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Chief Editor's Note

The present issue, the fiftieth published by the *Translation Ouarterly* since its inception in 1995, brings together four articles that are as different from each other as can be imagined, showing the manifold directions that translation research has taken. There is Roberta Raine's discussion of the translation of Chinese idiomatic expressions into English, and her case study is the bestknown of contemporary women writers in Hong Kong, Yi Shu. Issues of explicitation and implicitation in translated texts are addressed in Wang Jianguo's article, which draws on a wide range of linguistic approaches to translation, most notably Sperber and Wilson's relevance theory, to explain the twin phenomena. Wang Shuhuai and Wang Weiping expound a "structuralist" approach to translation pedagogy, based principally on J. S. Bruner's theories; systematically they lay out plans for new models of translation teaching. Finally, Zhang Baohong, through a dialogue with Jin Chunsheng, reconsiders the question of how formal equivalence can be attained in the translation of poetry from Chinese into English.

For once, this note will be brief. We allow the five authors to speak for themselves.

Leo Chan

December 2008

Translating Idiomatic Expressions in Hong Kong Popular Fiction: With Special Reference to Yi Shu's Stories

Roberta Raine

Abstract

This paper discusses the translation of idiomatic expressions as seen in the works of Hong Kong popular fiction author Yi Shu. Very little research has been published in the area of translating popular fiction, especially how this differs—if at all—from the translation of "high" or "serious" literature. While some may argue that figurative language such as idiomatic expressions should not be handled any differently in popular literature, this paper argues that, due to the complexities of Chinese-English translation, the tremendous gap between the source-language and target-language cultures, the style of popular fiction writing, and the expectations of the target readers of translated popular fiction, this is not always defensible in practice. A variety of different methods for handling the translation of Chinese idiomatic expressions are presented and then applied to the translation of specific examples taken from Yi Shu's short stories.

Introduction

In the field of translation studies, very little research has been published on the translation of popular fiction. Indeed, popular fiction is often seen as being a somehow inferior product, one that is hardly worthy of a translation scholar's time and energy. In fact, however, it poses particular challenges to the translator which deserve further investigation. These challenges include: (1) how to analyze, in terms of both content and style, a large corpus of works by an author for the purpose of translation; [1] (2) how to translate the style of popular fiction writing such that the reader appreciates the text in a manner concordant with his or her expectations of translated popular fiction. This paper will focus on one such difficulty related to style, namely the handling of figurative language such as idiomatic expressions, a problem that is especially acute when dealing with such linguistically dissimilar language pairs as Chinese and English.

Although it is not uncommon for English-language popular fiction to be translated into foreign languages—one obvious example is the popular Mills & Boon romance novels, which are translated into 23 different languages—Chinese popular fiction is very seldom the object of either study or translation. ^[2] Regardless of whether the works originate in the People's Republic of China, Taiwan, Singapore, Hong Kong, or elsewhere, translators of Chinese fiction tend to focus primarily on the most prominent or "high-brow" authors of that region.

In Hong Kong—a city with its own unique cultural and literary traditions—the translation of literature is a marginal activity at best. One reason for this is that there are very few outlets for such translations, despite the fact that Hong Kong is an international city with a large population of non-Chinese speakers. Given the dearth of literary translations in general, it is no surprise that local popular fiction

translations hardly ever see the light of day. This is unfortunate, because popular fiction has the ability to reflect a wide range of cultural, social and historical concerns and trends, particular in the case of highly prolific authors who have been publishing over a long period of time.

One such author is Yi Shu 亦舒, a female writer who began her writing career in the 1960s and who has, to date, published over 250 books of short stories, middle-length stories, essays and novels. One of Hong Kong's most well-known writers, Yi Shu has been referred to as one of the city's two "marvelous flowers" (Luo 1993: 26), the other being her brother, Ni Kuang, a popular science fiction author. Although Yi Shu writes about a wide range of topics, the search for love is a recurrent theme, particularly in her earlier books. For this reason, there is a general impression that Yi Shu's novels are written for female readers (Ni 1984: 7). Apart from writing about love and romance in contemporary Hong Kong, Yi Shu deals with other common topics like the problems of young people in Hong Kong, divorce, loneliness, working women, contemporary social issues, ghosts and other supernatural phenomena.

Some years ago, I carried out a comprehensive study of Yi Shu's popular fiction, focusing specifically on her short stories, which by 1999 numbered over 700 (Raine 1999). I examined how the stories changed over time and developed a systematic method for analyzing the content of the stories, as well as the selection criteria used in translating them for a Western audience. The study also included an in-depth textual analysis of Yi Shu's style, which was necessary before one embarks on the translation of a selection of her stories. One of the difficulties found during the course of the textual analysis concerned the handling of idiomatic expressions, particularly in relation to the expectations of a Western reader of translated popular fiction.

Drawing on the framework of the above study, the present paper begins with a discussion of how popular fiction may be identified and defined, after which a brief description is given of the translation protocols established for the purposes of translating Yi Shu's works. The remainder of the paper focuses on questions of style in general and on the translation of idiomatic expressions in particular. It should be noted that, in this paper, I will not be analyzing existing translations of Yi Shu's works, but rather positing how they might be translated for a notional audience.

