are used in the analysis. The data indicates that foreignization is more commonly utilized in translations from English to Chinese, while neutralization strategies are more frequently employed in Portuguese translations. While it may be possible to retain certain words with specific cultural references when translating between languages that share a similar culture background, such as English and Portuguese, this approach cannot be accepted in Chinese translations. Due to the distinctive grammatical structure of the Chinese language, it may be necessary to provide supplementary semantic information or even create new words in order to accurately translate certain CSIs in English into Chinese. This study illustrates how different writing systems can affect translation strategies and procedures for translating cultural references.

Keywords: cultural translation, culture-specific item, foreignization, neutralization

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英葡與英漢翻譯策略的差異：
基於文化翻譯視角的分析

張宇雄

不同文化之間所存在的不對等性是翻譯研究中常討論的問題。普遍認為，不同語源間存在的文化特定詞（culture-specific items, CSIs）是翻譯中存在的一大難題。本研究以語料分析為基礎，通過質性和量性的方法分析了在「宜家家居」（IKEA）網頁上所擷取的 105 組英文—歐洲葡萄牙語及英文—中文的對應翻譯。 研究目的係分析英葡及英中翻譯策略上所存在的差異。本研究在分析過程中採用了不同作者提出的，包括異化、中立化和歸化三個方面的 CSI 翻譯策略。研究結果表明，異化策略在英譯中時更為常用，而在英譯葡方面，中立化策略則使用得更多。在相似文化背景下的語言之間，某些具有特定文化資訊的詞語可以被完整保留，例如英語和葡萄牙語，但這並不適用於英譯中的情況。由於中文獨特的語法結構，可能需要透過補充額外的語義資訊，甚至創造新詞，才能將英文文化特定詞彙準確地翻譯成中文。本研究說明了在翻譯文化特定詞的過程中，不同的書寫系統透過不同的方式影響翻譯方法和翻譯策略。

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Introduction

In the context of contemporary globalization, translation undoubtedly builds a bridge between disparate languages, providing a channel of communication for different people from distinct cultural and geographic backgrounds. Despite the remarkable advancements in technology and the incremental improvements in machine translation, language barriers persist in certain circumstances, particularly regarding the translation of culture-related items. Such issues emerge due to the lack of equivalence, information loss or additions, and disparate grammatical constructions between different languages (Amenador & Wang, 2023). Indeed, globalization happens with its concurrent phenomena—localization and translation play an indispensable role in promoting both globalization and localization by recognizing the value of other cultures and the limits of local culture. Rather than leading to the destruction of local culture, the process of globalization enables a local culture to link to outside cultures, enhancing its growth. Consequently, cultural unacceptance can result in cultural inaccessibility. It is therefore evident that indigenous or local knowledge is crucial to successful cultural translation through negotiating an acceptable cultural discourse in the target language background (Sun, 2009).

In the field of translation, the translatability of culture into a language of other cultural roots has always been discussed. Nida and Taber (1982) defined such kind of translation "in which the content of the message is changed to conform to the receptor culture in some way, and/or in which information is introduced which is not linguistically implicit in the original" (p. 199) as "cultural translation." During the process of cultural translation, it is widely acknowledged that the barriers of non-equivalences of culture-specific items (CSIs) are unavoidable (Baker, 1992). In other words, translation has been consistently challenged by cultural differences,

which have resulted in the modification of concepts over time as a consequence of globalization (Sun, 2009).

A CSI does not merely refer to an object, but also carries a distinctive concept and meaning related to a specific culture. However, the determination of which word or expression should be considered as a CSI is not always explicit. When the community of the target language shares a similar cultural background or the specific cultural phenomenon has already been assimilated into the target culture, the word or expression may not be perceived as a CSI by the target recipients (Amenador & Wang, 2023; Terestyényi, 2011). According to Aixelá (1996), CSIs possess an intuitively recognizable concept themselves and can only be identified in "a source text which, when transferred to a target language, poses a translation problem due to the nonexistence or to the different value (whether determined by ideology, usage, frequency, etc.) of the given item in the target language culture" (p. 57). Thus, the author elected to eschew the definition of the concept in question and stated, "authors avoid any definition, attributing the meaning of the notion to a sort of collective intuition" (Aixelá, 1996, p. 57). While posteriorly Newmark (2010) proposed a theory of six categories of CSIs, namely "ecology," "public life," "social life," "personal life," "customs and pursuits" and "private passions" (pp. 174-177). Aixelá (1996) simply divided CSIs into two main categories, namely, "proper nouns" and "common expressions" (p. 59).

Translation Strategies

Two fundamental approaches to translating CSI were proposed by Venuti (1995), who introduced the strategies of "foreignization" and "domestication." The term "foreignization" is employed to preserve the cultural distinctiveness of the source text, namely, the foreign text, which may impede comprehension by the

target-language reader (Olk, 2013). According to Sun (2009), "foreignization" with minimal localization in many third-world countries can be viewed as Westernization and/or globalization. In such a situation, cultural translation is situated in a global context, aiming to extend external references and prompt cross-cultural communication. As for "domestication," this translation strategy emphasizes the proximity to the target culture with the minimization of foreign characters in source text through the replacement of these elements with items that are familiar to the target readers (Olk, 2013). Additionally, a proclivity towards greater explicitness in translation can be "a sign of localization rather than domestication" (Sun, 2009, p. 100), since localization entails a transformation that incorporates local customs, particularities, and details. Nevertheless, it is also believed that these two approaches represent two extremes of strategies that can be applied in cultural translation and intermediate alternatives between "foreignization" and "domestication" are advised (Hervey & Higgins, 1992).

For decades, scholars have proposed a multitude of strategies based on different starting points, cultural backgrounds, and translation theories. Some of the representative examples from recent times include Amenador and Wang (2023), Davies (2003), Marco (2019) and Olk (2013). In analyzing the translation solutions of the world-renowned book series *Harry Potter*, Davies (2003) identified seven strategies employed to address CSIs in the narrative, which were constructed upon authentic British cultural references: preservation, addition, omission, globalization, location, transformations, and creation. Similar to the procedure designated as "repetition" by Aixelá (1996) and "cultural borrowing" by Hervey and Higgins (1992), "preservation" is a strategy based on the process of lexical borrowing. However, simple preservation may result in obscurity, and the addition of short attributes and modifiers can be a solution to maintain the original item, which is defined by Davies (2003) as "addition." In contrast,

"omission" is the procedure to omit ambiguous CSIs in the target language. The term "transformations" is used by the author to indicate subjective modifications that were determined by the translator, editor, or even the target audience. With regard to the concepts of "globalization," "localization," and "creation," they correspond effectively to "universalization," "naturalization," and "autonomous recreation" proposed by Aixelá (1996).

From Aixelá's (1996) procedure of "limited universalization," which transfers a CSI from the source text into the target text with the maximized maintenance of source-culture identity was named by Olk (2013) as "transference." By adding supplementary information and denotative explanations to the transference, arise two other strategies, namely "transference explicitation" and "transference explanation." In accordance with Olk (2013), when a CSI is not transferred but replaced by a word or phrase in the target language with the emphasis on its source culture, the procedure corresponds to "target-language (TL) expression referring to the source culture" (p. 349). Other potential translation strategies that can be used to translate CSIs are "neutral explanation," which entails removal of the text's foreignness, "omission," and "cultural substitution," which involves the replacement of a target-language word or phrase with a culturally specific term.

To translate food-related CSIs, Marco (2019) adopted another approach that involved seven translation strategies, for instance, "borrowing of the ST item" in a pure or naturalized way, "literal translation," "neutralization" with the deletion of the culture-related item, "amplification/compression," "intracultural adaptation" with the replacement of "another item also belonging to the source culture but more familiar to target text readers" (p. 23), "intercultural adaptation" and "omission." In addition, the author posited that "intracultural adaptation" could be linked to "foreignizing," but he held the opinion that the procedure involved translator's intervention with the objective of aligning the text with the expectations of the target readers.

By absorbing and integrating different translation methods and strategies theories, Amenador and Wang (2023) proposed another group of translation procedures to translate the names of Chinese dishes, which demonstrate certain parallels to the aforementioned strategies. For instance, "retention" corresponds to "transference" (Olk, 2013) and "borrowing" (Marco, 2019). In addition, the authors retained Marco's (2019) procedure of word-for-word translation based on the lexical items—"literal translation." According to Amenador and Wang (2023), "description," "generalization," and "particularization" are three possible forms of "neutralization." While "description" indicates a non-cultural word to replace a CSI, "generalization" and "particularization" involve non-correspondences between languages and cultures due to the (in)existence of hyponym or hypernym, implying different degrees of granularity among different cultures (Marco, 2019). Furthermore, the concept of "amplification/condensation" was introduced to eliminate the ambiguity of the CSI in the target texts. As for domestication, the authors proposed the terms "intracultural adaptation," "substitution," and "omission."

Different procedures can be used in translations between languages belonging to different language families. The differences between logographic and alphabetic languages are not barely limited to writing systems but also arise from different coding and memory mechanisms. Whereas logographic characters convey a greater quantity of visual information, alphabetic words encompass phonological and semantic elements (Chen & Juola, 1982). With regard to Chinese, its writing system is distinct from other writing systems, which is regarded as morphemic writing. In most instances, each morpheme transmits its own meaning (Gîţă et al., 2017). In fact, over 70% of words in Chinese are compound words, and the morphemes that compose compounds are usually words by themselves (Zhou et al., 1999). Thus, the difference between Chinese and other languages determines the

so-called "whole translation tradition" of the Chinese language (Davies, 2003). Gîţă et al. (2017) also corroborated the greater support for the foreignization of the Westernization strategy of translation in China. Nevertheless, due to the restriction of the combination of Chinese phonemes, the loan words resulting from transference, retention or pure transliteration, possess fixed written forms that adhere to phonotactic rules as other Chinese words (Gîţă et al., 2017; Zhou et al., 1999).

As early as the 50s of last century, a Chinese professor Loh (1958) proposed five translation methods that are still widely used today in translation CSI between English and Chinese, namely, "pure transliteration," "pure semantic translation," "combination of transliteration and semantic translation," "transliteration with semantic translation at the beginning or the end" and "symbolic translation with a semantic explanation at the end." Although the strategies put forth by Loh (1958) demonstrate certain similarities compared with the procedures outlined by Amenador and Wang (2023), Marco (2019) and Olk (2013), with respect to "transference/ borrowing/retention," "literal translation," and "transference explicitation," these also reflect the differences between English, which is an alphabetic language, and Chinese language, which is characterized by its morphemic writing system. Given to the disparate writing systems, the preservation procedure of the source text cannot be realized simply by transferring, borrowing, or retaining the original alphabetic words. A comprehensive transcription process is necessary to convert English words into Chinese characters, either through phonetic translation or semantics-based approaches, which are viewed more as foreignization strategies. However, Loh (1958) also proposed a symbolic translation approach, which differs from localization/cultural substitution, intracultural adaptation, or omission but is quite similar to the concept of "autonomous recreation" referred to by Aixelá (1996), who also suggested it is an infrequent translation procedure (Table 1).

Given this, it is postulated that translation strategies applied in different languages may exhibit variability. A comparative study between translations of languages from different families was deemed necessary.

Table 1

Translation Strategies for Culture-Specific Items (CSIs)

	Foreignization	Neutralization	Domestication
Davies (2003)	preservation; addition; omission	globalization	localization; transformations; creation
Olk (2013)	transference; transference explicitation; transference explanation; target language expression referring to the source culture	neutral explanation	omission; cultural substitution
Marco (2019)	borrowing of the source text item; literal translation;	neutralization; amplification/ compression	intracultural adaptation; intercultural adaptation; omission
Amenador and Wang (2023)	retention; literal translation	neutralization (description, generalization, and particularization); amplification/ condensation	intracultural adaptation; substitution; omission
Loh (1958)	pure transliteration; pure semantic translation; combination of transliteration and semantic translation; transliteration with semantic translation at the beginning or at the end		symbolic translation with a semantic explanation at the end

To perceive the potential differences in strategies between the translation from an alphabetic language to a morphemic language, such as Chinese, and the translation to another alphabetic language. (European) Portuguese is selected due to its genetic proximity to English, the most widely spoken language in the world.

Despite its affiliation with Germanic family, the English language exhibits a notable number of loanwords of Latin origin. As indicated by García and Souza (2014), the lexical similarity between English and Portuguese is as high as 20.4% (Figure 1). Therefore, the research question of the present study is "What are the differences between English-Portuguese and English-Chinese translation strategies?"

Figure 1

Relations Between English, Portuguese, and Chinese
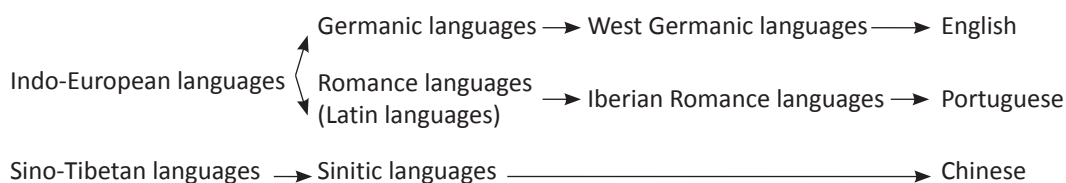
Methodology

Nevertheless, as Davies (2003) and Olk (2013) have observed, there is a paucity of studies that are concerned about cultural translation from a quantitative perspective. Also, the identification of CSIs in a text is regarded as subjective, as it is not always clear which reference should be considered CSI. According to Aixelá (1996), any concept or expression in the source language that does not exist in the language of the recipients, can be viewed as a CSI. CSIs are a group of words and expressions that signify culture-related concepts. Both the similarity to culture and the lack of familiarity can result in the incorrect identification of a CSI (Amenador & Wang, 2023). Normally, studies focus on specific lexical items or subfields to avoid subjectivity in identifying CSIs (Olk, 2013). In view of this, this study adopts the translations of the names of IKEA's products classified under the "furniture"

category to Portuguese and Chinese as the corpus of research to identify what differences that may arise when translating from English to these two languages, with the aim of avoiding the subjective preselection of research objects.

The standardized approach of IKEA distinguishes it from other global retailers. There is a notable absence of adaptation in construction and portrayal of market offers; for example, IKEA's Swedish headquarters produces basic English text for the catalog with the objective of processing "all covert translations" into 38 languages (House & Kádár, 2020, p. 4). Such a standardized approach is also reflected in the supply of identical products and overall information with minimal country and/or region adjustments (Burt et al., 2011). This can be verified based on the information available on the official websites of IKEA.[1] However, it should be noted that a number of products within specific categories, including "divan beds," "bed legs" and "bed & headboard covers" are not currently available on the Chinese market. Only two notable differences were found between the websites for customers of different countries. The category "footstools & pouffes" in the Portuguese version was extended to "ottomans, footstools & pouffes" in the Chinese version and "cots & bassinets" category in the Portuguese version was condensed to "cots" in the Chinese version.

Due to the inherent cultural differences between China and the Western world, the objects people use in everyday life may be seen as representative of the specificity of their own culture. Nevertheless, a reference may be considered intercultural when it is a common element in several cultures. In the absence of an identifiable linguistic or cultural provenance, the reference is then regarded as acultural (Davies, 2003). A representative example is "chair"; while "sofa" is transliterated to *shafa* 沙發 and is regarded as a loan word in Chinese, "chair" has

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[1] See https://www.ikea.cn/cn/en/ and https://www.ikea.com/pt/en/

existed for a long time in the history of China, indicating its intercultural or even acultural nature. Over time, references from other cultures can be incorporated into in the target culture. Thus, CSI may become unidentifiable. The present study focuses specifically on the subcategories of IKEA's furniture products with more specific characteristics and advanced classification, for instance, "armchairs and chaise longues," "dining chairs," and "step stools & step ladders" in place of a simple category of "chair" with the intention of avoiding general and less specific acultural references.

Therefore, the present study is based on a corpus of translations of IKEA's standardized subcategories from English to European Portuguese and Chinese. As quantitative data in a corpus can be employed to inform both qualitative and quantitative methods (Hunston, 2007), a corpus-based approach allows for the triangulation of different research methods. This study employs quantitative analysis to ascertain whether there are any discernible differences in the translation strategies adopted for furniture-specific glossaries between English-Portuguese and English-Chinese. Qualitative analyses are applied to compare the translation strategies between Portuguese, which shares a vocabulary similar to English, with those employed in Chinese. The quantitative method is applied to enhance the reliability of qualitative analysis (Olk, 2013), and, in turn, qualitative analysis elucidates the quantitative results.

Results

Quantitative Results

In total, 135 subcategories were retrieved from IKEA's websites.[2] After eliminating the repeated items, 105 subcategories subjected to detailed analysis in accordance with the translation strategies outlined in the theoretical framework. A total of 11 translation procedures were identified, including amplification, condensation, creation, description, generalization, intracultural adaptation, literal translation, omission, retention, substitution, and transference explicitation. The frequency of occurrence of each procedure ranged from 0 to 47, as illustrated in Table 2. Moreover, it was discovered that 12 types of combinations of different methods were employed in translations (Table 3).

Table 2

Frequency of the Use of Different Translation Strategies

	English - Portuguese	English - Chinese
Amplification	5	3
Condensation	11	11
Creation	0	2
Description	40	31
Generalization	5	7
Intracultural adaptation	1	0
Literal translation	37	48
Omission	1	0
Retention	5	0
Substitution	16	16
Transference explicitation	0	8

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[2]   Accessed on January 24, 2024.

Table 3

Frequency of Combination of Different Translation Strategies

	English - Portuguese	English - Chinese
Description + amplification	1	1
Description + condensation	3	5
Description + generalization	4	0
Description + intracultural adaptation	1	0
Description + literal translation	0	1
Description + retention	1	0
Description + substitution	2	1
Literal translation + amplification	0	1
Literal translation + generalization	0	1
Literal translation + retention	4	0
Literal translation + substitution	3	2
Substitution + creation	0	1

As indicated in Table 2, description and literal translation were the two most frequently applied translation strategies. While literal translation was the most frequently employed strategy in translating furniture-related English words to Chinese, the frequency from description to literal translation remained relatively consistent. The least frequently utilized translation strategies were intracultural adaptation and omission, with a frequency of one or less in both languages, demonstrating its occasionality. Additionally, observed that certain translation strategies were used exclusively in translations to a specific language. For instance, intracultural adaptation, omission, and retention were utilized solely in translating English to Portuguese, while creation and transference explicitation were not observed (Figure 2). Moreover, 34 words were identified as having been translated using the same strategy in Portuguese and Chinese, namely, literal translation (19 words), description (seven words), condensation (three words), substitution (two words), the combination of condensation and description (two words), and the

combination of literal translation and substitution (one word), which collectively accounted for 32.38% of the total number of subcategory items.