Defining Popular Fiction

Although literary critics, both East and West, often dismiss popular fiction as "low-brow" whilst elevating other types of fiction as "highbrow"—often on no more basis than their own predispositions and prejudices—scholars in the field of popular culture studies tend to define popular fiction according to certain objective characteristics. To Gelder (2005), for example, one key feature of popular fiction is it consists of works produced in large quantities by the same author over a relatively long period of time. Gelder cites romance writer Catherine Cookson, who published well over 100 books in her lifetime; Western novelist Louis L'Amour, who has over 120 books to his credit; and the Belgian novelist Georges Simenon, who was famous for his detective character Maigret and had written more than 200 novels by the time he was 30 (2005: 16). Gelder sees popular fiction, as distinct from "literature" (a word which he prefers to "highbrow" or "high" fiction), in terms of the logic and practices deployed by the writers in the making of their "product," which is a commercial endeavour (2005: 12). "Literature," on the other hand, is an artistic endeavour and is thus produced in an entirely different manner.

Gelder discusses another, intriguing characteristic of popular

fiction which is related to the author's attitude towards his or her readership. Referring to the theories of French sociologist Pierre Bourdieu, who characterised "high-brow" works as being "autonomous" or indifferent to the reading public, Gelder maintains that such authors are "often openly contemptuous of the marketplace and the demand for profit, underwritten by a sense of 'creativity' and 'originality', and using the language or discourse of 'art" (2005: 13). Popular fiction, by contrast, is considered to be "heteronomous" in that its authors are both open to and conscious of the needs and demands of their reading public, often even going so far as to be "determined to please them" (Gelder 2005: 13).

Roberts (1990) discusses yet another key distinction between "high-brow" literature and popular fiction: the former is often found to have a set of primary texts or other materials which "challenge, supplement, complement, or explain" those works (1990: 189). Roberts writes, "when we add to any text the commentary it has received we have what is known as ... the 'text cum notis variorum': the text with critical and scholarly commentary" (*ibid*.). He states that nothing like these "variorum objects" exists for popular fiction genres. In general, works of popular fiction have no commentary more sophisticated than "reviewers' brief recommendations and warnings" (Roberts 1990: 190).

Finally, a feature of popular fiction works is that they are often produced as part of a "system" rather than written as individual works (Roberts 1990: 160). The more one reads within that system, the more one understands about the writer and his world view. In this way, "the individual stories create, over time, richer volumes of meaning than any one of them can carry" (1990: 160-61). Roberts also points out that systems are always changing, and that "in reading the new stories ... we are following the changes in that system" (1990: 151).

In summary, "popular fiction" refers to those books that are

produced in large quantities over a period of time, with no variorum objects attached to them, written within a system, and whose authors are conscious of their readers' needs. It is helpful for the translator to have at his or her disposal such a definition, for the elements that make up popular fiction also, in turn, affect the choices that a translator makes, both in analyzing content and style, and in determining which stories (or novels) to translate for a given audience. Yi Shu's writing meets all four criteria in our definition.

Translation Protocols

Before examining the style of Yi Shu's writing and the translation of idiomatic expressions in the stories, a brief synopsis of the translation protocols, or guidelines, established for this study will be provided. The first and most basic guiding protocol is one according to which the translator should use a target-oriented, communicative approach that emphasizes the needs of the reader of the translated text, while remaining as faithful as possible in style and content to the original.

A second protocol concerns how to meet the expectations or conventions of the target audience towards a popular fictional text by referring to Christiane Nord's (1991: 103) suggested five-part procedure for analyzing the audience. ^[3] In the course of this study, four out of Nord's five suggestions can be adopted: analyzing existing translations of Hong Kong literature; reading critiques of translated Hong Kong literature; reading widely in translation theory; and receiving input from Western readers of my translations. Only the fifth (performing multilingual comparisons of the same translation) is not used, as there are no such publications available. This entire process, which according to Nord should be followed by all literary translators, establishes a base

of knowledge that is essential in making translation decisions related to audience expectations, such as those pertaining to the translation of idiomatic expressions.

Two potential audiences for Yi Shu's short stories in translation are posited for this study: (1) Westerners living in or visiting Hong Kong or China and (2) Non-Chinese speakers living in the West who are interested in Hong Kong or China. It is assumed that both groups are unable to read the Chinese language but have a considerable interest in things Chinese. It is also posited that although Yi Shu's target audience reads her stories primarily for entertainment, Westerners will read Yi Shu in translation primarily to educate themselves about contemporary Hong Kong life, culture and values, and only secondarily as entertainment.

Nord's discussion on how much of the "strangeness" of the source text one should keep for specific audiences helps us establish the third basic protocol:

If, for example, according to the constitutive translational conventions to which they are accustomed, the members of a particular culture community expect a literary translation to reproduce the "strangeness" of the original (which, of course, is "strange" only for the target readers, not for the readers of the original, who may find the story rather "ordinary"), the translator will leave the setting and the proper names of persons and places unchanged or even stress the "local colour" of the scene by reproducing the original forms of address (e.g. "signora") instead of following the target culture conventions. (Nord 1991: 100-101)

This advice is particularly relevant to translating a popular fiction writer such as Yi Shu, whose original audience may indeed find the stories rather ordinary. However, due to the vast differences between Chinese and Western culture, what the original readers find ordinary may indeed appear strange (and therefore of interest) to the target audience. If the primary purpose of reading Hong Kong popular fiction in translation is to learn about Hong Kong life and culture, then the translator should carefully handle cultural items within the translated text. Therefore, the third protocol is to retain as much "local color" as possible.

General Style

Yi Shu's fictional writing style has been described as fast-paced, simple, concise, clear, lively and straightforward (e.g. Yan 1996: 46; Luo 1993: 26-29). Ni Kuang notes that Yi Shu's writing style is "direct, candid, straightforward and simple. She rarely loads her work with fancy phrases. In her works, the atmosphere is created from her acute descriptions, the distinct personalities of her characters, and the twists and turns of her plots" (Ni 1984: 8). Chen Yongkang describes her writing as "succinct, lively and frank" (1993: 22) and to Pan Yetun, "her dialogue is wonderful and lively, her language precise. ... In particular, her writing is fast-paced, fresh, lively, and humorous, and gives one a feeling of the rhythm of this extremely wealthy city" (1989: 288).

To achieve this particular style, Yi Shu uses both short sentences and paragraphs and makes frequent use of four-character phrases, short and pithy common sayings and idiomatic expressions, repetitions of key phrases, and strings of adjectives or nouns. These techniques, combined with middle-level, informal diction, give her writing the direct and easy-to-read style which has become her hallmark. In general, Yi Shu devotes very little space to describing the settings of her stories, emphasizing instead narrative flow and dialogue. According to Pan, "not much explanation of the modern background to the stories, [and] not a

lot of description of the social environment or of the natural surroundings. ... Her stories depend almost entirely on dialogue and simple, short narration interspersed with commentary" (1989: 287).

Two main effects of this style can be discerned. Firstly, the stories have a friendly, non-threatening tone. In some cases, the tales are told as though they are bedtime stories, thus both comforting and familiar. Secondly, the stories are straightforward and easy to read. The diction is seldom difficult and there are few complicated structures that might impede the reading process. The overall result is an extremely effective form of rhetoric that ensures clear and direct communication between the author and reader. By creating an intimate relationship with her readers, Yi Shu is able to skillfully present her own advice and opinions on a wide variety of issues, in a way that they can be readily absorbed and accepted.

These techniques of style, taken as a whole, constitute a general rhetoric used for a particular purpose, and they should preferably be accounted for and reproduced in the target text. As Said Shiyab and Michael Stuart Lynch state in their paper "Can Literary Style Be Translated?":

Style constitutes the most intrinsic component of every literary translation act. ... Without proper translation of style, the text-outcome will be incomplete and ineffective, failing to convey what may have been the very elements that motivated the translation in the first place. (2006: 262)

Indeed, in the case of translating Yi Shu, it was her engaging, lively and concise style of writing that is crucial. In addition to first analyzing before translating the style of any given author, the translator must also take great care in translating specific figures of speech, such as metaphors

and idiomatic expressions. Boase-Beier echoes this view, stating that "it is highly important for a translator to be as stylistically aware as possible, and to use the style as the basis and focal point for a translation" (2006: 112).

Style and Idiomatic Expressions

While not all studies of rhetoric (e.g. Corbett 1990) consider idiomatic expressions and proverbs to be rhetorical devices or figures of speech, Newmark (1988) considers both to be forms of metaphor. According to Newmark, the term "extended metaphor" includes not only whole sentences or paragraphs containing multiple metaphorical phrases but also all idioms, proverbs, and allegories (1988: 104). Stockwell (2002) also extends his consideration of metaphor to include simile, analogy and extended metaphors such as allegory (2002: 107-8), and, one assumes, idiomatic expressions, which are often metaphorically rich. Abrams defines figurative language in general as "a deviation from what speakers of a language apprehend as the ordinary, or standard significance of words, in order to achieve some special meaning or effect" (1988: 63). Based on this definition, idiomatic expressions can be considered figures of speech, and therefore elements of style that must be dealt with in translation. Yi Shu employs both idioms and proverbs in her writing to such a great extent that they are an important aspect of her style; in addition, they have a rhetorical function.

The idioms, sayings, and proverbs found in Yi Shu's short stories take many forms, ranging from familiar, everyday expressions to traditional proverbs that have been used for centuries. Examples of the former are 日有所思,夜有所夢 ("what you think about during the day, you dream about at night") and 大事化小,小事化無 ("turn big

problems into small ones and small ones into nothing"). The rhetorical effect of such familiar, everyday expressions is to create the tone of friendliness and comfortable predictability that is so common in the stories.

Many of the idiomatic expressions are four-character set phrases such as 當耳邊風 (literally, "a breeze blowing past one's ear"), which means to not take heed of someone's advice. Four-character phrases are an important aspect of the clear and straightforward style of the stories. Apart from four-character phrases, Yi Shu also employs more complex phrases and traditional proverbs such as 留得青山在,不怕沒柴燒 ("leave the mountains untouched and there will always be firewood to burn"). This type of proverb imparts an element of "Chineseness" to the stories and serves to remind the reader that he is, after all, reading Chinese literature.