Figure 2

Percentage Frequency Distribution of Translation Strategies
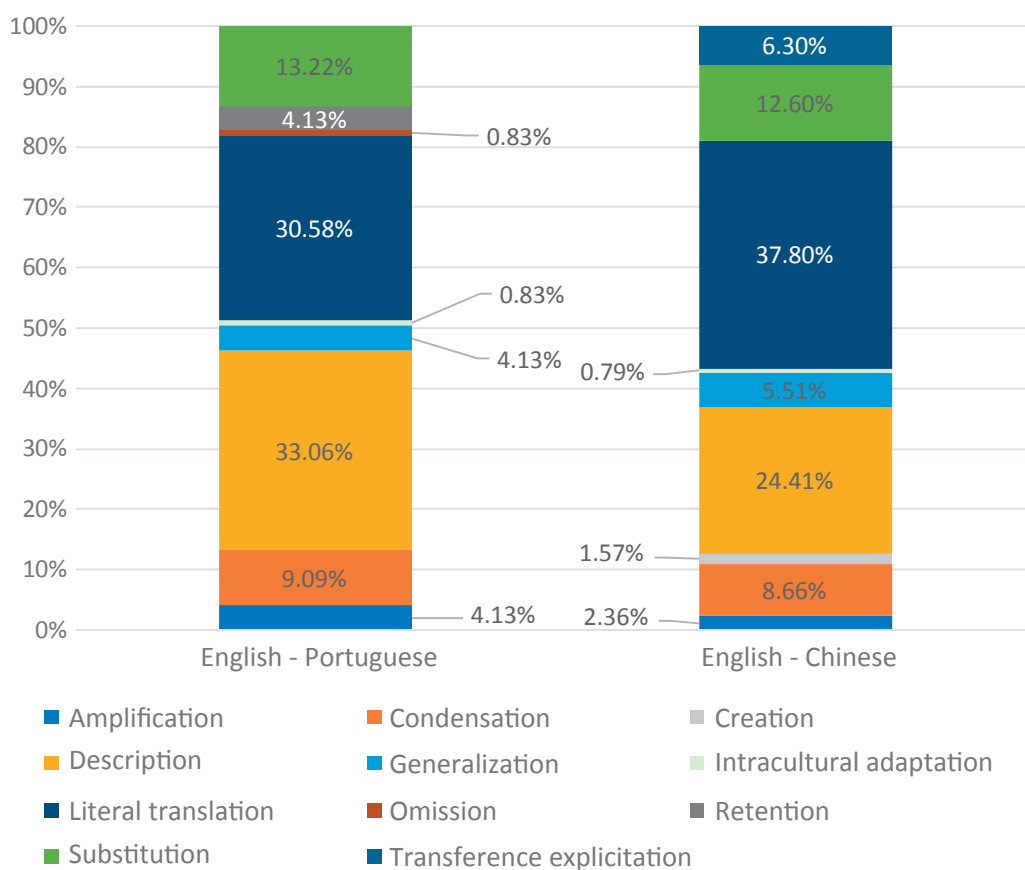
If we categorize the translation strategies applied to the subcategories according to the three main approaches, namely, foreignization, neutralization, and domestication, the differences between the two languages will be more notable. In the translation of furniture-related items from English to Portuguese, which share a certain lexical similarity, the most frequently utilized strategies were those of a

neutralized nature. This result aligns with the findings of Amenador and Wang (2023) and Marco (2019), which indicated neutralization techniques were more often employed in the translation of CSIs. Nevertheless, the translations from English to Chinese yielded a markedly different result. Although the utilization of neutralizing strategies is quite significant, the predominant orientation for translation in this case was foreignization. This demonstrates the "whole translation tradition" and a totally distinct reality in the Chinese language, as previously mentioned (Figure 3).

Figure 3

Percentage Frequency Distribution of Translation Strategies by Foreignization, Neutralization, and Domestication
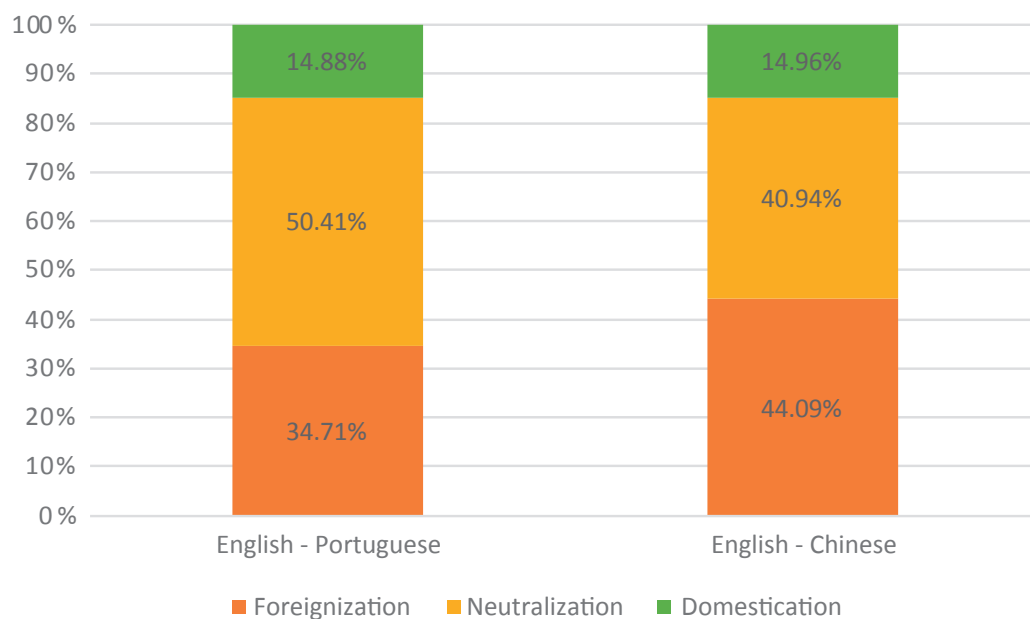
Qualitative Results

Literal Translation

According to Vinay and Darbelnet (1958/1995), "literal translation" is "the direct transfer of a source-language text into a grammatically and idiomatically appropriate target-language text," (p. 33) and in this context, the translator is limited to "observing the adherence to the linguistic servitudes of the target-language" (p. 33). In this study, the application of literal translation was observed to be a common practice in both situations, for instance, "outdoor seat cushions" into "almofadas de assento para exterior" (literally "cushions of seat for outdoor") in Portuguese and *huwai yidian* 戶外椅墊 (literally "house outside seat cushions") in Chinese, "children's beds" into "camas de criança" (literally "beds of child") and *ertong chuang* 兒童床 (literally "child(ren) beds") and "corner wardrobes" into "roupeiros de canto" (literally "wardrobes of corner") and *zhuanjiao yigui* 轉角衣櫃 (literally "corner clothing cabinets").

All the literal translation procedures were observed in the English compound word translations. Since all the translations were retrieved directly from IKEA's website, it can be reasonably assumed that the translation solutions should pragmatically exist and be widely understood and recognized by native customers. Given this, on the one hand, the practicality of literal translation may reveal certain similarities in idiomatic expressions, particularly in the case of the 18 terms that were translated word-to-word to Portuguese and Chinese. On the other hand, it is also possible that these furniture-related words were characterized by their acultural nature.

Description

As a neutralizing technique for translation, description is a strategy that uses "a non-cultural word to clarify a cultural term, phrase or rhetorical expression" (Amenador & Wang, 2023, p. 7). One illustrative example is the translation of "solitaire wardrobes;" in the light of the Cambridge Dictionary, "solitaire" is a noun in English that means "a single jewel" or "a game played with cards by one person" (Cambridge University Press & Assessment, n.d.-d). The term lacks any functional significance or physical characteristics that would be pertinent to the object in question. Thus, the term was translated to "roupeiros completos" (literally "complete wardrobes") in Portuguese and *duli yigui* 獨立衣櫃 (literally "independent cloth cabinets") in Chinese to convey the main feature of the wardrobes intuitively.

Another similar example is the translation of "nursery furniture sets" as "quarto para bebé completo" (literally "complete room for baby") in Portuguese and *yinger jiaju zuhe* 嬰兒家具組合 (literally "baby furniture sets") in Chinese. In both translation solutions, the term "nursery" was not directly translated, but the word "baby" was used to transmit explicitly the feature and function of this subcategory of furniture. In Portuguese, the translation was even more descriptive without mentioning any reference to the concept of "furniture sets."

Nevertheless, the adoption of a description strategy can be relative, which depends on the cultural similarity between the source language and the target language. In other words, a term can be viewed as an acultural concept by people who speak a lexically similar language but have no correspondence in another language belonging to a different linguistic family. The present study observed several examples of this phenomenon. For the purposes of this discussion, we take the translation solutions of "upholstered beds" as an example. According to the Cambridge Dictionary, "upholstered" means "(of a chair or other seat) covered with

cloth and filled with a soft substance" (Cambridge University Press & Assessment, n.d.-e). On the Portuguese website, this term was translated to "camas estofadas." The adjective "estofadas" is derivated from the noun "estofo," which means "thick, full-bodied fabric, generally used to cover sofas, chairs, etc. and for curtains" or "cotton, wool or other materials used to cushion chairs, sofas, etc.,"[3] demonstrating the same cultural background of the furniture. However, the corresponding subcategory on the Chinese website is *ruanbao chuangjia* 軟包床架 and its literal translation back to English is "soft-packing bed frame." It is also important to note that the concept of "sofa" did not exist in Chinese culture, and the term "upholstered beds" may be less familiar to customers in China. With the character *jia* 架 , this subcategory is totally distinguished from other types of beds, which were all simply translated to "beds" in Chinese, emphasizing its feature as a bedstead covered with soft materials.

Substitution

The procedure applies a target culture word, expression, or phrase that is "substantially equivalent" to the CSI of the source text and is defined by Amenador and Wang (2023) as "substitution." In this study, when a term in English was translated to a simple word in the target language. To illustrate, the correspondent translation for "trolleys" in Portuguese is "carrinhos" which is the diminutive form of the word "carro," which means "car." With regard to its translation in Chinese, "trolleys" was translated to *tuiche* 推車 , which literally translates as "pushing car," elucidating the mechanism and function of the object. Nevertheless, 推車 is also used to indicate "barrow" or "dolly" in the Chinese language since all these three objects possess wheels and handles for pushing, leading to ambiguity due to the

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3   Original words in Portuguese was "tecido grosso, encorpado, geralmente utilizado para forrar sofás, cadeiras, etc. e para reposteiros" and "algodão, lã ou outros materiais que se utiliza para acolchoar cadeiras, sofás, etc." (Porto Editora, n.d.-d).

different etymological origins of words in different languages. Another example is the translation of "dressing tables" in Portuguese—"toucador," which is composed of the base word "touca(r)" and the nominal suffix "-dor." In Portuguese, "toucar" denotes the act of combing hair (Porto Editora, n.d.-g) while "-dor" derivates from Latin and is normally used to convey the notion of an agent (Porto Editora, n.d.-c). Thus, both words may be used to indicate the mirrored furniture, but the cultural connotations cannot be viewed as equivalent. Similar to the Portuguese translation, "dressing table" was translated to *shuzhuangtai* 梳妝台 in Chinese, which literally means "combing makeup table."

Also, the different translations of "cabinets" in disparate contexts to Chinese demonstrate that there can be a partial correspondence between "equivalent terms" in different languages. On the IKEA's websites, exist several subcategories related to "cabinets," such as "cabinets" and "storage units & cabinets." In both cases, the term was equally translated to "armário" in Portuguese. However, different translation solutions were applied in the Chinese website. The term "storage units & cabinets" was condensed to *chuwu wenjiangui* 儲物文件櫃 (literally "storage objects document cabinet") but the subcategory entitled "cabinets" was translated to *chugui* 櫥櫃 . According to Chinese Academy of Social Sciences Language Research Institute Dictionary Editorial Office (2016), namely, Dictionary of Current Chinese, the word 櫥櫃 in Chinese is used to indicate a cabinet or set of cabinets that are specifically designed for the storage of tableware (p. 195). Therefore, when selecting translation strategies, it is essential to consider not only the correspondence between languages should be considered but also the pragmatic use and cultural significance of the word in question.

Condensation and Amplification

When removing certain information to make the translation shorter than the

source text to eliminate ambiguity, the translation strategy is referred to as "condensation" (Marco, 2019). In this study, condensation occurred in subcategories composed of more than one term. Some examples of this translation strategies included the conversion of "sideboards & buffets" to "aparador," "step stools & step ladders" to "escadotes," and "children's stools & benches" to "bancos para crianças" (literally "benches for children") in Portuguese translations and "ottomans, footstools & pouffes" to *shafa jiaodeng* 沙發腳凳 (literally "sofa foot bench") and "sideboards & buffets" to *canbiangui* 餐邊櫃 (literally "meal side cabinet") in Chinese translations. In this case, several words in one language correspond to a single term in another language. As observed by Marco (2019), this phenomenon results from the degree of granularity. Certain concepts may be more developed in a specific language and culture. Thus, there will be more distinctions, and the words can be more finely grained.

When the target languages exhibit a higher degree of granularity, amplification is applied, which indicates the incorporation of supplementary information in the translations. In the present study, amplification is not effectively a frequently applied procedure, which was only utilized five times on the Portuguese website and three times on the Chinese website.

Generalization

Different degrees of granularity may also lead to the replacement of a specific term in the source language with a hypernym with a more general concept in the target language, and this procedure is named generalization (Amenador & Wang, 2023). For instance, the subcategory "dining set" was translated to "conjuntos de móveis de refeição" (literally "set of furniture of meal") in Portuguese and *canzhuo yi zuhe* 餐桌椅組合 (literally "meal table chair set") in Chinese. In both languages, the table and chairs used in the dining room is related to the concept of "meal,"

however, the most common idiomatic expression in English is "dining," derivate from the verb "dine," meaning "to eat the main meal of the day, usually in the evening" (Cambridge University Press & Assessment, n.d.-c). Futhermore, in both translation solutions, the concept of "set" was augmented with specific details. In Portuguese translation, the word "móveis" was used to clarify the category to which it belongs, namely, furniture, while this information was more specified in Chinese by utilizing "table" and "chair" in its translation.

In this study, an evident difference between substitution and generalization is that the selected substitute word in the target language demonstrates a "substantial equivalence" in meaning to the original word in the source language. However, generalization usually reveals the relation between hyponyms and hypernyms, and this phenomenon was more frequent in the translation of English furniture-related words into Chinese. An example is the translation of "café tables" and "café chairs," in which "café" was translated directly into "restaurant" in the target language since there is no correspondent term for café, "where serving simple and usually quite cheap meals" (Cambridge University Press & Assessment, n.d.-b) in the target language. As for translations in Portuguese, the term "restauração," which means "sector of activity related to the operation of restaurants and other related establishments" (Porto Editora, n.d.-f), was used to express the concept of "café" in a descriptive manner.

Transference Explicitation

In contrast to the aforementioned translation strategies, transference explicitation was only observed on Chinese websites. Transference explicitation is the process of expanding additional information to the original term, which may be redundant in the source language but necessary for the linguistic structure of the target language. This procedure does not provide a descriptive explanation of the

meaning of CSI as a description strategy. Nevertheless, in this case, the translator's intervention is more apparent than literal translation (Olk, 2013). Considering the vast differences between English and Chinese languages, the incorporation of supplementary information in translation solutions may be necessary; for instance, "headboards" was translated to *chuangtou ban* 床頭板 (bed head boards), "beds with storage" to *chuwu gongneng chuang* 儲物功能床 (literally "storage function beds"), and "sliding wardrobes" to *huamen yigui* 滑門衣櫃 (literally "sliding door clothing cabinets") to avoid equivocation. In certain instances, the character, which symbolizes "style," *shi* 式 was added to transmit the complete information in Chinese, explicating the relation between the attribute and the modified noun, such as *wanglan shi chouti kuangjia* 網籃式抽屜框架 (literally "net basket style drawer units," translation for "basket drawer units"), *burushi yigui* 步入式衣櫃 (literally "walk-in style clothing cabinet"), and *kaifangshi yigui* 開放式衣櫃 (literally "open style clothing cabinet").

It demonstrates certain similarities to the translation method proposed by Loh's (1958), namely, transliteration with semantic translation at the beginning or at the end. However, in this case, the semantic translation did not always occur at the beginning or the end of the word. The supplementary information was occasionally positioned at the end of the attributes, which resulted from the Chinese language's grammatical structure. Therefore, transference explicitation can be seen as a variant strategy when the literal translation does not align with the grammatical and idiomatic expressions of the target language.

Retention

If transference explicitation is a specific strategy used in translation of furniture-related terms into Chinese, then retention is applied exclusively to Portuguese translations. If the morphemic system of the Chinese language

determines its "whole translation tradition," Portuguese, in comparison, is more flexible. The retention of words occurred at various levels. For instance, such as "chaise longues," "croupiers para hall de entrada" (literally "wardrobes for the hall of entrance"), and "cadeiras para gaming" (literally "chairs for gaming") were observed.

According to Marco (2019), SCIs that belong to a third culture are perceived as impartial with respect to both source and target texts. In the case of the French word "chaise longue," the original form has been entirely preserved without changing a single letter. In effect, French has contributed to the third largest source of Portuguese vocabulary, and a considerable part of it is still used on a daily basis (Vázquez Diéguez, 2015). In Portuguese, numerous loanwords have not transformed to integrate its lexical inventory or lose their foreignism status, designating specific realities of other cultures (Freitas et al., 2003). When a term presents a particular background of a third culture, its original form may be retained if it belongs to the same writing system, such as "chaise longues." Nevertheless, when there is no correspondence to the concept that a term contains in the source language, retention is also considered as a viable strategy, in addition to the description, for instance, "gaming" and "hall."

Creation

However, when no correspondence occurs in a language with a distinctive writing system, creation may be applied to translate the exotic concept, which is regarded by Aixelá (1996) as a very rare phenomenon. Loh (1958) only proposed one translation strategy of a domestication nature, symbolic translation accompanied by a semantic explanation at the end.