While Yi Shu's frequent use of idioms and proverbs creates a friendly, familiar tone and contributes to her overall concise, pithy, direct writing, to Western readers of the stories in translation, idioms and proverbs introduce an element of "Chineseness". Indeed, both idioms and proverbs are often so rich in imagery and cultural materials that the translator should try to retain them as much as possible. In a study on how to handle the translation of figurative expressions such as idioms, Diri I. Teilanyo confirms this view:

Figurative language is of significant interest in the translation of literary works since the figurativeness of the language is crucial to the literariness of (the language of) the work. Hence, a literary translation would be expected to retain in the target text (TT) the level of literariness in the source language (SL) of the source text (ST). Accordingly, we expect the literary translator to be discreet in handling this area such that he neither diminishes nor unduly improves the literary texture of the ST.

(2007: 310-311)

There is no disputing that figurative language is an essential element of any literary work—whether it be "highbrow" or popular fiction—and that the translator must pay attention to the literary texture of a work. However, Teilanyo's next statement illustrates the dichotomy that can exist between theory and practice for the translator of popular fiction:

... we argue that any form of alteration is a literary disservice to the source text, the source culture and the target audience. We propose that the literary translator should do his utmost to retain the figurative level of the source-text language in the target text, even if this involves literalism and some other violation of the basic code of the target language while annotations and glossaries may be freely employed. (2007: 309, italics added)

While this may be both desirable and achievable for translations of serious or "high" literature, when translating popular fiction, the translator must also heed the expectations of the target audience regarding what is appropriate in a popular text. Furthermore, to retain and reproduce the personal writing style of the source-language author—in Yi Shu's case, one that is lively, concise, fast-paced, and succinct—must be one of the key tasks of the translator. Thus, if the translator of popular fiction follows Teilanyo's advice and insists on "retaining the figurative level of the source text in the translated text *even if this involves literalism and some other violation of the basic code of the target language*", he or she will be clearly violating the first protocol above: that the translation should be target-oriented and should emphasize the needs of the reader of the translated text, which means that the translated text should be smooth and easy to comprehend.

Furthermore, especially in popular fiction, footnotes and glossaries should be avoided at all costs, unless deemed absolutely necessary, for they interrupt the reading and violate the second basic protocol: that the translator should observe the expectations and conventions of the target audience for the kind of translation on which he is working. Western readers of popular fiction written in English would surely not expect to find footnotes explaining difficult phrases or ideas; why then would they accept such encumbrances in translated popular fiction? In general, in translated works of classical Chinese literature we find more extensive use of footnoting. In translations of popular or modern Chinese literature, footnotes are normally kept to a minimum, if they are used at all.

Thus, we can see that the protocols established for translating Yi Shu are at variance with Teilanyo's advice for translating literary texts—and, despite what one may think about popular fiction, it is still a literary art form. Indeed, when actually undertaking the translation of popular fiction, we may find that following Teilanyo's dictum is neither possible nor desirable. This will be illustrated in the following two sections, which first present other theoretical methodologies for translating idiomatic expressions, particularly in relation to Chinese-English translation, and then apply those methodologies to examples of idiomatic expressions from Yi Shu's short stories.

Methods for Translating Chinese Idiomatic Expressions

In translation studies, only a handful of scholars have discussed the difficulties of translating idiomatic expressions in general (that is, without regard to specific language pairs), with Baker's (1992) work being the most comprehensive. As for the translation of Chinese idiomatic expressions, there is more literature available. To Guo Jianzhong, for example: "it is universally accepted that idioms, idiomatic phrases and proverbs are difficult to translate" because they arise out of certain linguistic and social environments and are closely related to national culture, history and geography (1995: 1060). Shen Dan called idiomatic expressions a "peculiar case" of Chinese-English translation, and "one finds it most difficult to come to terms with the substitution of a receptor-language's equivalent for the source-language message" because, in translating idiomatic expressions, "unlike elsewhere, the receptor-language's equivalent may bear little resemblance to the original in formation" (1995: 573). Lu Ruichang considers idioms and proverbs to be two types of xiyu 習語 (idiomatic expressions), that is, set phrases or short sentences that have come into currency in a language, usually having a fixed structure (1993: 137). He also states that translating them can be complicated; however, providing that one pays attention to their meaning and content, connects the idiom or proverb to the other words and phrases around it, and avoids "dead, fixed" (i.e. overly literal) translations, Lu believes that these difficulties can be overcome (1993: 137).

Idioms and proverbs pose a particular challenge to the translator when they bear a heavy cultural load. On those felicitous occasions when the expression has an obvious English equivalent—providing it is equivalent both in meaning and in usage—there is no difficulty. However, in Chinese-English translation such instances are extremely rare. Because of the complexities inherent in translating Chinese idiomatic expressions, having methods or guidelines to follow that are language-pair specific is important. Unlike most textbooks on Chinese-English translation, Lu devotes an entire chapter to this topic, in which he presents six methods for translating Chinese idiomatic expressions into English:

- (1) *Direct or literal translation*. This can be used for metaphorical images when one wants to retain the special style of language used by minorities and special groups, or in particular localities.
- (2) Translation of meaning only. When direct or literal translation does not work because the result is incomprehensible to the target-language audience, one may use "semantic translation" to render the meaning of the idiom. Using this method, one retains the content but sacrifices the image.
- (3) Partial translation. Chinese idiomatic expressions often consist of two parts placed together, and both parts convey a similar meaning. In these cases, one can choose to translate one part only. These are usually four-character set phrases with repeated two-character components, or two four-character phrases which are connected.
- (4) Borrowing an equivalent English idiom. Often one can use an equivalent idiomatic expression in the target language—if it exists.
- (5) Direct translation plus expansion. If one wishes to use direct translation and retain the original image, it may be necessary to add words of explanation to bring out the implied meaning in the target language.
- (6) *Direct translation plus footnote*. One can directly translate the expression and use a footnote to explain the historical background (Lu 1993: 138-143).

These six methods for translating idioms and proverbs are helpful both because they cover most options available to the translator and because they have been formulated in relation to Chinese-English translation. It is interesting to note that Lu only recommends literal translation of idiomatic expressions when the translator wishes to retain certain characteristics of minority languages or reproduce the speech of a particular locality. Nowhere does he state that literal or direct translation is preferable to the other methods.

Shen Dan takes a rather more nuanced approach, remarking that, in some cases, there is justification for translating "the constituent words of an idiom" rather than translating it as a "single word" or idea, as is often the case in Chinese-English idiom translation (1995: 575). Shen cites several reasons for translating idiomatic expressions word for word. Firstly, the constituent words may be able to "convey some sense which may have a certain association with a referent of the idiom." Secondly, "within the idiom kingdom, the constituent words of some idioms are more meaningful than others, especially when contextualized. Many idioms are fossilized metaphors, implying points of similarity between one entity and another" (Shen 1995: 575). Thirdly, although some idioms will sound peculiar when translated literally, they may be absorbed into the target language if they are "vivid," "meaningful," and free from spatial and temporal references. Fourthly, when an idiom contains local cultural references, it may have difficulty getting adopted by the receptor language. The local color itself, however, may "constitute sufficient interest for the receptor-language reader and hence make it worth presenting" (Shen 1995: 576).

In summary, Shen's view is that when the constituent words of an idiom are "not very arbitrary and meaningless," but are instead "vivid" and "striking," carry "local color," embody the "popular wisdom of the source language", and are possibly absorbable into the target language, attempting to render them literally may be appropriate. In addition, Shen remarks that translating the exact words of an idiom "may prove helpful to language learners" (1995: 576). Shen's advice is in line with the translation protocol related to the target-language audience's expectations and needs, since Shen states that only if all the above conditions apply should literal translation of idioms be used.

Idiomatic Expressions (1): Four-Character Idioms

Although there are various types of idiomatic expressions in Chinese, this paper will focus on the two main forms found in Yi Shu's short stories: four-character idioms and proverbs. Many Chinese four-character phrases have a fixed meaning and form. In Chinese writing in general, these are extremely common and are used to describe a wide variety of situations. The difficulty in translating them in Yi Shu's popular fiction lies in their frequency in the stories and in the fact that English has few short, pithy expressions that are equivalent in both meaning and style. Since conciseness is a key characteristic of Yi Shu's style, and since four-character phrases are by nature concise, the translator should certainly make every effort to translate the phrases as they are.

A general rule is thus formulated for this study of the translation of idioms: where it is possible to translate them directly and still retain both the image and meaning, the translator should do so, provided that the translated version is not overly wordy or clumsy. An idiom from Yi Shu's stories to which this rule can be applied is 草菅人命, literally, to "treat human life like straw" or, in more plain language, "to have no respect for human life." Apart from the reasons cited above for translating such an idiom literally, by reducing it to its most basic meaning without retaining the image, one would be preventing the reader from appreciating it. One would thus be faithful neither to the reader nor to the original author.

Unfortunately, instances such as the above are rare, and the majority of the idioms encountered in Yi Shu's short stories cannot be translated directly. In some cases this is so because the images are too remote for Western readers to understand, such as the phrase 青出於藍 (literally, "the color blue comes from indigo"), which means that a "pupil

has surpassed his teacher". To translate this literally would be out of the question, for, in Shen's words, the constituent words of the idiom are both "arbitrary and meaningless" (1995: 576). In fact, this four-character idiom is half of a two-part expression, the second half of which reads 而勝於藍 (literally "and exceeds indigo"). The entire two-part idiom may be directly translated as "the color blue comes from indigo, but is even better than indigo." Although this should be a candidate for Lu's third method of partial translation, translating half of the idiom would make even less sense than translating it in full. Here the only option is to use Lu's second method: to translate the meaning only.

Another example of an idiom that defies direct translation is 瓜田季下. A literal rendering of this phrase is "in a melon patch or under a plum tree." Chinese readers will immediately be reminded of the longer expression "don't tie your shoes in a melon patch or adjust your hat under a plum tree." Even such a rendition, however, is too vague—though it is both colorful and suggestive. The actual meaning of the phrase, "not to do anything suspicious," is so far removed from the original imagery that the "translate meaning only" approach is the sole option, unless footnotes or parenthetical explanations are to be added.