In the case of "chaise longues," the term was not translated descriptively or transcribed by its pronunciation. Instead, it was substituted with the word *guifei yi*

貴妃椅 (literally "magnificent concubine chair"), which demonstrates a lack of correspondence with the target text. The word is not included in *Xiandai Hanyu Cidian*《現代漢語辭典》, one of China's most authoritative reference books. Its etymological origin is also obscure and cannot be found in any source. One hypothesis is that the item in question is a recreation based on the word *guifei ta* 貴妃榻 , a traditional Chinese furniture. In ancient China, *ta* 榻 served as a couch, on which people could sit and nap, but its use is not effectively common in the modern era. Both chaise longues and guifei ta own long and narrow platform and have a similar function for people to take a rest. That may be the reason why people associate the French-origin sofa with this ancient Chinese furniture. The word 貴妃椅 borrowed the first two characters of *guifei ta*, which literally means "magnificent concubine," used to refer to the highest-ranking imperial concubine in the past, and combined with the character of "chair" at the end to form the name of this particular piece of furniture.

The creation can also be found in the translation of "kitchen islands" in Chinese, *daotai* 島台 (literally "island counter"), which is also not registered in *Xiandai Hanyu Cidian*. The creation may have considered the source text and/or the furniture feature, which is placed in the middle of a kitchen, and a semantic explanation at the end, in accordance with the linguistic structure of the Chinese languages.

Omission

When a specific component of the source text is deemed superfluous for the target language and omitted in the translation, the procedure is regarded as omission (Amenador & Wang, 2023; Marco, 2019). In the present study, omission is observed to be a rarely used strategy, which is observed only once in the translation of "console tables" to "consola," which means "a small, long, narrow

table that leans against a wall and on which decorative objects are placed" (Porto Editora, n.d.-b) in Portuguese. In other words, the word "consola" in Portuguese already contains the meaning of "table." Therefore, it is unnecessary to repeat its meaning in translation. It somehow reveals the lexical similarity between these two Indo-European languages, while also highlighting the differences between them.

Intracultural Adaptation

Another less frequently observed translation is intracultural adaptation, which was applied once in Portuguese translation. In this instance, the term from the source language was not translated deceptively or literally but substituted by another term from the exact origin "that is comparatively familiar and accepted in the target culture" (Amenador & Wang, 2023, p. 7). The only example that we identified that may be considered to conform to this procedure is the translation of the term "open wardrobes" in Portuguese, "roupeiros para closets" (literally "wardrobes for closets"), in which the concept of "open" has been exchanged for the word "closets." According to the Portuguese dictionary edited by Porto Editora, "closet" is seen as a loan word in Portuguese with the meaning of "a room in a dwelling used for storing shoes, clothes or household utensils" (Porto Editora, n.d.-a), contains, therefore, its own cultural reference.

Discussion

Following the quantitative and qualitative analyses, the translations to Portuguese and Chinese demonstrate several notable differences. When translating furniture-related terms from English to Portuguese, neutralization strategies were applied with greater frequency, while foreignization was most used in Chinese, although the frequency of neutralizing strategies was also significant. These

differences may relate to the distinct writing systems of the languages in question. In Portuguese, an English word that lacks a potential correspondence can be maintained and accepted as a loan word without changing its form. However, in Chinese, the word is generally substituted by a description to clarify its meaning or literally translated. Due to the specific grammar structure of Chinese language, which differs significantly from that of English, a particular or additional component is required in the translation. In some cases, a proper creation is also accepted in the Chinese language. Although English and Portuguese share several similarities in lexical structures, it does imply that a literal translation is always the optimal solution. In fact, in this study, neutralization, such as description and generalization, amplification, and condensation, were more frequently applied in practice, demonstrating the transmission of different cultural references by words with the same etymological origin.

Although a word may possess a certain correspondence in another language to indicate the same object, it does not necessarily indicate that these two terms have equal meaning in their respective cultures. Different etymological origins may result in disparate uses and definitions of the word. For example, on IKEA's Chinese website, both "stools" and "benches" were translated to *dengzi* 凳子 , in other words, "stools" and "benches" may be viewed by native speakers of Chinese language as the same category, revealing distinctive degrees of granularity of related words in different languages. As previously mentioned, the English terms "trolleys," "barrow" and "dolly" may all be translated into Chinese as 推車 and no specific distinction was observed between the translations of "restaurant" and "café" into Chinese, as analyzed through the available translation solutions on IKEA's website. Another example is the translation solution adopted by IKEA for "armchairs." The term was translated literally into *fushou yi* 扶手椅 in Chinese, as "arm" is also utilized to refer to "the arm of a piece of clothing or furniture is a part

of it that you put your arm in or on" (Cambridge University Press & Assessment, n.d.-a). However, *fushou* 扶手 can also be translated also into "handrail," since the word means *neng rang shou fuzhu de dongxi* 能讓手扶住的東西 (something that the hands can hold) (Chinese Academy of Social Sciences Language Research Institute Dictionary Editorial Office, 2016, p. 399) in Chinese. Nevertheless, in Portuguese website, "armchair" corresponds to "poltrona," a word derived from the Italian (Porto Editora, n.d.-e). Interestingly, the literal translation strategy was not employed in this case, even though the expression "cadeira de braço" (literally "chair of arm") exists in the Portuguese language. One of the reasons why substitution strategy is preferred may relate to the assimilation of similar cultures, as evidenced by the French word "chaise longues," which is utilized in both Portuguese and English. Cultural similarity and geographic proximity determine the compatibility of language use in certain ways.

In the case of the furniture category, it is evident that a significant proportion of the items in question may not have existed in the history of China and some of them, such as the sofa, only became a common feature of the lives of ordinary people in China no more than two centuries ago. Even in the present day, the Chinese language employs the same character to indicate "clock" and "bell." This is because, when the clock was first introduced to the country, there was no corresponding object. In the past, the bell was used to indicate the time, which is the reason why the Chinese people ended up using the character "bell" to name this Western machine, despite the fact that their functions cannot be regarded as identical. Compared to the historical relationship between English-speaking and Portuguese-speaking countries, the linguistic and cultural communication between China and the Western world is a relatively recent. For instance, the first Chinese-English and English-Chinese dictionary was published merely in the 18th century by the missionary Robert Morrison. Therefore, it is evident that the linguistic and

cultural backgrounds of Chinese and English may diverge considerably, which can lead to challenges and difficulties in translating content that is specific to a particular culture.

Conclusion

To ascertain the differences between translation strategies applied in Portuguese and Chinese, a study was conducted on the translations of 105 terms under the "furniture" category on IKEA's website for these two languages. Both quantitative and qualitative analyses were realized, and the results indicate that foreignization was utilized more frequently in the Chinese translations. Meanwhile, neutralizing strategies were more recommended in Portuguese translations, despite the fact that Portuguese shares certain lexical similarities with English. As Davies (2003) posited, different target cultures may accept disparate translation conventions, and these discrepancies should be regarded as tendencies rather than absolute oppositions. In this study, foreignization strategies constituted a mere 3.15% more utilization than neutralizing nature strategies employed in Chinese translations. Due to the inherent difficulty in identifying CSIs, it is possible that not all of the analyzed terms contain a specific reference to the source and/or target culture(s). Nevertheless, examples illustrate disparate approaches to translating languages with distinctive writing systems. It stands to reason that the nature of translation strategies employed in practice may, at least to some degree, be influenced by the writing system of the language in question.

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Balancing Process and Outcome in an Undergraduate Translation Classroom: Application of Expert-Model Feedback With Student Self-Reflection

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This study examines teacher feedback in an undergraduate translation course, employing "expert-model feedback with student self-reflection" to enhance translation competence and address two issues in the "problem-posing feedback" of problem-based learning (PBL) instruction: psychological pressure from negative feedback and confusion over solving translation problems. The proposed strategy replaces negative comments with positive examples to reduce pressure and uses clear demonstrations to inspire translation thinking. Students actively engage in reflecting on feedback and generating self-reflective notes. The effectiveness is evaluated through questionnaires, pretests and posttests, and self-reflective notes. The results show that this approach can address the two issues of PBL feedback and stimulate students' comprehension and attention to translation input, transfer, and output, thereby improving translation competence. Additionally, the self-reflective notes can be compiled into a teaching material that embodies meaningful teacher-student collaboration and enhances learning impressions.

Keywords: expert-model feedback, student self-reflection, noticing hypothesis, translation input and output, translation teaching

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兼顧過程與結果的大學筆譯課：
專家範例回饋搭配學生反思的運用

強勇傑

本研究以大學部筆譯課程中的教師回饋為主題，利用「專家範例回饋搭配學生反思」策略來增進筆譯能力，並解決「PBL 問題回饋法」的兩項問題：否定式回饋造成的心理壓力、面對翻譯問題的困惑。本研究用正面而明確的範例回饋取代否定的評論，以降低心理壓力，提供改進方向。為鼓勵積極參與，要求學生對回饋進行獨立省思，做成反思記錄。最後以問卷、前後測、與反思記錄來檢驗實施成效。研究結果顯示，本策略可解決 PBL 回饋法的兩項問題，引發學生對於翻譯輸入、轉換、與輸出的理解與注意力，進而提升筆譯能力。此外，彙整學生的反思記錄，可形成有意義、有系統的師生合作教材，亦可加深學習印象。

關鍵詞：專家範例回饋、學生反思、注意力假說、翻譯輸入與輸出、翻譯教學

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Introduction

In recent years, flexible pedagogical approaches have emerged to address the shortcomings of the traditional "lecturing, practicing, correcting, and providing feedback" (Liao, 2007, p. 165) method in college translation education. Problem-based Learning (PBL) has been applied both domestically and internationally to translation teaching. Chiang (2022) utilized PBL for English-to-Chinese training, encouraging students to build translation knowledge by solving problems. The results showed that PBL enhanced translation skills and improved other capabilities, such as problem-solving and communication. However, PBL's feedback approach can cause issues for novice translators. First, the problem-posing feedback involves the instructor pointing out translation problems, which can be perceived as negative criticism, leading to psychological pressure for students with strong self-esteem or low confidence. Second, the lack of suggested solutions in PBL feedback can leave novice translators uncertain about how to address the problems, making it difficult for them to improve their translations effectively.

These issues stem directly from feedback, and addressing them hinges on adjusting feedback methods. In traditional translation classrooms, teachers typically employ direct corrective feedback, focusing solely on translation outcomes. This approach places students in a passive role, lacking opportunities for communication, negotiation, and discussion. Students often perceive teachers' revisions as definitive, unaware of the range of possible translations. Conversely, in PBL, the problem-posing strategy utilizes indirect corrective feedback, prioritizing the problem-solving process over achieving a flawless translation. Teachers do not supply immediate answers but instead foster student engagement in knowledge exploration and construction.

This study aims to integrate the strengths of both approaches by proposing "expert-model feedback with student self-reflection" (EMS feedback) as a strategy to address the two issues identified in PBL. EMS feedback features two key components: teacher-provided translation models and student-generated self-reflection. The translation models are central to this approach, designed to tackle the two issues and enhance students' comprehension and attention to translation input, transfer, and output. Self-reflection is integral to EMS feedback, guiding students in independently assessing their work and actively participating in knowledge construction. Following the submission of initial drafts, the teacher refrains from immediate comments and instead provides model translations for comparison. This encourages students to identify areas for improvement and develop their translation abilities autonomously, documenting their insights through self-reflective notes.

Translation models, produced by teachers or experts, usually serve as reference translations for learning. They are used either during lectures to illustrate translation methods before assignments or as exemplary demonstrations afterward. In traditional translation classrooms, these models often imply singular and rigid standards, leading to indiscriminate imitation. In line with the assertion by Liao et al. (2016) about the importance of translation examples in translation learning (p. vi), this study emphasizes both process and product by combining translation models with self-reflection to remedy traditional shortcomings. While traditional reference translations offer clear examples, they risk being viewed as unchallengeable standard answers, hindering independent reflection and discussion. Contrastively, in EMS feedback, models serve as inspirational references rather than definitive solutions, prompting students to explore diverse translation possibilities and document insights in reflective notes. This approach fosters independent knowledge construction and flexible translation perspectives, placing equal value on

process and outcome—a departure from traditional translation teaching.

The hypotheses of this study are: (a) EMS feedback avoids negating or problem-posing, thereby reducing students' psychological pressure and addressing the first drawback of PBL; (b) EMS feedback offers feasible translation examples, assisting novice learners in recognizing their own challenges and identifying avenues for improvement, thus addressing the second drawback of PBL.

While addressing the two issues, this study does not overlook the core objective of the course, which is to develop translation competence. Translation competence is defined variably in academia: Wilss identifies it as comprising first-language abilities, second-language abilities, and mediation skills between L1 and L2 (as cited in Kiraly, 1995, p. 26); Lai (2009) expands this to include reading proficiency in L1, writing proficiency in L2, cultural proficiency, knowledge proficiency, and conversion skills (p. 22). Esfandiaria et al. (2015) and Cerezo Herrero (2019) provide further theoretical insights. In this study, considering the practical course for novices, translation competence is discussed using Wilss's three-dimensional model, rephrased as input (understanding the original text), transfer (conversion across languages), and output (expression of the translated text).

To verify the hypotheses, this study uses questionnaires, pretest and posttest, and students' self-reflective notes to examine the effectiveness of EMS feedback in translation teaching. Three research questions will guide this investigation:

1. Does EMS feedback overcome the two PBL issues of student psychological pressure and bewilderment in solving translation problems?

2. Does EMS feedback lead to significant improvement in students' translation competence?

3. In EMS feedback, what elements do students consciously notice when receiving feedback? Do these elements align with the three aspects of translation competence?

Literature Review

Translation Input and Output

This study draws on theories of input and output in foreign language learning. Krashen's (1982, 1985) "input hypothesis" posits that "comprehensible input," which is slightly beyond learners' current proficiency level, aids language acquisition. Arguing that mere comprehensible input is insufficient without learners' attention, Schmidt (1990, 2001) proposes the "noticing hypothesis" to emphasize the role of attention in learning. Swain (1985, 1995, 2000, 2005) extends this with the "comprehensible output hypothesis," asserting that producing language helps learners notice gaps between intended and actual output, motivating them to adjust and improve based on feedback. Swain (1995) identifies three functions of output: (a) noticing function: output enables learners to recognize their deficiencies by noticing the gap between what they want to express and what they can express; (b) hypothesis-testing function: learners test their language concepts through output and make adjustments based on feedback; (c) metalinguistic function: learners reflect on the language they have learned and internalize linguistic knowledge through output (pp. 126-130).

While translation learning and foreign language acquisition differ cognitively, the above input and output theories can inform translation training in that translation shares similarities with foreign language learning in terms of comprehension and attention during the input, transfer, and output phases. To facilitate subsequent analysis, definitions of input, transfer, and output in translation are provided here for clarity. All three concepts encompass both a dynamic and a static sense in translation. The dynamic aspect of input refers to the process of comprehending the

source text; the static aspect refers to the source text itself. The dynamic aspect of transfer involves the process of interlingual conversion, transforming the original expressive structure into a target expressive structure that is both comprehensible and faithful, resulting in a converted text; the static aspect refers to translation techniques, the descriptive terms for the methods of conversion. The dynamic aspect of output involves the process of polishing the converted text to achieve naturalness and fluency, taking account of the target context and conventions; the static aspect refers to the translated text itself. These concepts are exemplified in Table 1 with a translation example from English to Chinese.

Table 1

Input, Transfer, and Output in Translation

Phase	Aspect	Meaning	Example
Input	dynamic	the process of comprehending the source text	Analyze the original text "It's not safe to eat food when you don't know where it came from" to understand the conveyed concept and purpose.
	static	the source text	"It's not safe to eat food when you don't know where it came from."
Transfer	dynamic	the process of cross-language conversion	Swap the clauses in the original text "It's not safe to eat food when you don't know where it came from," transforming it into 當你不知道食物從哪來的時候，吃了並不安全 to conform to the expressive structure of Chinese that is comprehensible and faithful, forming a converted text.
	static	translation techniques	"the syntactic reversal technique"
Output	dynamic	the process of polishing the converted text	Based on the context and the conventions of the target language, refine the converted text 當你不知道食物從哪來的時候，吃了並不安全 from the transfer phase into a more natural and fluent expression, such as 別吃來路不明的東西
	static	the translation text	別吃來路不明的東西

The input and output theories discussed can be applied to translation. In the input stage, students typically grasp the basic meaning of the source text, but thorough understanding may pose a challenge, reflecting Krashen's (1982, 1985) concept of "comprehensible input." Dynamically, students identify parts of the text that need clarification and enhance their understanding through exploratory research, which aligns with Schmidt's (1990, 2001) "noticing hypothesis." During the transfer stage, students must notice the differences in cross-linguistic expressive systems in order to achieve comprehensible and faithful conversion, echoing the noticing hypothesis. In the output stage, students become aware of their expressive deficiencies and notice the gap between their translations and the feedback from teachers, thereby modifying their translation assumptions and applying them in subsequent translation activities, illustrating Swain's (1985) "comprehensible output hypothesis."

Translation practice can also be viewed in terms of Swain's (1995) three functions of output: (a) noticing function: students notice the gap between source comprehension and target expression, recognizing their own inadequacies in translation competence; (b) hypothesis-testing function: students test their translation assumptions through producing translated texts and adjust their views based on feedback; (c) metalinguistic function: students reflect on their translation concepts and internalize translation knowledge through translation output.

In summary, this study's teaching approach is grounded in the input-output framework of foreign language learning. Comprehension and attention play a crucial role in translation input, transfer, and output, influencing learning outcomes. This study focuses specifically on feedback mechanisms, which serve to correct, confirm, or inspire students' comprehension of the original text and their translation expression. Different feedback methods affect comprehension and attention differently during the process, making them worth exploring in translation

pedagogy. The study introduces the EMS feedback approach to address the two PBL issues while maintaining learning effectiveness, evaluated through the lens of input-output theories in foreign language acquisition.

Textual Feedback

In education, feedback can serve as a scaffolding that helps students construct knowledge. While extensively studied in foreign language teaching, feedback is relatively under-explored in translation training. Both translation and L2 writing involve text production, so insights from L2 writing feedback can inform translation teaching. Ellis's (2009) classification of L2 writing feedback includes six categories: (a) direct corrective feedback: pointing out errors and suggesting revisions; (b) indirect corrective feedback: indicating errors without specific suggestions; (c) metalinguistic corrective feedback: marking mistakes and providing error codes for reflection and revision; (d) focus of the feedback: offering either unfocused feedback on all errors or focused feedback on specific types; (e) electronic feedback: indicating errors and providing electronic resources for improvement; (f) reformulation: rewriting students' drafts based on their intended meanings (p. 98). Additionally, research has compared reformulation and models as feedback strategies, making models another option for L2 writing feedback (Coyle et al., 2018; Hanaoka, 2006; Nguyen & Le, 2022; Sachs & Polio, 2007; Tocalli-Beller & Swain, 2005; Yang & Zhang, 2010).

These seven types of feedback can be grouped into three categories: feedback scope (focus of the feedback), feedback medium (electronic feedback), and feedback methods (the other five types). Using non-electronic and unfocused feedback as a premise, this study concentrates on feedback methods, drawing on direct, indirect, metalinguistic, reformulation, and model feedback. To address the two PBL feedback issues, the utilized feedback must avoid pointing out

shortcomings and provide guidance for improvement. Consequently, direct, indirect, and metalinguistic feedback, which either highlight flaws or lack improvement suggestions, are excluded, leaving reformulation and model feedback as the shortlisted methods.

In L2 writing, reformulation involves a native speaker rewriting learners' drafts into fluent texts while keeping the original ideas (Cohen, 1983, p. 4), whereas models are exemplary texts created by native speakers for the same task, tailored to learners' age and proficiency but not based on their drafts (Coyle & de Larios, 2014, p. 453). Both methods help learners improve accuracy by comparing differences (Cánovas Guirao, 2011; García, 2011; Martínez Esteban & Roca de Larios, 2010; Qi & Lapkin, 2001). However, reformulation limits feedback to learners' expressed content, offering sentence-by-sentence revisions but no new language input. In contrast, models, not tied to learners' drafts, provide diverse language usage and broader expression opportunities. Additionally, models as independent creations by native speakers offer varied intellectual inspiration, broadening learners' writing horizons. Studies have shown that models provide more language and cognitive stimulation compared to reformulation, promoting active participation and motivating learners to turn knowledge gaps into progress (Coyle et al., 2018; Coyle & de Larios, 2014; Hanaoka & Izumi, 2012; Yang & Zhang, 2010).

If applied to translation, reformulation refers to an expert's revision of learners' initial drafts to correct errors and improve fluency in the target language, while model texts are independently translated by experts and serve as professional references for learners. Insights from L2 writing suggest that both methods engage learners through comparative analysis, facilitating development in translation competence. However, reformulation accommodates to learners' narrative style, limiting alterations and providing insights within their framework. Models, on the other hand, offer diverse inspirations and expressions, differing significantly from

learners' drafts. Moreover, reformulation is labor-intensive and less feasible in larger classes, whereas model feedback is manageable and promotes expanded learning. Therefore, this study adopts model feedback to capture students' attention and encourage independent comparison.

Studies on Translation Feedback

Recent research in translation feedback has advanced with diverse innovations. Korol (2021) explored digital teacher feedback's effectiveness, while Washbourne (2014) investigated a dialogic model involving instructors, students, and peers. Aside from teacher feedback, peer feedback's effectiveness has also been studied extensively across dimensions by Flanagan and Heine (2015), Heine (2019), Li and Ke (2022), Lin et al. (2021), Sha et al. (2022), Vandepitte and Hanson (2019) and Wang and Han (2013). Other studies have focused on integrating feedback mechanisms into the translation process itself, such as Pietrzak (2017) on formative assessment and Schaeffer et al. (2019) on mechanical visual prompt feedback. Comparative studies have explored traditional versus ChatGPT-based feedback (Cao & Zhong, 2023), and differences in feedback practices between Saudi Arabia and the United States (Alfayyadh, 2016). Moreover, Man et al. (2022) introduced an ecological perspective to broaden feedback's applicability.

An overview of recent literature in translation highlights a gap in model feedback research but still offers pertinent insights for teacher feedback, the focus of this study. Moreno and Pujols (2023) analyzed written in-text comments' impact in a professional translation course, exposing its one-way nature primarily focused on terminology and error correction without mutual communication. Zheng et al. (2020) explored how teacher feedback on translation assignments influenced students' emotional responses and perceptions of feedback quality. Beiranvand and

Golandouz (2017) compared self-assessment and peer-assessment effectiveness, finding self-assessment encouraged higher improvement goals and language knowledge acquisition through reflection. Nikolaeva and Korol (2021) studied student responses to four feedback types, showing that revising translations alongside self-reflection reports yielded the best outcomes. In brief, Moreno and Pujols' (2023) findings underscore the limited inspiration provided by traditional unidirectional corrective feedback, supporting the present study's advocacy for a more constructive feedback approach. Zheng et al.'s (2020) research highlights the emotional impact of teacher feedback, prompting consideration of student emotional states in this study. Beiranvand and Golandouz (2017), along with Nikolaeva and Korol (2021), underscore the educational benefits of student self-reflection.

Based on the literature reviewed, this study adopts the EMS feedback approach to avoid direct emotional impact on students while promoting self-reflection to enhance translation competence. Three key components are: (a) using positive translated examples to alleviate psychological pressure, offer clear improvement guidance, and enhance students' comprehension and attention to translation processes; (b) exposing learners to different expert translations to foster flexible translation perspectives; and (c) promoting active student engagement through the production of self-reflective notes, which develop independent thinking, decision-making, and translation skills.

Methods

Design and Procedures

The course under study was an undergraduate-level, single-semester basic translation course, meeting for three credit hours per week. It comprised two main

components: (a) a survey of translation history in China and the West, covering 13 chapters of the textbook over the semester, occupying one hour weekly; (b) English-to-Chinese translation practice, allotted two hours weekly. Six translation exercises were assigned across 12 weeks, with each exercise given two weeks for completion.

This study focused solely on the translation practice component, excluding the translation history segment. Since the history of translation was not directly related to translation practice, it did not affect the study's results. The six exercises over 12 weeks aimed to highlight feedback effects through accumulated practice and increase the study's reliability. To ensure active participation, all exercises were conducted in class with students engaging in autonomous learning. The instructor acted as an observer, guide, supervisor, and explicator. Each exercise involved translating a 250-to-300-word English article within a two-week timeframe (four hours total) as individual assignments.

The EMS feedback approach addressed PBL feedback drawbacks using expert translation models and student self-reflection, promoting flexible perspectives on translation diversity. To prevent students from seeing expert models as singular standards, a dual-model, dual-stage feedback strategy was used. Each assignment contained two expert models: one by a professional translator (professional translation) and one by the instructor-researcher (teacher translation), each using different strategies. Feedback was delivered anonymously, with the translators identified only as "experts" to students.

For the dual-stage design, feedback was provided in two stages with two different model texts. This approach aimed to reduce cognitive load for beginners and prevent distraction by avoiding simultaneous comparison. The first stage's single expert model offered initial insights, which were reinforced and expanded in the second stage with a different model text. This repeated exposure was expected to deepen students' understanding of translation diversity more effectively than a single feedback session.

Based on the above design, each four-hour exercise activity proceeded as follows:

1. Independent translation (two hours) involved students translating the assigned text into Chinese. The instructor stressed the importance of completing the reading and addressing comprehension issues before starting the translation.

2. First-stage feedback (1.5 hours) highlighted EMS feedback and self-reflective notes. The instructor provided a professional translation for students to compare with their own, encouraging notes on insights and different rendition possibilities. Guidance for writing self-reflective records was: "Compare your translation with the expert model sentence by sentence. Document differences, insights, alternative translations, and other thoughts. This expert model is a feasible translation, but not the only or best one." This aimed to promote active participation, independent thinking, and prevent viewing the expert translation as the standard.

3. Second-stage feedback (0.5 hour) featured the instructor's comprehensive feedback. Comparing the professional and teacher translations anonymously, together with occasional fragments of student versions, was intended to emphasize varied rendition approaches and avoid rigid standards of translation quality. Students were encouraged to independently evaluate translations based on personal preferences and style, noting insights in their self-reflective records to refine their understanding.

This study employed a questionnaire, pretest and posttest, and self-reflective notes to assess EMS feedback. The questionnaire aimed to address whether EMS feedback mitigated student psychological pressure and confusion in solving translation problems. Pretest and post test assessments, conducted at the term's start and end by the instructor and an external scholar for reliability, investigated whether EMS feedback enhanced translation competence, examined along with the

survey results regarding students' perceived improvement. Students' self-reflective notes were coded to explore elements they consciously noticed in the feedback process that demonstrated Schmidt's (1990, 2001) noticing hypothesis in the three aspects of translation competence. The procedures of the study are shown as follows (see Figure 1).

Figure 1

The Procedures of the Study

| Pretest | → | Six Translation Exercises | → | Posttest | → | Questionnaire | → | Data Analysis |

Participants

This study enlisted 25 students from a central Taiwan public university enrolled in an undergraduate foundational translation course taught by the researcher. Among them, 24 were English majors, comprising four juniors, 19 seniors, and one fifth-year student, with one participant majoring in History. All participants lacked prior translation training and gave informed consent before participating in the study. In the questionnaire, questions five, six, and seven in the first dimension (Table 2) addressed students' prior experiences and sentiments regarding feedback. The data indicated that 92% of respondents had encountered teachers who directly pointed out errors (question five), 72% noted this direct approach as predominant (question six), and 80% felt that different feedback methods influenced perceived pressure (question seven). These findings underscored that direct feedback was prevalent in respondents' educational backgrounds, and that most of them perceived varying levels of pressure based on feedback methods. These results aligned with the study's premise.

Table 2

Dimension One: Experiences and Feelings Regarding Feedback

Question	Answer	
1. Student number	(short response)	
2. Department and year	History major: fourth-year (1). English majors: third-year (4), fourth-year (19), fifth-year (1).	
3. Name	(short response)	
4. Biological sex	Male: 10 (40%)	Female: 15 (60%)
5. In the courses I took before, I have encountered teachers who would directly point out issues or mistakes in my assignments.	Yes: 23 (92%)	No: 2 (8%)
6. In the courses I took before, most teachers would directly point out issues or mistakes in students' assignments.	Yes: 18 (72%)	No: 7 (28%)
7. Different corrective feedback approaches offered by the teacher give me different feelings of pressure.	Yes: 20 (80%)	No: 5 (20%)

Materials and Instruments

The tools for this study were a pretest-posttest question, six translation practice texts, six pairs of expert translations (professional translations and teacher translations), and one questionnaire. The pretest-posttest question involved translating a 281-word English text on consumer culture into Chinese. The text was intentionally devoid of specialized knowledge or challenging vocabulary to minimize comprehension errors and concentrate on assessing translation performance.

The six translation practice texts were excerpts from English articles, each ranging from 250 to 300 words. Carefully excerpted for coherence, they could function independently as concise essays. Their topics, covering contemporary societal issues like education, social security, morality, entertainment celebrities,

medical advancements, and artificial intelligence, exposed students to varied language expressions across different domains.

Regarding expert translations, the six professional translations were commissioned to a professional translator in the industry, while the six teacher translations were completed by the instructor-researcher. The paired translations were distinctly different, yet both were accurate and fluent. Figure 2 is an example.

Figure 2

Dual-Model Translations Example

Original Text:

A man is beaten by hoodlums in plain daylight and in view of bystanders. These people not only fail to help the victim, but, like the hoodlums, flee before the police can question them.

Professional Translation:

看到流氓光天化日之下動手打人，非但不敢路見不平，反而和肇事的流氓一樣，一見警察就溜之大吉，免得被找去問話。

Teacher Translation:

惡棍在大白天公然圍毆百姓，旁人卻只顧著隔岸觀火，不僅沒有挺身而出，還跟惡棍一樣，不待警察前來釐清案情就逃之夭夭。

Here, the translations by the professional translator and the teacher differed in several salient aspects: (a) terminology: *liumang* 流氓 versus *egun* 惡棍 for "hoodlums;" (b) conjunction: *feidan...faner* 非但⋯⋯反而 versus *bujin...hai* 不僅⋯⋯還 for "not only… but;" (c) subject: (untranslated) versus *pangren* 旁人 for "these people [bystanders];" (d) idiom and phrase: *lu jian bu ping* 路見不平 versus

tingshen er chu 挺身而出 for "help the victim;" (e) voice: 被（警察）找去問話 versus 警察前來釐清案情 for "the police can question them;" (f) sentence pattern: 一見警察就溜之大吉，免得被找去問話 versus 不待警察前來釐清案情就逃之夭夭 for "flee before the police can question them." Despite their differing translation strategies, both versions effectively conveyed the original meaning and were deemed high-quality translations. This served to promote an appreciation for translation diversity and enhance students' adaptable translation skills.

The questionnaire aimed to assess this study's effectiveness in addressing the two PBL issues and students' perceived improvement in translation competence. To streamline the survey process and maintain respondent engagement, questions within each aspect were structured uniformly to facilitate focused responses. Validity was ensured through a review by two scholars specializing in English teaching and translation from national universities in Taiwan. After incorporating their feedback, the questionnaire, comprising 60 questions, was finalized. Given respondents' bilingual background (L1 Chinese, L2 English), the questionnaire was administered in both languages to ensure clarity. To promote genuine feedback and enhance response reliability, participants were reminded that their responses would solely contribute to educational research and course improvement without affecting their academic assessment.

The 60-item questionnaire comprised five dimensions, with dimensions one, two, three, and five analyzed in this study and dimension four surveyed for the instructor's reference. Dimension one (questions one to seven) focused on basic background inquiries to establish participants' past experiences with feedback. Dimensions two (questions 8-23) and three (questions 24-35) investigated psychological pressure and confusion resolution related to feedback methods, comparing PBL feedback with EMS feedback. Dimension five (questions 48-60) explored students' perceptions of improvement in translation competence. Novice

learners typically simplified translation into understanding the original text (input) and expressing the translated text (output), often unacademically mixing "translation techniques" in the latter. Thus, this dimension integrated students' perceptions of translation techniques into the output aspect, focusing analysis on input and output.

Data Analysis

This study analyzed the questionnaire, pretest and posttest, and self-reflective notes data. The questionnaire's first dimension involved basic background inquiries, detailed in the "Participants" subsection under "Methods." Students' past feedback experiences were examined by comparing their responses to three binary questions. Dimensions two, three, and five used a Likert five-point scale, categorizing responses as positive (agree and strongly agree) or negative (disagree and strongly disagree). Neutral responses were excluded from analysis to focus on comparing the ratios of positive to negative responses across these dimensions, revealing students' overall perceptions.

The analysis of pretest-posttest performance involved two parts: scoring and improvement assessment. Lai (2009) emphasized accuracy in comprehension (input) and fluency in expression (output) as crucial aspects in translation assessment. Her study on grading methods concluded that the two-dimensional six-four scale grading was valid, reliable, and effective (p. 178). This scale was adopted for scoring in this study, aligning with its use in Taiwan's Ministry of Education translation proficiency test 2007. Each sentence in the pretest and posttest, consisting of 14 sentences each, was scored based on this scale of "six points for Accuracy and four points for Fluency" (see Appendix). This scoring system with a total of 140 points is converted into percentage grades. SPSS software (version 22) was used for statistical analysis, including Pearson

correlation analysis for interrater reliability and paired sample *t*-tests for improvement assessment.

Self-reflective notes contained students' insights and reflections from comparing their translations with expert renditions. Notes from the first feedback stage were independently created by students, holding greater significance for their autonomous reflections. Conversely, notes from the second stage, influenced by teacher analysis, mainly documented teacher translations with less independent thinking. Therefore, the study focused primarily on reflections from the first stage. A total of 150 self-reflective notes were collected from 25 students across six translation exercises.

For analysis, the students' reflection records were categorized based on their areas of attention, aligning with the three main aspects of translation: input, transfer, and output. Regarding input, this study assessed model-triggered changes in students' understanding of the original text. Concerning transfer, the focus was on whether students identified specific translation techniques, referencing the classification standard of 16 techniques by Liao et al. (2013): transliteration, direct translation, elaborative translation, iconic translation, addition, reduction, transposition, perspective reversal, synchronizing, syntactic reversal, voice conversion, combining, splitting, recasting, domestication, and foreignization. For output, this study examined methods students noticed to enhance translation fluency, including expressive and rhetorical techniques. The frequency of each attention item was tallied from student self-reflective notes across all translation exercises.

For example, student no. 24 translated the original text "And if the police get cynical at this irresponsibility, they are hardly to blame" as 如果警察對這種不負責任感到憤世嫉俗，他們也很難責備那些人 , while the professional translator rendered it as 如果民眾總是事不關己，警察變得憤世嫉俗也就無可厚非了 . In the first stage of feedback, the student's self-reflective notes were as follows:

專家譯文的翻譯順序跟原文不一樣，先翻 "irresponsibility" 再翻 "the police get cynical"，與原文剛好顛倒，而且不是按照字典翻成「不負責任」，而是變成一句話「民眾總是事不關己」，這種翻法好特別，雖然跟原文結構不一樣，但意思好像差不多，把「不負責任」的概念轉成「事不關己」這個成語，讀起來很順，也符合上下文的情況，以前從來沒想到翻譯可以這樣轉換。"they are hardly to blame" 我原本以為是警察不應該怪那些不負責任的人，看了專家譯文後才知道原來意思剛好顛倒，是不能怪警察的意思，剛才查字典才發現真的是這樣。專家譯文把 "blame" 翻成「無可厚非」，也是成語的用法，讀起來比較有學問。

English translation (by the author): The expert's version alters the original expressive order by translating "irresponsibility" before "the police get cynical," reversing the sequence. Instead of a literal translation like 不負責任 for "irresponsibility," the expert transforms it into the phrase 民眾總是事不關己 . This special change retains the meaning effectively, albeit with a different structure. I never thought that the concept of "irresponsibility" could be transformed into the idiom 事不關己 , which reads smoothly and fits the context. I originally thought "they are hardly to blame" meant the police shouldn't blame those irresponsible people. Now I realize it suggests you can't blame the police, as confirmed by the dictionary. The expert's choice of 無可厚非 for "blame" adds elegance, employing an idiom that enhances the translation. (no. 24 student's reflection)

Analysis of the self-reflective notes identified several attention items noticed by the student during translation comparison: (a) reversing the expressive order of "irresponsibility" involved the technique of syntactic reversal, thus categorized and counted once under recasting; (b) translating "irresponsibility" into the clause 民眾

總是事不關己 demonstrated part-of-speech transposition, hence classified and counted once under transposition; (c) both 事不關己 and 無可厚非 were idiomatic phrases, categorized and counted twice under idiom and phrase; (d) clarifying the meaning of "they are hardly to blame" involved correcting a miscomprehension, classified and counted once under miscomprehension. These items were further categorized into three elements of translation competence: miscomprehension as input, recasting and transposition as transfer, and idiom and phrase as output.

Results

Questionnaire

Dimension one examined students' past experiences and feelings about feedback, analyzed in the "participants" subsection under "methods." Dimension two (Table 3) focused on students' psychological pressure from feedback, assessing self-esteem, confidence, and motivation. Questions eight, nine, 16, and 17 addressed the impact of feedback on self-esteem. For questions eight and nine, the positive-to-negative ratios were 13:6 and 12:8, indicating that most students felt PBL feedback affected their self-esteem. For questions 16 and 17, the ratios were 12:1 and 15:1, showing that more participants found EMS feedback helpful in reducing self-esteem pressure.