The above two examples illustrate a referential problem involved in translating Chinese idioms: the fact that they are often shortened versions of longer expressions. This means that the translator must know the longer expression, understand its relationship to the shorter version, figure out the entire meaning of the two phrases together, and then render it into a concise and equivalent expression in the target language. While the same may be said of the translation of English idioms (for example, "don't count your chickens" is the first part of a longer, well-known expression, often uttered conversationally on its own), due to the concise, terse nature of the Chinese language, one tends to find such truncated idioms more frequently in Chinese than in English

writing.

Further difficulties arise—either when two four-character idioms occur close to one another or when idioms require lengthy explanation. In the former case, if two pithy, image-filled idioms occur in the same sentence, reducing them both to their meaning only drastically alters the style and tone. We find an example of this in a story by Yi Shu of two women friends who compete for the attention of a man in their office. When the women finally realize that the man has been encouraging the rivalry and therefore decide to stop pursuing him, the narrator makes the following statement: 女孩子們爭風喝醋,佔便宜的往往是異性,混水摸魚嘛. In one short sentence there are two interesting idioms: 爭風喝醋 and 混水摸魚.

The first translates literally as "fight the wind and drink vinegar," but its semantic meaning is "to fight out of jealousy." The second phrase translates directly as "stir up water and grab fish" or "it's easy to grab fish in stirred-up water." This second idiom is a more likely candidate for some measure of literal translation because its meaning is not as hidden as that of the first and because its imagery may be understood in context: the references are to rivalry (stirred-up water) and to taking advantage of that rivalry (grabbing fish). Considering that the two idioms occur in the same sentence, the translator should try to retain the imagery of at least one. The suggested translation for the entire sentence is: "When women fight over a man out of rivalry, the advantage always goes to the man. In stirred up water it's easy to grab fish." In context, it is not difficult to grasp the meaning of the second idiom.

The final example is one which requires substantial explanation: 吃回頭草. This common colloquial expression is a shortened version of a longer idiomatic expression: 好馬不吃回頭草. Literally rendered, the short phrase is "eat looking-back grass" or "eat regret grass" and the longer expression is "a good horse does not eat regret grass"; however,

the connotative meaning is more than mere "regret". It describes a very specific type of regret where a person tries something once, such as a job, later leaves and tries another, and later still changes his mind and regrets leaving the first job. Thus, a good (wise) person does not feel this type of regret. In context, the idiom is uttered by a woman who is talking to her friend about a relationship that has recently ended. She remarks that if her old boyfriend returns, she will not see him; she must get on with her life and cannot "eat regret grass." Here literal translation is insufficient, and translating the meaning only, as done above, is too complicated. Direct translation plus expansion would be cumbersome. According to Lu, two other options are available: find an equivalent target-language idiom, or translate the idiom directly and provide a footnote. Since footnotes should only be used when there is no other choice, the first option should be attempted.

There is an English idiom that is semantically close: "don't cry over spilt milk." However, in consideration of our basic protocols, it would mislead the target-language reader if this English expression is used as a substitute for 吃回頭草—especially when milk is not a staple part of the Chinese diet! Another alternative is to use the simple English expression "look back with regret," which fits well in this context. It is not an idiom but rather a colloquial expression that contains an imagery ("looking back") similar to the original and carries a similar meaning. It is also short and direct, so it helps the translator capture the overall style of Yi Shu's writing.

Idiomatic Expressions (2): Proverbs

The definition of a proverb (諺語) is "a short statement that expresses an obvious truth" (Huang 1998). Very often Chinese proverbs,

like those of other countries, have a long history and strong cultural roots, and, for this reason, they are of considerable interest to the translator. Following the protocols established for this study, we should attempt to retain as much of the "Chineseness" or local flavor of the proverbs as possible in order to provide the reader with cultural material. According to Shen, literal translations should be used in these cases whenever possible, due to their vividness and local color. If such passages are not translated directly, language learners and those with an interest in Chinese culture will be deprived of an opportunity to enrich their knowledge.

However, literal translation of proverbs, in practice, very often proves impossible. One characteristic of proverbs—Chinese and others—is that their meaning is not always apparent or obvious from the constituent words alone: one often understands their meaning only through experience and familiarity. An example of an English proverb of this type is "a stitch in time saves nine." To a Chinese speaker, if this proverb were translated literally it would be entirely nonsensical. In translating proverbs found in Yi Shu's stories, then, difficulty arises when literal translation produces something that makes no sense to the reader, even in context. In these cases, when the meaning of the proverb is relatively hidden or obscure, some degree of expansion or alteration is required.