Questions 10, 11, 18, and 19 addressed the impact of feedback on confidence, measured by undermined confidence (10, 18) and feelings of inferiority (11, 19). For questions 10 and 11, the positive-to-negative ratios were 8:8 and 12:5, indicating that many respondents felt PBL feedback affected their confidence, particularly in their translation abilities. For questions 18 and 19, the ratios were 14:2 and 15:3, showing that most respondents found EMS feedback helpful in reducing confidence pressure.

Questions 12-15 and 20-23 focused on the impact of feedback on motivation, measuring four aspects: reduction in leaning incentives (12, 20), arousal of fear (13, 21), reluctance to attend class (14, 22), and future psychological stress (15, 23). The positive-to-negative response ratios for questions 12-15 were 4:19, 4:17, 4:19, and 4:16, indicating that most respondents believed PBL feedback had little effect on motivation. For questions 20-23, the ratios were 16:2, 14:2, 11:2, and 11:2, showing that most respondents found EMS feedback helpful in reducing stress and maintaining motivation.

The above survey results showed that PBL feedback burdened most students regarding self-esteem and confidence, which EMS feedback improved. In terms of motivation, the comparison between PBL and EMS did not highlight the effect of EMS feedback, as PBL feedback had little impact on motivation. However, EMS feedback did provide psychological comfort, alleviating concerns about motivation.

Table 3

Dimension Two: Psychological Pressure

Question	5	4	3	2	1	P:N
8. When I receive feedback on my translation, I worry that my translation flaws will be noticed by my peers.	0	13	6	4	2	13:6
9. During translation feedback, if the teacher directly points out the issues or mistakes in my translation, I feel embarrassed.	1	11	5	6	2	12:8
16. Expert translation examples alleviate my concerns about my translation flaws being noticed by peers.	2	10	12	0	1	12:1
17. Expert translation examples alleviate my concerns of feeling embarrassed due to being corrected.	2	13	9	1	0	15:1
10. During translation feedback, if the teacher directly points out the issues or mistakes in my translation, my confidence is undermined.	1	7	9	8	0	8:8
11. During translation feedback, if the teacher directly points out the issues or mistakes in my translation, I feel that my translation abilities are poor.	1	11	8	5	0	12:5

Table 3

Dimension Two: Psychological Pressure (continued)

Question	5	4	3	2	1	P:N
18. Expert translation examples alleviate my concerns of losing confidence due to being corrected.	1	13	9	2	0	14:2
19. Expert translation examples alleviate my concerns about feeling that my translation abilities are poor due to being corrected.	0	15	7	3	0	15:3
12. During translation feedback, if the teacher directly points out the issues or mistakes in my translation, my motivation to learn translation is reduced.	0	4	2	14	5	4:19
13. During translation feedback, if the teacher directly points out the issues or mistakes in my translation, I feel fearful of translation.	0	4	4	11	6	4:17
14. During translation feedback, if the teacher directly points out the issues or mistakes in my translation, I feel reluctant to attend translation classes.	0	4	2	13	6	4:19
15. During translation feedback, if the teacher directly points out the issues or mistakes in my translation, the psychological pressure increases for my future translation work.	0	4	5	11	5	4:16
20. Expert translation examples alleviate my concerns of losing motivation to learn translation due to being corrected.	0	16	7	2	0	16:2
21. Expert translation examples alleviate my concerns of feeling fearful of translation due to being corrected.	0	14	9	2	0	14:2
22. Expert translation examples alleviate my concerns of hesitating to attend translation classes due to being corrected.	1	10	12	2	0	11:2
23. Expert translation examples alleviate my concerns of experiencing increased psychological pressure for my future translation work due to being corrected.	0	11	12	2	0	11:2

Note. 5 (Strongly Agree), 4 (Agree), 3 (Neutral), 2 (Disagree), 1 (Strongly Disagree); P:N (Positive Side versus Negative Side).

Dimension three (Table 4) focused on feedback effectiveness in resolving student confusion, comparing PBL and EMS feedback across six aspects: identifying key issues (24, 30), revising (25, 31), starting information searches (26, 32), avoiding wrong directions (27, 33), meeting teacher standards (28, 34), and learning translation skills (29, 35). Affirmative to negative response ratios for questions 24-29 were 21:2, 19:1, 14:6, 21:2, 20:2, and 18:3, showing that PBL

feedback left most students confused. Ratios for questions 30-35 were 23:0, 22:1, 11:3, 15:1, 22:0, and 22:1, indicating that EMS feedback effectively reduced confusion and provided clear improvement directions.

Table 4

Dimension Three: Feedback Inspiration

Question	5	4	3	2	1	P:N
24. During translation feedback, if the teacher only points out issues or mistakes in my translation without providing suggestions for revisions, I worry that I might miss the key problems or errors.	3	18	2	1	1	21:2
30. Expert translation examples help me identify the key problems or errors in my own translation.	6	17	2	0	0	23:0
25. During translation feedback, if the teacher only points out issues or mistakes in my translation without providing suggestions for revisions, I'm concerned about not knowing how to make the revisions.	4	15	5	0	1	19:1
31. Expert translation examples help me understand how to revise my own translation.	4	18	2	1	0	22:1
26. During translation feedback, if the teacher only points out issues or mistakes in my translation without providing suggestions for revisions, I'm worried about not knowing how to do research to make improvements.	1	13	5	5	1	14:6
32. Expert translation examples help me learn how to do research to improve my translation.	1	10	11	3	0	11:3
27. During translation feedback, if the teacher only points out issues or mistakes in my translation without providing suggestions for revisions, I'm afraid that my research might lead me in the wrong direction, resulting in unresolved issues.	3	18	2	1	1	21:2
33. Expert translation examples help me identify the correct direction for doing research.	1	14	9	1	0	15:1
28. During translation feedback, if the teacher only points out issues or mistakes in my translation without providing suggestions for revisions, I'm concerned that even after making revisions, I might still not meet the teacher's standards.	1	19	3	2	0	20:2
34. Expert translation examples help me elevate the quality of my translation to meet the teacher's standards.	0	22	3	0	0	22:0
29. During translation feedback, if the teacher only points out issues or mistakes in my translation without providing suggestions for revisions, I'm worried about not being able to learn the principles and techniques of translation.	1	17	4	3	0	18:3
35. Expert translation examples help me learn independently and acquire the principles and techniques of translation.	3	19	2	1	0	22:1

Note. 5 (Strongly Agree), 4 (Agree), 3 (Neutral), 2 (Disagree), 1 (Strongly Disagree); P:N (Positive Side versus Negative Side).

The fifth dimension (Table 5) focused on students' perceptions of source comprehension (input), target expression (output), and overall progress. Questions 48, 56, and 57 assessed gains in input. Responses were predominantly affirmative, showing students benefited in various ways: expert translations clarified unclear parts (24:0), deepened comprehension of the content (23:0), and clarified words or phrases (24:0).

Table 5

Dimension Five: Perception of Translation Competence Improvement

Question	5	4	3	2	1	P:N
48. Expert translation examples can solve the comprehension issues I encounter when reading the original text.	6	18	1	0	0	24:0
56. Expert translation examples give me a deeper understanding of the content meaning in the original text.	6	17	2	0	0	23:0
57. Expert translation examples help me better understand the meanings of certain words and phrases in the original text.	10	14	1	0	0	24:0
49. Expert translation examples can solve the issues I encounter when doing translation.	4	20	1	0	0	24:0
50. Expert translation examples offer me a direction to revise my translation.	8	17	0	0	0	25:0
51. Expert translation examples inspire me and make me aware of different translation versions.	9	14	2	0	0	23:0
52. Expert translation examples help me learn translation techniques.	7	17	1	0	0	24:0
53. Expert translation examples make me aware of blind spots in my translation.	10	15	0	0	0	25:0
54. Expert translation examples familiarize me with Chinese words, phrases, and expressions I have never used before.	10	14	1	0	0	24:0
55. Expert translation examples help me improve my capacity for Chinese expressions.	8	16	1	0	0	24:0
58. Expert translation examples are beneficial for my translation learning.	8	16	1	0	0	24:0
59. Expert translation examples assist me in learning translation independently.	6	17	1	1	0	23:1
60. Expert translation examples can replace teacher guidance and explanations.	0	2	5	14	4	2:18

Note. 5 (Strongly Agree), 4 (Agree), 3 (Neutral), 2 (Disagree), 1 (Strongly Disagree); P:N (Positive Side versus Negative Side).

Questions 49 through 55 assessed gains in output, with overwhelmingly positive responses. Students benefited in multiple ways: expert translations solved translation issues (24:0), provided improvement directions (25:0), prompted the recognition of the diversity of translation (23:0), showcased different translation techniques (24:0), brought attention to overlooked aspects (25:0), helped learn new expressions (24:0), and improved Chinese writing skills (24:0).

Questions 58-60 addressed overall learning gains. The results indicated that expert examples were beneficial for translation learning (24:0) and self-study (23:1), but few agreed that they could replace teacher guidance and explications (2:18). Thus, the teacher's role remained complementary and essential.

In summary, EMS feedback effectively enhanced learning in source comprehension, target expression, and overall translation competence, with students benefiting from self-directed learning supported by teacher guidance.

Pretest and Posttest

The interrater reliability test (Table 6) showed a strong and significant correlation between the evaluations of the two raters for both the pretest ($r(23)$= 0.95, p< 0.001) and the posttest ($r(23)$= 0.96, p< 0.001). This confirmed the consistency of the scoring criteria across the raters.

Table 6

Interrater Reliability Test (Pearson Correlation Analysis)

Test	N	Pearson Correlation (r)	p
Pretest	25	0.95	< 0.001***
Posttest	25	0.96	< 0.001***

The progress assessments (Table 7) showed significant improvements. In accuracy, pretest scores (M= 43.54, SD= 3.84) improved to posttest scores (M=

45.59, *SD*= 4.63), t(24)= 2.996, *p*= 0.006, an increase of 2.05 points. In fluency, pretest scores (*M*= 25.3, *SD*= 2.62) improved to posttest scores (*M*= 27, *SD*= 2.72), t(24)= 2.598, *p*= 0.016, an increase of 1.7 points. Overall translation competence improved from pretest scores (*M*= 68.84, *SD*= 5.92) to posttest scores (*M*= 72.59, *SD*= 6.66), t(24)= 3.015, *p*= 0.006, an increase of 3.75 points.

Table 7

Progress Assessments (Paired Sample t-test)

Test	Pretest *M*	Posttest *M*	Pretest *SD*	Posttest *SD*	N	*t*	*p*
Accuracy	43.54	45.59	3.84	4.63	25	2.996	0.006**
Fluency	25.3	27	2.62	2.72	25	2.598	0.016*
Total Score	68.84	72.59	5.92	6.66	25	3.015	0.006**

* α = 0.05

Self-Reflective Notes

An analysis of self-reflective notes identified 20 specific elements noticed by students, ranked in Table 8 by frequency. These elements fell into four major categories: source text comprehension, target language expression, translation techniques, and format.

In source text comprehension, the most frequently noted element was miscomprehension (ranked 1st), indicating many instances where students recognized differences between their reading and the experts' understanding. This suggested significant improvement in source text comprehension.

The elements related to target language expression were diction (ranked 2nd), idiom and phrase (ranked 3rd), smoothing (ranked 4th), register (ranked 5th), implicitation (ranked 13th), consistency (ranked 18th), and noun number (ranked 19th). These issues encompassed inappropriate word choices, inadequate use of Chinese idioms, lack of fluency, stylistic inappropriateness, failure to leverage generalized expressions to convey the original intent, lexical inconsistency, and

unnecessary pluralization or singularization of Chinese nouns. All these impacted rhetorical and writing abilities in the target language.

In translation techniques, the noticed ones included specialized terminology (rank 9th), proper noun (rank 11th), addition (rank 6th), splitting (rank 7th), reduction (rank 8th), recasting (rank 10th), voice conversion (rank 14th), transposition (rank 15th), combining (rank 16th), perspective reversal (rank 17th), and domestication (rank 20th). Compared to the 16 techniques identified by Liao et al. (2013), participants recognized 11 techniques. Techniques not noted (elaborative translation, iconic translation, synchronizing, syntactic reversal, and foreignization) are less relevant in basic translation teaching. Elaborative and iconic translations, which fall under term translation, typically present no challenges in translation instruction. Synchronizing, a common strategy among novice translators, does not require special teaching. Syntactic reversal is a subset of the already-noticed recasting technique. Foreignization, which involves cultural transfer, is less common in basic translation training. Overall, participants acquired the essential techniques for English-to-Chinese translation.

Participants noted one issue with format: punctuation (rank 12th). The most common problem in punctuation was indiscriminately converting English periods to Chinese periods. Other issues included semicolons, dashes, and quotation marks.

Table 8

Elements Noticed by Students

Rank	Element	Count	Example
1	Miscomprehension	352	A: One attains an intimate understanding of the ways and values of the organization. B: 學員初步了解組織的運作方式和價值觀。 C: 學員深切體會組織的運作方式和價值觀。
2	Diction	344	A: These leaders-in-training need to know the extent of their own limitations. B: 這些仍在練習如何成為領導者的人，需深刻了解自己的極限。 C: 這些養成中的領導人才，必須認清自己的侷限。

Table 8

Elements Noticed by Students (continued)

Rank	Element	Count	Example
3	Idiom and Phrase	209	A: Followers' jobs are at their essence to do as they are told. B: 追隨者的職責在於他們做他們被要求做的事。 C: 服從的本質說穿了就是聽命行事。
4	Smoothing	193	A: I am concerned that there will be a temptation to revert to the superficial reassurance of the military response alone. B: 我擔心會有個誘因讓一切回復到軍事應對只是對人民表面上的保證。 C: 我擔心有人會走回頭路，僅靠軍事手段掃蕩以求一時的苟安。
5	Register	76	A: Morale is a matter of giving support and having faith in one another; where both are lacking, "law" has become a worthless word. B: 士氣是講求相互支持、彼此信任，如果這兩個都沒有，那「法律」就變成沒有價值的字眼。 C: 士氣講求的是相互支持、彼此信任，一旦兩者都付之闕如，「法律」就形同具文了。
6	Addition	69	A: the drastic reduction in affordable health services and affordable housing B: 負擔得起的醫療資源和房屋急遽的減少 C: 房價與醫療費用飆漲，民眾無力負擔
7	Splitting	59	A: Each person who comes to West Point learns where one's individual authority ends and where the institution's begins. B: 每一個來到西點軍校的人學到個人權力的結束和團體的開始。 C: 每個來到西點軍校的人都要了解，一旦服膺組織的權力，個人權力就得暫時拋開。
8	Reduction	53	A: About 40 some years ago, when it was revealed that cancer-inducing genes are inherited in our body, scientists rushed to identify the functions of these oncogenes. B: 大約四十多年前，當科學家一發現癌變基因遺傳至身體的時候，就迅速辨識這些致癌基因的功用。 C: 約四十多年前，科學家發現人體會遺傳致癌基因，便前仆後繼想找出這些致癌基因的作用機制。
9	Specialized Terminology	47	A: Src is a protein tyrosine kinase. B: Src 是一種蛋白酪胺酵素。 C: Src 是一種蛋白質酪胺酸激酶。
10	Recasting	45	A: The conviction that he is still alive is not confined to California, where a large number of citizens have always been ready to believe that the usual laws of time and space have been suspended or rewritten for their benefit. B: 抱持著他猶在世的想法的人不限加州，許多加州公民一直深信普通的時空法則已經為了他們而被中止或改寫。 C: 加州有大批居民深信他還在世，認為尋常的時空定律會為他們停擺或改寫，但抱持這種信念的人並不限於加州。

Table 8

Elements Noticed by Students (continued)

Rank	Element	Count	Example
11	Proper Noun	40	A: Elvis Presley is a case in point. B: 埃爾維斯・普列斯利就是最好的例子。 C: 貓王就是最好的例子。
12	Punctuation	40	A: The famous people were living human beings. Not even show business could conceal that fact. B: 名人也是活人。即使是演藝界也無法掩蓋這個事實。 C: 名人也是人，就連演藝圈也隱藏不了這個事實。
13	Implicitation	37	A: Otherwise, we will function only as incident responders, never getting to the root causes of crime, violence and fear. B: 否則，我們只能充當事故救援者，永遠無法找到犯罪、暴力和恐懼的根源。 C: 否則我們就只能治標，永遠無法根除犯罪、暴力和恐懼。
14	Voice Conversion	36	A: It has always been our dream that someday cancer can be conquered. B: 我們一直期望癌症某天能被征服。 C: 我們夢想有朝一日能戰勝癌症。
15	Transposition	35	A: We had a collapse of a range of social institutions. B: 我們遭遇一系列社會制度上的崩潰。 C: 各種社會機制連番崩解。
16	Combining	28	A: I believe in community policing. I see it as a logical and rational use of police resources. B: 我認同社區警務。我認為這種配置警力資源的方式是合理的。 C: 我相信社區警政能讓警力達到合理、有效的運用。
17	Perspective Reversal	26	A: The indulgent mother denies him nothing except responsibility. B: 溺愛孩子的母親除了責任以外幾乎什麼都不會拒絕他。 C: 溺愛的母親什麼都給他，就是沒有給他責任感。
18	Consistency	23	A: Every leader is a follower. For every leader, no matter how "supreme," there is always a higher authority who must be answered. B: 領導也必須服從，對每個領導而言，無論多麼至高無上，總會有更高的權威必須為其負責。 C: 領導和服從是一體兩面，一個領導再怎麼位高權重，上頭總有更高的權威必須服從。
19	Noun Number	21	A: A city official knows of a colleague's bribe but does not report it. B: 一位市政官員知道同事收賄卻不舉報。 C: 市府公務員知道同事受賄卻不舉報。
20	Domestication	12	A: a nice kid from a middle-class family B: 一個中產階級家庭的好小孩 C: 一個小康家庭的好孩子
	Total	1745	

Note. A (Original Text), B (Student Translation), C (Professional Translation with Marked Insights Noticed by Students).

Conclusion

This study investigates whether the EMS feedback strategy can address two issues of PBL feedback in an undergraduate translation course and answers three research questions. For the first research question (Does EMS feedback overcome the two PBL issues of student psychological pressure and bewilderment in solving translation problems?), questionnaire results indicated that PBL feedback significantly impacted self-esteem and confidence, with minimal effect on motivation. In contrast, EMS feedback did not cause psychological burdens in these aspects. Regarding bewilderment in problem-solving, PBL feedback left novice translators uncertain about the solution process, while EMS feedback clarified doubts and provided concrete guidance. Thus, the answer to the first research question is affirmative: EMS feedback effectively addresses the two issues of PBL feedback.