In a story entitled "Upstairs, Downstairs," the narrator muses over the problems in his relationship with a particular girl. He ends his musings with this statement: 我卻沒失意,解鈴人還是繫鈴人. A literal rendering would produce the following: "But I mustn't lose hope. Let the one who tied on the bell take it off." Chinese readers know immediately that "the bell" in this proverb refers figuratively to "tying the bell on a tiger" and that the full proverb reads: "Let he who tied the bell on the tiger take it off" or, semantically rendered, "let he who started the trouble

end it." Even if the reader is given the missing information with a full translation of the proverb, the target-language reader may find it difficult to make the metaphoric and figurative leap necessary to understand the meaning in context. The proverb has nice local flavor and an interesting, vivid image, but a literal translation would violate the second protocol of meeting audience expectations. In addition, since the proverb occurs in a character's inner dialogue with himself, it would be illogical to provide additional information to aid the target-language reader, such as adding the words "as the proverb says." Thus, the translator has no choice but to translate the meaning only.

Other proverbs require more intervention on the translator's part. In a story entitled "A Flash of Youth," the narrator spends much time reflecting on her life, her marriage and her career. Many rhetorical devices, idioms and proverbs are used to convey the story's philosophical tone, and there is very little dialogue. At one point, the narrator thinks about how loneliness is, after all, quite a frightening thing. Then this sentence appears: 一續進牛角尖便難以自拔. Direct translation yields the following: "Once you've dug your way into a bull's horn, it's hard to pull yourself out again." Even in context, in translation the proverb's meaning is obscure and could be interpreted in several ways.

To Chinese readers, however, this is a common adage that means: once one has become stuck in a certain emotional state or way of thinking, it is difficult get out and see the situation clearly. One's thinking becomes narrowed, like the end of a bull's horn. Since this complex meaning is not made obvious through literal translation, either expansion or alteration is necessary. The imagery has vivid local color and is very striking, but how does one retain that the image while keeping the meaning clear? Since the expression appears in the midst of the narrator's own reflection, as in the above example, it would be illogical for the narrator to use the proverb and then explain its meaning, as if she herself did

not know what was meant. In this case, an alteration that retains as much of the image as possible is recommended, as in: "Loneliness is, after all, quite a frightening thing. Once you've dug yourself deeply into that state of mind, it's as difficult as finding your way out of the end of a bulls' horn." The method used here is a creative use of Lu's fifth method of direct translation plus expansion.

Another example of a proverb that defies literal rendering is the colorful adage 寧為雞口,莫為牛後: "It's better to be at a chicken's mouth than at an ox's rear." This rhyming two-part saying comes from a man who tells his new wife what his life with his wealthy ex-wife was like. He explains that although they were rich, he had to cater to his wife's and children's needs and was not master of his own house. The meaning of the adage is that it is better to have a low position while remaining independent, than to have a high position but controlled by someone else. If the translator wishes to keep the cadence and brevity of the adage as well as the imagery, he is faced with a difficult task indeed.

A literal rendering will produce an absurd statement that simply cannot be fathomed by the target reader and that bears little relationship to its actual meaning—or, as Shen states, contains words that are both "arbitrary and meaningless". However, once an explanation is given, the reader can see the logic of the imagery—imagery that is interesting enough for one to want to bring over in translation. In this case, we have an additional option not available in the previous examples: expansion which involves explaining the adage to the hearer. This is possible because there is no logical problem here. Therefore, one possibility is for the translator to keep the imagery and explain the meaning while keeping the dialogue as smooth as possible, as in this version: "It's better to have a low position with independence than a high position without, or, as the proverb says, it's better to be at a chicken's mouth

than at an ox's rear."

Conclusion

Through examining the difficulties inherent in translating Chinese idiomatic expressions in popular fiction, we see that, in order to follow the basic protocols that we have established for translating the works of Yi Shu, it is often neither feasible nor desirable to render figurative expressions literally. Indeed, in the above examples, it can be argued that the alterations neither substantially diminish nor "unduly improve the literary texture" of the source text, as Teilanyo admonishes us against doing. Rather, because the translator is translating within the context of popular fiction and is attempting to reproduce the author's personal style of writing, these minor alterations are both necessary and appropriate.

It is certainly possible that, for language pairs that are more linguistically similar than Chinese and English, a translator may be able to literally translate many proverbs and idioms. Similarly, if the source and target cultures share a common background and history, more concordance may be achievable and less intervention on the translator's part may be required. And, if one is translating "serious" or "high" fiction rather than popular fiction, the translator may be able to resort to footnotes more freely and thus avoid or reduce such instances of intervention.

However, in the case of translating Hong Kong popular fiction into English, both the linguistic and cultural divides are so great that the translator has little choice but to make certain alterations to the source text. Furthermore, because of the heavy use of dialogue in Yi Shu's stories in particular, and in popular fiction in general, the translator

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must take extra care to translate the meaning in a way that sounds natural. As the examples above illustrate, the translator of Chinese popular fiction must be prepared to occasionally make compromises between, on the one hand, retaining the "local color" and "strangeness" of the source text and, on the other hand, providing a smooth, easily comprehensible translation that meets the target-language reader's literary conventions and expectations.