Concerning the second research question (Does EMS feedback lead to significant improvement in students' translation competence?), this study assessed students' translation performance in terms of accuracy (input) and fluency (output). Participants exhibited significant improvements in accuracy, fluency, and overall translation performance. Students' perceptions aligned with these findings, confirming the positive impact of EMS feedback on source comprehension, target expression, and overall translation abilities. Therefore, the answer to the second research question is positive: EMS feedback enhances English-to-Chinese translation competence.

To address the third research question (In EMS feedback, what elements do students consciously notice? Do these elements align with translation competence?), the self-reflective notes analysis identified 20 elements of student attention. These elements were categorized into source text comprehension, target

language expression, translation techniques, and format. These categories correspond closely to the three aspects of translation competence: source text comprehension concerns input, target language expression and format pertain to output, and translation techniques relate to transfer, illustrated in Figure 3.

Figure 3

Translation Competence Dimensions

Input (source text + comprehension)	→	Transfer (techniques + conversion)	→	Output (polishing + target text)
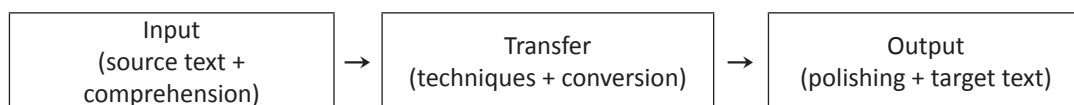
Based on this, the third research question can be answered: The 20 elements noticed by students during feedback align comprehensively with the three aspects of translation competence: input, transfer, and output. Miscomprehension, the most frequently noted element, highlights the discrepancy between students' gist-based reading habits and the rigorous comprehension demands in translation. Students' tendency to prioritize general understanding over minor details in reading may easily cause comprehension errors in translation. Additionally, the significant attention given to target language expression underscores challenges in output, reflecting students' struggles with expressive and writing abilities. Finally, students' recognition of English-to-Chinese translation techniques during the transfer phase indicates their ability to acquire essential translation skills through comparative analysis, albeit without explicit awareness of the techniques used. In conclusion, EMS feedback effectively engages students across all three facets of translation competence.

The self-reflective notes highlight students' independent study outcomes. When organized, these notes provide valuable material for translation instruction, offering a systematic understanding of input, transfer, and output, and enhancing

learning impressions. This material, blending teacher-supplied content with student-generated reflections, exemplifies meaningful teacher-student collaboration, contrasting with traditional teacher-only material provision.

The effectiveness of EMS feedback can be analyzed from three aspects: expert models, student self-reflection, and the two-stage feedback strategy. Expert model texts (professional translations and teacher translations) provide exemplary demonstrations and show translation variations. Student self-reflection fosters active engagement and autonomous learning. In the two-stage feedback, students first see professional translations, then observe teacher and professional translations along with fragments of peer versions, highlighting translation diversity. The teacher guides analytical comparisons, emphasizing flexibility in translation. Thus, EMS feedback, supported by teacher guidance, is the major factor in enhancing learning, while the impact of sporadic student fragments is minimal.

The principle of EMS feedback can be expounded by theories of input and output. For input, translation involves both the static source text and the dynamic process of comprehension. Students generally grasp the main content idea but may struggle with details, which aligns with Krashen's (1982, 1985) "comprehensible input" theory. Under the workings of Schmidt's (1990, 2001) "noticing hypothesis," students identify unclear parts of the text and improve understanding through research and expert translation comparisons, which serve the functions of confirmation, correction, and inspiration. For output, translation involves the static translated text and the dynamic process of refinement, which highlights challenges in target-language expression and writing skills. As Swain's (1985) "comprehensible output" hypothesis suggests, students notice gaps between their translations and the feedback, adjusting their assumptions, which is mirrored in their self-reflective notes. Thus, this study embodies Swain's (1995) three functions of output: noticing gaps, testing hypotheses, and internalizing knowledge through self-reflection.

In conclusion, effective translation learning hinges on comprehension and attention across input, transfer, and output stages. Teachers play a crucial role in fostering understanding and attention among students. This study highlights the pivotal role of expert translation models and student self-reflection in this process. By recording their reflective journey, students engage deeply with expert models, initiate critical reflection on translation, and internalize their translation knowledge through adjustments and corrections. Thus, EMS feedback facilitates active and meaningful student participation, showcasing advancements in translation competence and providing empirical support for theories by Krashen (1982, 1985), Schmidt (1990, 2001), and Swain (1985, 1995, 2000, 2005).

Research Limitations: This study employs a sequential presentation of professional and teacher translations in two feedback stages to achieve its objectives. However, simultaneous presentation and concurrent student self-reflection may also achieve learning effects. Due to the scope of this study, an analysis comparing these two feedback methods is not feasible here and can be considered for future research. Besides, students in this study are not required to produce new translations post-feedback, raising questions about their ability to generate independent and creative translations following EMS feedback. Moreover, the questionnaire format, which contrasts negative inquiries about PBL feedback with positive ones about EMS feedback, may subtly influence student responses. While suggestive effects appear minimal in this study judging from students' responses, future research should mitigate potential biases in questionnaire design to enhance credibility.

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Appendix

Two-Dimensional Six-Four Scale

Points	Accuracy Scale
6 pts.	The message conveyed in the translation is exactly the same as the original text, without any errors.
5 pts.	The message conveyed in the translation is roughly the same as the original text, but there is a minor error.
4 pts.	The message conveyed in the translation is different from the original text, with two or more minor errors.
3 pts.	The message conveyed in the translation is quite different from the original text, with either one major error or three or more minor errors.
2 pts.	The message conveyed in the translation is extremely different from the original text, with two or more major errors, or just a literal word-for-word interpretation.
1 pt.	The message conveyed in the translation is fundamentally different from the original text, or it is completely mistranslated.

Points	Fluency Scale
4 pts.	The statement is clear and articulate, with appropriate vocabulary, register, collocation, and punctuation.
3 pts.	The statement is generally clear and intelligible, but there are one or two inappropriate word choices or expressions, or there may be misspelled words, wrongly written characters, redundant words, etc.
2 pts.	The statement is barely intelligible, but there are syntactical errors, as well as quite a few inappropriate word choices and expressions.
1 pt.	The statement does not conform to the syntax, making it difficult to understand or completely mistranslated.

Note. The scale was translated from Chinese into English by the present researcher.

Making Science Fun With Storybots:
Subtitling Metaphors in Educational Cartoons

Amina Tahraoui   Taous Gacemi

Cartoons play a significant role in children's learning, especially when combining scientific concepts with fun and humor. Subtitling these valuable resources deserves our attention as the quality and the comprehensibility of the resulting audiovisual product matter. In this regard, the present paper aimed to investigate translation strategies used for subtitling science-related intersemiotic metaphors in Netflix educational cartoon *Ask the StoryBots*. The cognitive model of Lakoff and Johnson (2003) and the concept of "polysemiotic message" (Pedersen, 2015) were considered for analysis. Qualitative data analysis also adopted a set of subtitling strategies based on the combination of Pederson's (2015) strategies for subtitling visualized metaphors and Alshunnag's (2016) strategies for translating metaphors in biomedical texts. Findings revealed that proper handling of intersemiotic metaphors requires careful consideration of all the audiovisual channels to convey both the intended meaning and effect lying behind the metaphors. Key priorities for the subtitler are delivering the metaphorical meaning, maintaining the intersemiotic cohesion between the channels, and ensuring adequate understanding among the young target audience.

Keywords: audiovisual translation, educational cartoons, English-Arabic subtitling, intersemiotic metaphors, science

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故事機器人讓科學變得有趣：
教育卡通中的隱喻字幕

Amina Tahraoui　Taous Gacemi

卡通在兒童學習中扮演重要角色，尤其是將科學概念結合趣味和幽默的時候。為這些寶貴資源製作字幕應該受到重視，因為它們所產生的視聽產品品質和可理解性非常重要。就此而言，本文旨在研究 Netflix 教育卡通片《知識小奇兵》（*Ask the StoryBots*）中與科學相關跨語言隱喻字幕所使用的翻譯策略。分析時採用了 Lakoff 與 Johnson（2003）的認知模型及 Pedersen（2015）的「多符號訊息」概念。質性資料分析亦採用一套字幕策略，其基礎是結合 Pederson（2015）的可視化隱喻字幕策略和 Alshunnag（2016）的生物醫學文本中隱喻的翻譯策略。研究結果顯示，恰當處理跨符號隱喻需要仔細考量所有視聽頻道，以傳達隱喻背後的意圖和效果。字幕製作者的主要任務是傳達隱喻意義、維持頻道間的語言連貫性，以及確保年輕的目標受眾能夠充分理解。

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Introduction

Cartoons hold an important place in children's lives, creating moments of joy and transporting them to a magical world of fantasy. Through imaginary characters, children learn about the world around them, exploring themes such as human relationships, the significance of family and friendship, and concepts of good and evil. The content of cartoons, including humorous scenes, significantly influences children's social interactions (Abu Ya'qoub, 2013, p. 18). Engaging stories that combine sound, image, and movement have multiple effects on cognitive development and behavioral characteristics. Educational institutions recognize this potential and strive to utilize cartoons as pedagogical tools to achieve various educational objectives (Al-Moumeni et al., 2011, p. 653).

In education, traditional teaching methods often struggle to effectively explain complex topics, such as planetary motion or the movement of blood within vessels. Educational cartoons simplify these scientific concepts, enhancing understanding and facilitating knowledge acquisition. When used in the classroom, they foster enthusiasm and dynamism among students, positively impacting learning and achievement (Al-Moumeni et al., 2011, p. 654). A study investigating the impact of cartoons on teaching science to sixth-grade students focused on the unit "Human Body and Its Health" from Jordan's sixth-grade science curriculum, using the animated program "Kān Yā Makān" (Once Upon a Time). The experimental group that received cartoon-based instruction for one month scored higher on the final science test (Al-Moumeni et al., 2011, p. 656). Based on their findings, the researchers emphasize the necessity of using educational animation programs in teaching science to primary school students (Al-Moumeni et al., 2011, p. 676). Similar studies support this perspective, indicating that educational cartoons help students develop skills and achieve instructional objectives while motivating them

to explore scientific phenomena (Al-Moumeni et al., 2011, p. 667).

In another study, Pathmanathan (2014) explored the benefits of humor in "informal science learning" (p. 94). Through interviews and classroom observations with children aged 7 to 11, she concluded that animated films, which are both entertaining and scientifically accurate, are beneficial for learning science, such as "*Finding Nemo*," which contains information about marine biology. Pathmanathan (2014) argues that both educational and entertainment programs that include accurate factual information combine humor with education. These programs allow children to learn through emotional engagement, as "emotional scenes" can trigger the release of "noradrenaline" in the brain, enhancing memory (Southwick et al., 2002, as cited in Pathmanathan, 2014, p. 97). She asserts that mild emotions and humor are particularly effective for improving memory, facilitating both declarative and procedural types of long-term memory. It seems that the second type comes into play and allows children to process scientific information cognitively from entertaining programs (Pathmanathan, 2014, p. 97). In her research, including references to the film *Finding Nemo*, she suggests that mild humor may increase "engagement and attention" among students. Thus, she highlights the role of entertainment programs as powerful tools that can motivate students to explore science (Pathmanathan, 2014, pp. 104-105).

Given this context, the present paper aims to investigate the translation strategies used for subtitling science-related metaphors in *Ask the StoryBots*, an educational cartoon available on Netflix, a streaming service that enables members to view a variety of programs on any device with an internet connection. As demonstrated, cartoons can significantly enhance children's learning by combining scientific concepts with entertainment. The two episodes analyzed in this study (Spiridellis & Spiridellis, 2018a, 2018b) use metaphors to simplify concepts related to health, immunity, and disease. A metaphor is a figure of speech where the

speaker compares one thing to another (Kövecses, 2010), such as "time is money," to explain, convince, or express emotions more effectively.

Metaphors are frequently employed in popular science to engage a non-specialized audience. In "popular biomedical discourse," they play a crucial role in making this field accessible to the "lay reader" (Alshunnag, 2016, pp. 72-73). However, translation studies have primarily focused on metaphors in literary discourse, with limited attention given to metaphors in scientific genres (Ashuja'a et al., 2019, p. 26). Furthermore, metaphors in audiovisual contexts have been even less explored. According to Pedersen (2015), they are often overlooked, especially in subtitling (p. 167).

In the Arab context, as far as the researchers know, audiovisual translation of scientific material, particularly for children remains largely under-researched. Most existing studies focus on movies, series, or non-educational cartoons. This study aims to fill that gap, providing insights into this significant area of children's education. It seeks to answer the following central questions:

1. What subtitling strategies are used to translate intersemiotic metaphors in *Ask the StoryBots* from English into Arabic?

2. What challenges are associated with subtitling intersemiotic metaphors?

This paper adopts Lakoff and Johnson's (2003) cognitive view of metaphors and more importantly, Pedersen's (2015) concept of the "polysemiotic message" (p. 177). "Polysemiotic" refers to the combination of different semiotic systems often found in audiovisual programs. Data analysis will utilize a set of subtitling strategies based on Pedersen's strategies for subtitling visualized metaphors and Alshunnag's (2016) strategies for translating metaphors in biomedical texts. The analysis will be qualitative.

Metaphors

Following the cognitive perspective, Lakoff and Johnson (2003) developed a theory suggesting that metaphors are not merely literary devices, as traditionally viewed, but are as fundamental to our lives as "our sense of touch." They argue that metaphors are "pervasive in everyday life, not just in language but in thought and action" (p. 237). Our ordinary conceptual system is "fundamentally metaphorical in nature" (p. 3), indicating that our thinking and actions are deeply intertwined with metaphors. Metaphorical thinking occurs frequently and often unconsciously (p. 272).

In scientific contexts, metaphors serve as "an effective tool for communicating, explaining, simplifying, […] thus popularising specialised knowledge" (Alshunnag, 2016, p. 71). Many biomedicine specialists recognize their value in familiarizing readers with complex concepts (Alshunnag, 2016, p. 73). Thus, Lakoff and Johnson's (2003) cognitive view of metaphors is relevant to this study on science-related metaphors, as it acknowledges their communicative functions beyond poetic and aesthetic uses.

Lakoff and Johnson (2003) categorize metaphors into two levels: The conceptual system and the linguistic expressions derived from it. For instance, the conceptual metaphor "argument is war" leads to expressions commonly used in discussions and debates, such as "I demolished your argument" (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003, p. 6). Metaphors help people understand "one kind of thing in terms of another" (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003, p. 5), particularly when dealing with complex and abstract concepts that can be better grasped through concrete objects. Consequently, the metaphor is created between two domains: the target domain that we attempt to comprehend and the source domain that helps us in this process. For example, the metaphor "genes are steering life" portrays genes as entities with

goals, aiding comprehension of their functions (Pramling & Säljö, 2007, as cited in Alshunnag, 2016, p. 73). This metaphor maps elements from the source domain of "human/person" onto the target domain of "genes."

Lakoff and Johnson (2003) further classify metaphors into three categories: structural, orientational, and ontological.

1. Structural metaphors: One concept or experience is "metaphorically structured in terms of another" (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003, p. 14). In the conceptual metaphor "argument is war," expressions like "he shot down all of my arguments" illustrate how arguments are understood through the lens of war (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003, pp. 4-5).

2. Orientational metaphors: These provide concepts with "a spatial orientation," such as health and sickness, where health is associated with "up" and sickness with "down." Examples include "he's in top shape" and "he's sinking fast," based on the perception that "serious illness forces us to lie down physically" (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003, pp. 14-15).

3. Ontological metaphors: These enable us to conceptualize thoughts and feelings as entities, making them quantifiable. For instance, in the metaphor "inflation is an entity," expressions like "inflation is lowering our standard of living" illustrate this concept (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003, pp. 25-26).

In the revised edition of their book, Lakoff and Johnson (2003) critically reassess their original taxonomy from 1980. They argue that the classification into structural, orientational, and ontological categories is "artificial," asserting that all metaphors are both structural and ontological, and many are orientational: "All metaphors are structural (in that they map structures to structures); all are ontological (in that they create target domain entities); and many are orientational (in that they map orientational image-schemas)" (p. 264).

Thus, while our corpus analysis considers the three-category classification, it

primarily adopts the revised two-type taxonomy. We will describe the metaphors in our corpus as either structural-ontological or orientational, as appropriate.

Translating Metaphors

The cognitive perspective has significantly influenced research on metaphor translation. Instead of viewing metaphors merely as linguistic expressions, this approach considers the conceptual frameworks of both the source language (SL) and the target language (TL) (Alshunnag, 2016, p. 51). This awareness highlights potential translation issues arising from the differences between SL and TL conceptual systems. For instance, Ashuja'a et al. (2019) assert that English and Arabic categorize metaphors differently (p. 26); thus, something considered a metaphor in one language may not be viewed as such in the other.

One key factor contributing to discrepancies between languages and resulting translation challenges is culture. Al-Hasnawi (2007) argues that culture significantly impacts the processes of "symbolization and conceptualization" (p. 4) within language systems. Differences in cultural perceptions and beliefs are reflected in the conceptual metaphors of each language and their linguistic expressions. Consequently, translating metaphors can be challenging, as they represent "human real-world experiences" that are often not identical across cultures (Al-Hasnawi, 2007, p. 10).

In this context, Al-Hasnawi (2007) suggests that metaphors may not always correspond to the same cognitive domains in both source and target languages (p. 493). This discrepancy complicates the translator's task, as they must engage in "conceptual mapping" to achieve "cognitive equivalence" for the target audience. The translator should introduce a new TL image that aligns with the target culture, a strategy referred to by Al-Hasnawi (2007) as "the strategy of different cognitive

mapping" (p. 8). When a similar cognitive domain exists in the TL, the translation can yield an equivalent metaphor. However, if such a mapping is unavailable, the translation process becomes more complex, potentially resulting in a simile, paraphrase, footnote, explanation, deletion, or an alternative metaphor. Al-Hasnawi (2007) differentiates between metaphors with "similar mapping conditions" and those with "different mapping conditions," which complicate translation decisions.

In the biomedical genre, Alshunnag (2016) examined the translation of metaphors from English into Arabic in articles from *Scientific American and Majallat al Ouloum*. He found that 93.57% of source text (ST) metaphors were preserved in the target text (TT) using elaboration, explication, and shifts to different TT metaphorical expressions that shared similar conceptualizations with the ST. In contrast, the use of different TT metaphors, non-metaphorical renditions, and deletions was less frequent (Alshunnag, 2016, pp. 283-284). His findings indicate that English and Arabic share many conceptualizations related to "natural domains" (Alshunnag, 2016, p. 290). Based on this data analysis, we will assess the extent to which the metaphors in our corpus are preserved in the target language. Before doing so, we will discuss the challenges associated with metaphors in the audiovisual context.

Metaphors in Audiovisual Translation

According to Pedersen (2015), while metaphors have garnered significant attention in translation research, few studies have addressed the complexities that arise in audiovisual settings. He argues that such settings introduce "layers of complexity" (p. 162), leading to challenges specific to various audiovisual translation modes, including dubbing, subtitling, and voice-over. This paper focuses on subtitling, which is widely used to translate audiovisual materials

worldwide. Díaz-Cintas and Remael (2014) define subtitling as:

> A translation practice that consists of presenting a written text, generally on the lower part of the screen, that endeavors to recount the original dialogue of the speakers as well as the discursive elements that appear in the image [...] and the information that is contained on the soundtrack (songs, voices off). (p. 8)

This definition implies that subtitling must address the multiple dimensions of the audiovisual product, making the task more complex. It is described as "a multi-layered and multi-semiotic mode of translation" (Bahaa-Eddin, 2006, p. 96). In the English-Arabic context, previous studies have indicated that challenges can be linguistic, cultural, and technical (Thawabteh, 2011, p. 40). Salhab (2017) emphasizes that subtitling must consider additional elements not present in written translation, such as subtitle placement on the screen and synchronization with the visuals (p. 27). Moreover, good segmentation and brevity are essential to enhance viewers' reading speed (Thawabteh, 2011). While linguistic difficulties arise in both translation and subtitling, they are exacerbated in the latter due to technical constraints affecting the translator's lexical, syntactic, and stylistic choices (Thawabteh, 2011, p. 27).

Furthermore, subtitling represents a unique form of audiovisual translation, transitioning from spoken to written language, which can lead to challenges related to dialects and registers. Salhab (2017) notes the difficulty of conveying spoken language features such as "tone or accents" in subtitles (pp. 30-31). If a "humorous effect" is intended, the subtitler may struggle to preserve the original message in the target text.

Given that this study focuses on children, it is crucial to consider their ability to understand both the content of the audiovisual material and the subtitles. Abu Ya'qoub (2013) highlights the importance of translators being aware

of children's cognitive levels and developmental stages, as well as the specificities of different age groups when selecting appropriate subtitling strategies (p. 92). Similarly, Salhab (2017) discusses these considerations in the context of science fiction films (p. 120).

In addition to the aforementioned challenges, Pedersen (2015) addresses the issue of "intersemiotic tension," which can be further complicated when metaphors are involved. He notes that various channels interact in audiovisual programs, including: (a) verbal channels of discourse: audio (spoken language) and visual (written language); and (b) non-verbal channels: audio (like music) and visual (what is displayed on the screen) (pp. 162-163).

Generally, "semiotic cohesion" among these different channels is necessary to effectively convey the program's message. However, "semiotic tension" can also enhance the visual appeal and impact of scenes (Pedersen, 2015, p. 169). In the case of "visualized metaphors," further challenges may arise due to this "polysemiotic context." Ambiguity can occur between the literal and figurative meanings of metaphors, particularly when the TL lacks an "equivalent expression" for such metaphors (Pedersen, 2015, pp. 162-163).

Given that technical constraints prevent subtitlers from including clarifications or footnotes, a lack of suitable solutions may exacerbate "intersemiotic tension." To address this issue, Pedersen (2015) recommends considering the "polysemiotic message" derived from all channels (p. 177). This includes aspects such as imagery, color, gestures, facial expressions, and the tone, stress, rhythm, and intonation of linguistic expressions, along with music and sound effects. Additionally, subtitlers must ascertain whether the SL and TL cultures share the same "image" used in the visualized metaphor; if not, their intervention may be necessary to ensure the audience comprehends the intended message of the SL (Pedersen, 2018, p. 31).

Corpus of the Study and Methodology

Two episodes from the animated series *Ask the StoryBots* form the corpus of our study. The StoryBots are five humorous creatures who embark on adventures to various places, such as planets and forests, in search of answers to children's questions about topics like animal types or the importance of recycling. Our study focuses on intersemiotic metaphors in episodes 2 and 8 from season II (Spiridellis & Spiridellis, 2018a, 2018b), which were streamed on Netflix in 2018. Both episodes address themes related to health, disease, and the human immune system.

In episode 2, titled "Why Can't I Eat Dessert All the Time?" (Spiridellis & Spiridellis, 2018b), Christina Applegate plays a bakery owner, while a piece of broccoli and a cupcake teach the StoryBots about healthy nutrition. Episode 8, "How Do People Catch a Cold?" (Spiridellis & Spiridellis, 2018a) features Wanda Sykes as a doctor, guiding the StoryBots on their journey to the Land of the Lymph to understand how a cold virus affects the human body.

The following section presents examples of intersemiotic metaphors along with the subtitling strategies employed to translate them. We identified the metaphors and analyzed the subtitling strategies used to translate them from English into Arabic, based on a combination of two taxonomies: Pedersen's (2015) taxonomy, which focuses on visualized metaphors, and Alshunnag's (2016) taxonomy, which pertains to metaphors in written translation within the biomedical genre, relevant to our corpus.

Pedersen's Taxonomy

Pedersen's (2015) taxonomy includes the following subtitling strategies:

    1. Translation sensu stricto: word-for-word translation.

    2. Substitution: replacing one figure of speech in the ST with another in the TT.

3. Paraphrase: replacing the metaphor with a non-metaphorical expression.

4. Compensation: where a metaphor replaces a non-metaphorical expression, or a metaphor is added where none existed in the ST.

5. Complete omission.

6. Specification: where a metaphor is rendered and also explained.

7. Retention: where a metaphor is transferred without translation. (pp. 155-156)

Alshunnag's Taxonomy

Alshunnag (2016) proposed strategies based on a combination of various scholars' approaches:

1. The TT metaphor corresponds linguistically and conceptually to the ST metaphor, which includes:

   a. Literal rendering of the ST metaphorical expression.

   b. Explication of the ST metaphorical expression in the TT.

   c. More elaborate translation of the ST metaphorical expression in the TT.

   d. Translation with a different TT metaphorical expression that is conceptually related to the ST metaphor.

2. The ST conceptual metaphor is rendered differently in the TT with a different conceptual and metaphorical expression.

3. The ST metaphorical expression is translated into a non-metaphorical expression in the TT, resulting in no conceptual metaphor.

4. The ST metaphorical expression is not rendered at all in the TT, leading to the deletion of the conceptual metaphor.

5. A new conceptual metaphor is created in the TT. (p. 61)

Proposed Taxonomy

After comparing the two categorizations and omitting strategies not relevant to our corpus or the English-Arabic translation pair, we propose the following taxonomy:

1. Retention: The original metaphor is maintained without translation.

2. Literal translation.

3. Different metaphorical expressions but similar conceptualization.

4. Elaboration: A metaphor is rendered and explained.

5. Different conceptual and metaphorical expressions.

6. Paraphrase: The metaphor is explained or rendered with a non-metaphorical word or expression, resulting in the loss of the metaphor.

In the following section, we will examine the strategies employed by the subtitler and assess the extent to which they conveyed the metaphorical meaning.

Analysis and Discussion

The examples presented below are categorized according to the composite taxonomy proposed in the previous section. While the metaphors in question are visualized, we will reference Lakoff and Johnson's (2003) categorization whenever applicable. However, it is important to note that this cognitive model does not fully encompass the complexity and diverse dimensions of intersemiotic metaphors.

Retention

Table 1

Example One

SL	TL	Time	Strategy
"What have you brought back today, <u>Maxy</u>?" (Spiridellis & Spiridellis, 2018a, 11:28-11:33)	ما الذي أحضرته معك اليوم يا ماكسي ؟ [What did you bring today Maxi?] (Spiridellis & Spiridellis, 2018a, 11:28-11:33)	Episode 8 11:28-11:33	Retention

This metaphor leverages intersemiotic effects, as "Maxi," a macrophage (a type of white blood cell), is depicted as a dog that brings everything in its path to its owner. The name "Max" is humorously associated with dogs, drawing the viewer's attention. This structural-ontological metaphor (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003) effectively conveys the abstract functions of lymphocytes in the human body, which may be difficult for children to grasp. The accompanying sound of barking reinforces the idea of a "faithful dog." The intersemiotic junction of text, sound, and image creates a rich intersemiotic metaphor, connoting loyalty, as lymphocytes are always prepared to protect the body from harm.

The translator retained the name "Maxi," as the image clearly depicts a dog, ensuring that the audiovisual channels (image and dialogue) are consistent. However, using an Arabic name for the dog could have been an alternative. In episode 2, the translator kept the name "Brock O. Lee," treating it as a proper noun rather than merely a reference to a vegetable. This wordplay in English elevates the character's status within the cartoon. The translator could have opted for "القرنبيط الأخضر" (broccoli) but likely chose the shorter form (بروك أولي , Brūk Ūlī) to optimize reading speed for young viewers.

Literal Translation

Table 2

Example Two

SL	TL	Time	Strategy
"Welcome to the <u>land of the lymph</u>!" (Spiridellis & Spiridellis, 2018a, 11:36-11:37)	أهلا بكم فى <u>أرض اللمفاويات</u> ! [Welcome to the <u>land the lymphocytes</u>!] (Spiridellis & Spiridellis, 2018a, 11:36-11:37)	Episode 8 11:36-11:37	Literal translation

This comparison immerses children in a realm of imagination, serving as a structural-ontological metaphor that portrays blood as a land filled with lymphocytes. This imagery can resonate with their real-world experiences related to space and planets, as they are naturally drawn to the mysteries of the sky. However, this depiction transforms into a magical world adorned with vibrant blue and purple colors, suggesting an enchanting experience. The linguistic expression intertwines a scientific metaphor—juxtaposing the universe with biology.

Older children may recognize the figurative meanings and connotations of the word " أرض " (arḍ), such as in " أرض الوطن " (arḍ al-waṭan), meaning "homeland." For younger children, this Arabic expression opens doors to their imagination, enhancing their engagement with the content.

Table 3

Example Three

SL	TL	Time	Strategy
(Helper T is talking) "There are many types of white blood cells. But we are all part of the immune system. We protect the body from all sorts of <u>foreign invaders</u>." (Spiridellis & Spiridellis, 2018a, 11:47-11:57)	(هيلبرتي تتحدث) هناك العديد من أنواع كريات الدم البيضاء و لكننا جزء من النظام المناعي. و نحن نحمي الجسم من كل أنواع <u>الغزاة الخارجيين</u> [(Helper T is talking) There are many types of white blood cells, but we are all part of the immune system, and we protect the body from all kinds of <u>foreign invaders</u>] (Spiridellis & Spiridellis, 2018a, 11:47-11:57)	Episode 8 11:47-11:57	Literal translation

The cartoon expands on the theme of space by comparing bacteria, viruses, and other infections to invaders seeking to conquer new territories, illustrating a structural-ontological metaphor. The subtitling effectively captures this concept, presenting an equivalent translation that successfully engages children's attention.

Table 4

Example Four

SL	TL	Time	Strategy
"Why is everybody acting this way? Because <u>we're full of sugar!</u>" (Spiridellis & Spiridellis, 2018b, 11:17-11:23)	لم يتصرف الجميع بهذه الطريقة؟ <u>لأننا مليؤون بـ .. .السكر !</u> [Why is everyone behaving this way? <u>Because we are full of sugar.</u>] (Spiridellis & Spiridellis, 2018b, 11:17-11:23)	Episode 2 11:17-11:23	Literal translation

This structural-ontological metaphor suggests that overeating sugar is akin to being full of alcohol or being drunk. While the metaphor was literally translated, it could have been rendered as "لأننا ثملون," which would be more appropriate for older children. Although the metaphorical meaning was conveyed by calquing the culture-bound expression "full of," a more natural Arabic equivalent would have been preferable.

Table 5

Example Five

SL	TL	Time	Strategy
"Welcome to <u>Tummy University</u> StoryBots!" (Spiridellis & Spiridellis, 2018b, 10:00-10:04)	أهلا بكم في <u>جامعة "البطن"</u> "يا "روبوتات المعرفة . [Welcome to <u>Belly University</u> StoryBots] (Spiridellis & Spiridellis, 2018b, 10:00-10:04)	Episode 2 10:00-10:04	Literal translation

In this scene, Jake the cupcake welcomes his guests and describes the stomach as a "university." The animated program employs a structural-ontological metaphor by replacing the real-life entity "stomach" with the concrete concept of "university," emphasizing that humans must learn what and how to eat. The subtitling strategy used here is "literal translation." Although this expression does not exist in Arabic culture, it was created in the English context for the cartoon's needs, producing a humorous effect that can be understood by Arab children with the aid of nonverbal elements, such as the accompanying image.

The colloquial term "tummy," commonly used with children, is translated into the standard Arabic term "البطن" (al-baṭan [belly]). This conventional term is suitable for all ages. While various Arab dialects offer words similar to "tummy" in register, the subtitler appears to favor standard Arabic to ensure clarity for all viewers in the Arab world.

Retention and Literal Translation

Table 6

Example Six

SL	TL	Time	Strategy
	من هذا؟		
"Whoa! Who's that guy? You mean <u>old Dean Bananas</u>? Forget him and feast your eyes on Alpha Kobbler Pie! Home of the sweetest parties on campus!" (Spiridellis & Spiridellis, 2018b, 10:06-10:20)	<u>تعني عميد الكلية القديم بنانا؟</u> إنس أمره و متع ناظريك! ألفا كوبلر باي مركز أجمل الحفلات في الحرم الجامعي! [Who is that? You mean <u>the old college dean Banana</u>? Forget about him and feast your eyes. Alpha Kobbler Pie! Centre of the most beautiful parties in the campus!] (Spiridellis & Spiridellis, 2018b, 10:06-10:20)	Episode 2 10:06-10:20	Retention and literal translation

One of the StoryBots notices a golden banana statue standing outside, and while he is amazed, Jake sees it as no longer significant. This metaphor can be classified as structural-ontological, as it describes a state represented by "a golden banana," which connotes the golden age of fruits and vegetables that has now faded into history. Additionally, it highlights the concept of fashionable junk food.

The translation strategy employed here is a combination of literal translation and retention (borrowing), as the Arabic version maintains the word "banana" as a proper name. This use of "banana" may also carry a metaphorical, pejorative meaning intended for sarcasm, irony, or humor, suggesting that this kind of food is now considered "silly" and undesirable.

The contrast lies in the fact that while "banana" typically refers to a sweet, pulpy fruit we enjoy for dessert, the "old Dean" has become unnoticed, overshadowed by junk food. In this context, the old Dean "Banana" appears reduced to a mere humorous character, despite its intrinsic value behind the golden yellow peel.

The interplay of linguistic and intersemiotic elements is evident when considering the expression "Old Dean Banana" alongside the golden statue, which stands outside the "party." However, it is important to note that the Arabic translation does not fully capture the metaphorical meaning of the original. Given the constraints of the audiovisual context, finding a suitable alternative is challenging.

Different Metaphorical Expressions With Similar Conceptualization

Table 7

Example Seven

SL	TL	Time	Strategy
"Sugar may give you energy, but you crash hard" (Spiridellis & Spiridellis, 2018b, 16:11-16:16)	قد يمنحك السكر الطاقة ولكنك ستنهار سريعا. [Sugar may give you energy, but you will quickly collapse] (Spiridellis & Spiridellis, 2018b, 16:11-16:16)	Episode 2 16:11-16:16	Different metaphorical expressions but same conceptualization

The scene depicts police officers arriving to arrest the "drunk on sugar." This metaphor is structural-ontological, reflecting the frustration and weakness felt by the StoryBot who has overindulged in sugar at the party. The phrase "to crash" evokes the harmful physical and psychological effects often associated with alcohol consumption (Urban Dictionary, n.d.-a). The subtitling strategy effectively utilizes

a more natural Arabic expression, successfully conveying the metaphorical meaning and the character's predicament.

Table 8

Example Eight

SL	TL	Time	Strategy
"He will <u>eat up</u> anything in his path! He's actually quite friendly once you get to know him. Right " Maxy "? (Roww) (barking) He is so cute!" (Spiridellis & Spiridellis, 2018a, 12:04-12:08)	سيأكل ما يراه في طريقه! إنه لطيف حالما تتعرفون عليه، أليس كذلك يا "ماكسي"؟ (نبيح) !إنه ظر ىف جدا [He will <u>eat</u> what he sees in his path! He's friendly once you get to know him. Right " Maxy "? (barking) He is so cute!] (Spiridellis & Spiridellis, 2018a, 12:04-12:08)	Episode 8 12:04-12:08	Different metaphorical expressions with similar conceptualization

In this scene, Helper T uses the orientational metaphor "eat up" to convey that the macrophage, depicted as a kind dog, consumes harmful entities. This metaphor not only illustrates the protective role of lymph in the human body but also fosters appreciation among kids for its beneficial functions. The intersemiotic metaphor combines the visual representation of the lymph as a dog with the phrase "He will eat up," effectively depicting the scientific process of how lymph protects the body by destroying viruses.

Regarding the translation, the phrasal verb "eat up" cannot be directly transferred into Arabic. However, the subtitler successfully conveys the intended

metaphorical meaning, maintaining the essence of the original while adapting it to fit the linguistic and cultural context.

Table 9

Example Nine

SL	TL	Time	Strategy
"Where we're going? To fight back!" (Spiridellis & Spiridellis, 2018a, 13:46-13:49)	إلى أين نحن ذاهبون؟ للمقاومة! [Where are we going? To the fighting!] (Spiridellis & Spiridellis, 2018a, 13:46-13:49)	Episode 8 13:46-13:49	Different metaphorical expressions but similar conceptualization

In this scene, as the Bots ask Helper T where they are going while riding on Max's back, Helper T heroically declares, "to fight back!" This phrase employs an orientational metaphor that emphasizes the group's proactive stance. The accompanying sound of hooves and the visuals enhance this message, creating a rich polysemiotic effect.

The subtitler translated "to fight back" into the Arabic term " مقاومة" (muqāwama), which captures a similar conceptualization but employs a different metaphorical expression. Since there isn't a direct equivalent for the phrasal verb in Arabic, this choice effectively conveys the intended meaning. The interplay of image, sound effects, and the subtitled text maintains a cohesive and engaging message for the audience, ensuring that the essence of the scene is preserved in the target audiovisual product.

Elaboration

Table 10

Example Ten

SL	TL	Time	Strategy
"Line it up <u>pledges</u>, it's initiation time!" (Spiridellis & Spiridellis, 2018b, 10:20-10:23)	اصطفوا أيها <u>المنتسبون الجدد</u> حان وقت اختباركم! [Line up <u>new affiliates</u>, it's time for testing you!] (Spiridellis & Spiridellis, 2018b, 10:20-10:23)	Episode 2 10:20-10:23	Elaboration where a metaphor is rendered but also explained

In this scene, the newcomers are portrayed as students undergoing an initiation exam to join the fraternity, likened to an "Alcoholic Baptism" party, which symbolizes the beginning of a potential addiction to sugar. The term "pledges" carries a specific connotation in colloquial English, referring to those who must go to great lengths to be accepted into the fraternity (Urban Dictionary, n.d.-c). However, the Arabic translation does not fully capture this layered meaning. Despite this, the structural-ontological metaphor is preserved, allowing the audience to understand the initiation concept and its implications. The metaphor's impact remains intact, illustrating the challenges faced by the newcomers in a humorous yet thought-provoking manner.

Different Metaphorical Expressions and Conceptualization

Table 11

Example Eleven

SL	TL	Time	Strategy
	نحن الدهون !		
"We're fats!	و نحن بارعون في حماية الخلايا في الجسم		
We're good at protecting the cells in the body	أجل، نحن الدهون.		
Yep, we're fats.	ـالدهون تدوم	Episode 2 16:40-16:47	Different metaphorical expressions and conceptualization
Fatsies for life." (Spiridellis & Spiridellis, 2018b, 16:40-16:47)	[We are fats!		
	We're skillful at protecting the cells in the body.		
	Yes! we're fats.		
	Fats last longer.] (Spiridellis & Spiridellis, 2018b, 16:40-16:47)		

In this scene, the cartoon employs a structural-ontological metaphor by likening healthy fats—represented by avocado, cheese, and fish—to police officers on patrol. Although these "officers" appear "fat," they serve a protective role for the human body, effectively illustrating how beneficial fats support the immune system. This metaphor cleverly conveys the concept that not all fats are harmful; rather, some play a crucial role in health, making the idea accessible and relatable for children. The playful imagery reinforces the educational message while maintaining an engaging narrative.

Figure 1

Police Officer

Note. Figure taken from Spiridellis and Spiridellis (2018b).

In this intersemiotic metaphor, the phrase "Yep, We're fats. Fatsies for life" combines visual and auditory elements to create a playful and humorous depiction of healthy fats. The term "fatsy" serves as a wordplay, implying both a sense of camaraderie among the fats and a positive connotation of being "nicely put together" (Urban Dictionary, n.d.-b). However, this nuanced wordplay may not have been effectively translated into Arabic, potentially losing its playful and affectionate tone. The subtitler's challenge lies in preserving the humour and meaning of such wordplay while ensuring it resonates with the target audience, which may require a creative adaptation that captures the original intent.

Paraphrase: A Non-Metaphorical Expression

In this scene, the orientational metaphor "to stick around" effectively conveys the idea of remaining in a place, highlighting the character's reluctance to stay due to fear of the unfamiliar creature. The subtitler chose a non-metaphorical expression in Arabic, as the specific phrasal verb construction does not have a direct equivalent in the target language. While this choice may lead to a more straightforward translation, it also results in a loss of the metaphorical nuance that

adds depth to the character's emotions and the overall atmosphere of fear associated with the unknown. This highlights the inherent challenges in translating metaphors within the constraints of different languages and cultural contexts.

Table 12

Example Twelve

SL	TL	Time	Strategy
"I don't know, but I <u>don't wanna stick around</u> to find out. It's eating everything. -Whoa! It ate the virus." (Spiridellis & Spiridellis, 2018a, 10:26-10:30)	لا أعرف و لا أُريد أن أبقى لأكتشف ما هي ! إنه يأكل كل شيء، لقد أكل الفيروس ! [I don't know and <u>don't want to stay</u> to know what it is! It is eating everything! It ate the virus!] (Spiridellis & Spiridellis, 2018a, 10:26-10:30)	Episode 8 10:26-10:30	Paraphrase non-metaphorical expression

Table 13

Example Thirteen

SL	TL	Time	Strategy
"<u>A teeny tiny force</u> of destruction and suffering" (Spiridellis & Spiridellis, 2018a, 7:02-7:05)	مخلوقات صغيرة جدا تسبب الدمار و المعاناة ! [<u>Tiny creatures</u> that cause destruction and suffering] (Spiridellis & Spiridellis, 2018a, 7:02-7:05)	Episode 8 7:02-7:05	Paraphrase

The structural-ontological metaphor "teeny tiny force" effectively conveys the idea of viruses as small yet powerful entities. In the translation, "force" is paraphrased as "مخلوقات" (makhlūqāt [creatures]), which provides a clearer understanding but loses some of the original metaphorical strength. While this choice makes the concept accessible to Arabic-speaking children, it shifts the emphasis from the idea of an impactful "force" to simply identifying the viruses as

"creatures." This demonstrates the balance translators must strike between preserving metaphorical richness and ensuring clarity for the audience.

Table 14

Example Fourteen

SL	TL	Time	Strategy
"Buckle up, Storybots. It's tummy time!" (Spiridellis & Spiridellis, 2018b, 8:46-8:47)	روبوتات" يا استعدوا " المعرفة حان وقت الطعام [Get ready Storybots, it's time for eating] (Spiridellis & Spiridellis, 2018b, 8:46-8:47)	Episode 2 8:46-8:47	Paraphrase

The metaphorical expression "It's tummy time!" serves as a structural-ontological metaphor that evokes joy and emphasizes the importance of mealtime for the stomach. By substituting "tummy" with " الطعام " (aṭaʿām), the translation broadens the meaning to encompass all food, which simplifies the concept for young Arabic-speaking viewers. This domestication approach reduces the foreignness of the original phrase, making it more relatable and fluent in the target language. This is in line with the view held by some Anglo-American theories regarding domestication as a way to achieve fluency and transparency in the translated version (Venuti, 1995).

However, this strategy may not always be optimal. For instance, retaining playful names like "Brock O. Lee" can enhance synchronization and maintain the humor integral to the character's identity. Thus, achieving a balance between domestication and foreignization is recommended (Tahraoui, 2020), as each approach serves different purposes depending on the context and the overall intersemiotic environment. The subtitler's choices should reflect an awareness of

the intended message, ensuring that the metaphor retains its effectiveness while also resonating with the target audience.

Findings and Discussion

Our analysis focused on key examples from episodes 2 and 8 of season II, highlighting a significant presence of intersemiotic metaphors, primarily structural-ontological ones. The study revealed that literal translation was the dominant strategy, often employed due to the shared biomedical concepts between English and Arabic (as seen in example three). In some cases, the subtitler might have struggled to find an appropriate equivalent (example four), or opted for simpler expressions to ensure comprehension among younger viewers.

Next in prevalence were different metaphorical expressions with similar conceptualization and paraphrase, used when a direct metaphorical equivalent could not be established. Strategies such as retention, elaboration, and the use of different conceptual and metaphorical expressions followed, often necessitated by grammatical or technical constraints, cultural nuances, and challenges posed by colloquial language or wordplay. However, they sometimes led to a loss of the metaphorical impact, particularly in cases where the polysemiotic communication system was involved (examples ten and fourteen).

Literal translation was the dominant strategy along with paraphrase and different metaphorical expressions with similar conceptualization to effectively convey scientific information and intersemiotic effects and also for screening purposes. Furthermore, translation strategies were joined in the form of couplet (two strategies) or triplet (three strategies gathered)——using Newmark's (1988) words——for the sake of achieving the intended TL metaphor (p. 91), especially to convey the intersemiotic and polysemiotic effect.

The combination of strategies——such as literal translation with retention (example six, where " بنانا " [banana] was retained) ——was crucial in effectively conveying linguistic and intersemiotic metaphors, especially in children's cartoons. Overall, most intersemiotic metaphors were preserved, aligning with Alshunnag's (2016) findings on biomedical metaphors, indicating many SL and TL metaphors share "similar mapping conditions" and belong to "similar cognitive domains" (Al-Hasnawi, 2007, p. 5). However, a few metaphors presented challenges due to differing symbolization or cognitive mappings (Al-Hasnawi, 2007), or were "monocultural" (Pedersen, 2015, p. 176), complicating the subtitler's task.

The audiovisual context further complicates metaphor translation, as various verbal and non-verbal channels can either support or challenge the subtitler's efforts. While non-verbal elements can enhance understanding, they can also create "intersemiotic tension" (Pedersen, 2015, p. 176) if the subtitled text contradicts the imagery.

In metaphor translation, especially visualized metaphors, there is a lack of clear guidance regarding the symbolization systems of the source and target texts. Cultural gaps often hinder straightforward translation strategies. Thus, while literal translation and retention may produce unnatural Arabic phrases, adapting the English style for Arab audiences is essential for effective learning. However, constraints related to time and space may necessitate the use of certain expressions to align with non-verbal elements, especially in science-themed content.

We propose a "polysemiolinguistic" or "intertersemiolinguistic" approach that combines polysemiotic and linguistic components, advocating for "different metaphorical expressions with similar conceptualization" whenever feasible. This strategy aims to balance the source's conceptual integrity with fluency and naturalness in the target language, ultimately enhancing the effectiveness of Arabic subtitling in children's media.

Figure 2

Proposed Taxonomy Within the Intersemiolinguistic Approach

Retention

literal translation

A different metaphorical expression with similar conceptualization

Elaboration

A different conceptual and metaphorical expression

paraphrase
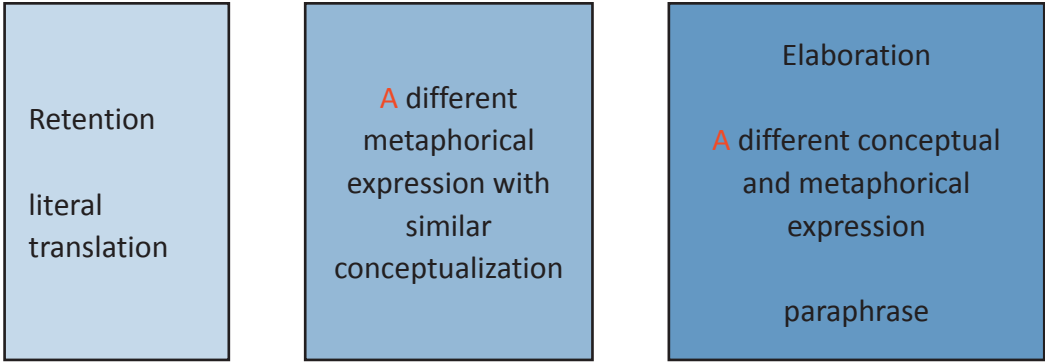
Conclusion

This paper examined the strategies employed in subtitling intersemiotic metaphors in two episodes of *Ask the StoryBots*. Utilizing Lakoff and Johnson's (2003) cognitive model and Pedersen's (2015) concept of polysemiotic messages, our study demonstrated that the cartoon relies heavily on a metaphorical framework to engage children with scientific concepts in a fun and accessible manner. Given the intersemiotic nature of the metaphors, it is crucial for the subtitler to consider all audiovisual channels to effectively convey the intended meanings and effects.

The primary objectives for the subtitler include delivering the metaphorical meanings, maintaining intersemiotic cohesion among various channels, and ensuring that the young audience comprehends the content. To achieve these goals, the translation strategies must be adapted to both linguistic and intersemiotic metaphors.

While this study focused solely on subtitling audiovisual metaphors from English to Arabic across two episodes, further research is necessary to broaden the scope and enhance the validity and reliability of findings through statistical and

corpus tools. Additionally, the study did not incorporate surveys or interviews with target viewers, highlighting the need for audience reception studies that could illuminate viewer preferences and inform translation practices, including the choice of standard language versus dialects.

Moreover, the present study did not address the needs of children with disabilities, an important area that requires attention. Future research should focus on subtitling for the hard of hearing and deaf, as well as on audio description, to ensure accessibility for all audiences. This research was limited to one genre of educational cartoons; other genres, such as documentaries, remain underexplored in terms of dubbing, subtitling, and voice-over.

Finally, future studies could also consider translating programs from Arabic to English, exploring a range of linguistic, extralinguistic, and technical aspects. By expanding the research horizon, we can better understand and enhance the effectiveness of translation practices across various media formats.

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國家教育研究院編譯論叢徵稿辦法

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	編譯研究、編譯理論、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）	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		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

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。

註 3：論壇文章僅由編輯會提供。

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，請儘量附上高解析度的
　　數位檔案。

四、來稿以未在其他刊物發表過之內容為限，其內容物若涉及第三者之著作
　　權（如圖、表及長引文等），作者應依著作權法相關規定向原著作權人
　　取得授權。

五、來稿須遵守本刊出版倫理，凡有違反學術倫理情事或一稿多投者，將予
　　以退稿，一年內不再接受投稿。來稿如使用生成式人工智慧技術（如
　　ChatGPT），作者應在其稿件中披露生成式人工智慧技術的使用，並依
　　照 APA 格式引用（請參閱本刊撰稿格式說明）。

六、來稿請以 *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*
　　最新版格式撰寫，未符格式稿件將逕退請調整格式。同時務請自留底
　　稿資料一份。符合本刊主題之稿件須送請相關領域學者專家匿名審查
　　（double-blind review），再經本刊編輯會決定通過後，始得刊登，本刊
　　編輯會對稿件有刪改權，如作者不願刪改內容，請事先聲明。

七、來稿請備齊：

（一）作者通訊資料表一份；（請至本院期刊資訊網 https://ctr.naer.edu.tw/ 下載）

（二）著作利用授權書一份；（請至本院期刊資訊網 https://ctr.naer.edu.tw/ 下載）

（三）書面稿件二份，請依稿件性質備妥資料：

　　1.「研究論文」稿件，含：

　　　（1）首頁：

　　　　　a.篇名（中、英文）；

　　　　　b.作者姓名（中、英文）；

　　　　　c.其他：可提供該著作之相關說明。

　　　（2）中文及英文摘要（中文 500 字、英文 300 字為上限）；中文及英文關鍵詞。

　　　（3）正文。

　　　（4）參考書目及附錄。

　　2.「評論」稿件，含：

　　　（1）首頁：

　　　　　a.篇名（中、英文）；

　　　　　b.作者姓名（中、英文）；

　　　　　c.其他：可提供該著作之相關說明。

　　　（2）正文。

　　　（3）參考書目及附錄。

　　3.「譯評」稿件，含：

　　　（1）首頁：

　　　　　a.篇名（中、英文）；

　　　　　b.作者姓名（中、英文）；

　　　　　c.譯評之書名、原書名；

　　　　　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）；

     f. 總頁數；

     g. ISBN；

     h. 售價；

     i. 其他：可提供該著作之相關說明。

   （2）正文。

   （3）參考書目及附錄。

  4.「特殊稿件」，含：

   （1）首頁：

     a. 篇名（中、英文）；

     b. 作者姓名（中、英文）；

     c. 其他：可提供該著作之相關說明。

   （2）正文。

   （3）參考書目及附錄。

（四）稿件之全文電子檔案（以電子郵件附加檔案）及相關圖表照片等。

八、來稿請寄：

  國家教育研究院編譯論叢編輯會

  地址：106011 臺北市大安區和平東路一段 179 號

  電話：02-7740-7803

  傳真：02-7740-7849

  E-mail：ctr@mail.near.edu.tw

九、歡迎自本刊網站（https://ctr.naer.edu.tw/）下載相關資料。

《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。關鍵詞皆為三－五組、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	• 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。	• 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；圖內英文字及數字使用Calibri。
英文稿件	• 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。	• 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：

<u>表範例</u>

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	俣野保和	《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

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	坂井釟五郎	《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》	中西虎彥	1895年12月28日
7	水上梅彥	《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
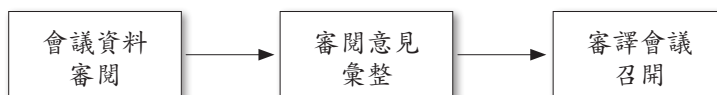
英文稿件範例：

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

(◆ = communicative event. ST.P = source-text producer. TT.R = target-text receiver)
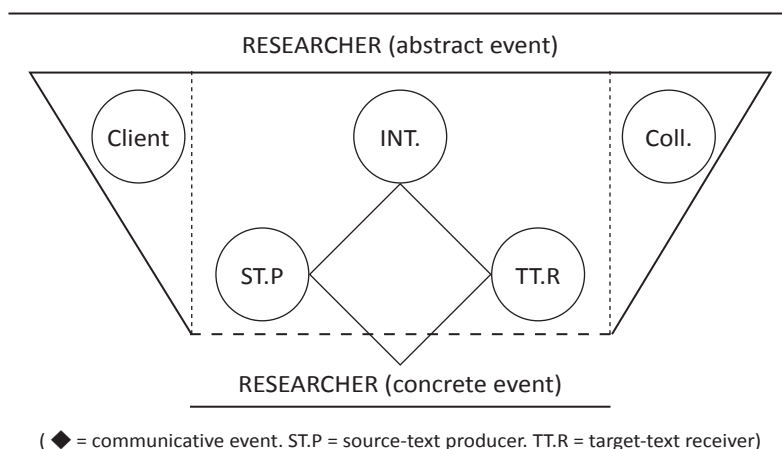
Note. From "Quality Assessment in Conference and Community Interpreting," by F. Pöchhacker, 2001, *Meta*, *46*(2), p. 412 (https://doi.org/10.7202/003847ar).

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：

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

| 中文 | 作者一與作者二（年代）或（作者一、作者二，年代）
範例一
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） |
| 英文 | Author 1 and Author 2 (Year) 或 (Author 1 & Author 2, Year)
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。

| 中文 | 作者一等（年代）或（作者一等，年代）
範例
謝文全等（1985）或（謝文全等，1985） |
| 英文 | Author 1 et al. (Year) 或 (Author 1 et al., Year)
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
<u>範例</u>
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/Session 9517.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）生成式人工智慧訊息格式包括作者、年分、標題、引用版本發布日期、URL。

中文生成式人工智慧訊息格式：

作者（年）。標題（引用版本發布日期）[大語言模型]。URL

範例

開放人工智慧研究中心（2023）。聊天生成預訓練轉換器（10 月 2 日版本）[大語言模型]。https://chat.openai.com/chat

英文生成式人工智慧訊息格式：

Author. (year). Title of work (month day version) [Large language model]. URL

範例

OpenAI. (2023). ChatGPT (Mar 14 version) [Large language model]. https://chat.openai.com/chat

（八）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/segment.jsp。

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】