Notes

- The author will deal with this point in a separate paper.
- The only article that I have located on translating Chinese popular fiction is Esteva (2007), which addresses the particular difficulties that arose from the author's translation of Chen Sue's (aka Chun Shu) novel, *Beijing wawa* (Beijing Doll). Howard Goldblatt (2004) also briefly mentions his translation of this same novel, but does not analyze the specific difficulties as extensively as Esteva.
- Nord's five-part procedure is: Firstly, the translator analyzes existing translations of a similar nature to ascertain what procedures have "worked" and what have not; secondly, the translator reads translation criticisms, which may give him or her a general idea of expectations; thirdly, the translator should be well-read in translation theory and methodology; fourthly, the translator may receive input from readers regarding the appropriateness of his or her translation; and fifthly, the translator may perform multilingual comparisons of the same translation to check how various difficulties are dealt with in the different cultural environments (Nord 103).

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翻譯中形式變化與隱化和顯化研究

王建國

Abstract

A Study of Explicitation and Implicitation, with Reference to Formal Changes in Translation (*by* Wang Jianguo)

This paper begins with a description of the types and constraints of formal changes in translation. In light of the findings, the author argues that there exist some normative, descriptive and explanatory issues to be tackled in the study of implicitation and explicitation in translation, and puts forward some recommendations.

一、翻譯中形式變化的類型

翻譯中的形式變化是指相比於原文本中的形式在譯文中所表 現的形式改變。從文本本身的角度來看,形式變化主要體現在音 位、語序、標點、詞性、句法成分、句法結構、篇章結構以及負 載特定文化信息的語言形式等變化上。

若從變化的理據上來分,客觀上,可分為語言驅動的和文化 驅動的變化;主觀上有譯者驅動的變化。[1]從再現原文意義的角度來看,有些形式的變化是錯誤的,有些則是正確的。[2]從表達 同一種內容的角度來看,相比於原語創作的原文本,有些形式的 變化在同一個原文本的各種譯文文本中具有典型性,而同一個主 顯的多個原語創作文本不普遍具有這些形式特徵。

二、制約形式變化的因素及其之間的關係

根據我們的觀察,制約翻譯中形式變化的因素並沒有得到詳細的考察,更談不上對這些因素之間的關係進行分析。本節將就 這些問題做一些嘗試性的分析。

(一)制約形式變化的因素

考察翻譯中的形式變化都必須以意義在譯文中得到再現為前提。若意義沒有得到再現,探討翻譯中的形式變化對本文來說就沒有意義。上文已提到了譯者、語言和文化都是制約翻譯中形式變化的因素,下面我們要更詳細地探討。

所謂的翻譯中的形式變化,自然是指由於翻譯而導致的形式變化,即形式變化的內因是翻譯過程,其中包括翻譯過程中所牽涉的各個因素。那麼,什麼樣的形式會發生變化而不導致意義發生變化呢?要做到形變而義不變,靠什麼來制約形變呢?我們認為,語義是首要的制約因素,因為保證意義不變是討論形式變化的前提;其次是句法,形式上的變化不能違背語言使用的規則;再次是語用,形式上的變化必須保證原文的語用效果得到體現。語義、句法和語用等因素,我們這裏稱之為語言上的客觀因素。

那麼,這些客觀因素是如何影響形式的變化呢?哪些形式會

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發生變化呢?從語義的角度來看,表達程序意義(procedural meaning)的形式(即沒有概念信息的形式,如連接詞)容易變化,表達概念意義(conceptual meaning)的形式(即包含概念信息的形式,如名詞)若包括特有的原語文化信息容易發生變化;從句法上看,原語與譯語中在對應的句法位置上有對立的句法要求,這個句法位置上的句法成分容易發生變化;從語用上看,沒有特定的語用效果的形式容易發生變化。若不考慮翻譯,設想兩個原語文本表達同一個內容,那麼,不同作者使用的最不相同的形式必然表現在表達程序意義的形式上。根據這種推斷,同一個原文本的不同譯本最不相同的(排除理解差異帶來的)變化很可能體現在表達程序意義的形式上。

文本,尤其是文本的文體,也是一個客觀因素。文學文本中的形式取效往往較為明顯,所滲入的文化因素也相對複雜。為了達到語用效果,譯者往往會對這些原文中取效或負載文化成分的形式加以改變。

另外一個影響原文本中的形式發生變化的客觀因素是文化。 文化上存在強勢與弱勢,雙語中的交際者對各自文化所了解的程 度不同,從而影響譯者的翻譯行為和譯文讀者的需求,以致影響 文本的呈現形式。就漢英互譯而言,受文化強勢與弱勢的影響, 強勢的英語文化在漢譯本中要顯化(explicitation)的東西更可能 比弱勢的漢語文化在英譯本中要顯化的東西少;語言上則表現 為,英漢直譯的漢語文本的接受性可能更強,因而隱化 (implicitation)和顯化的東西要少,而漢英直譯的英語文本的接 受性可能更弱,隱化和顯化尤其是顯化現象要更多。就漢英文本 對比而言,受文化的影響,漢譯英的英文文本可能比英語原創文 本更顯化,英譯漢的漢語文本比漢語原創文本更顯化;受語言的影響,翻譯文本比原語創作文本的語言形式結構可能更複雜。王克非(2003)、柯飛(2005)就英漢互譯中的不對稱性現象做過深入的研究,他們的研究結果基本上可以證明以上觀點。

哪些是制約翻譯中形式變化的主觀因素呢?我們認為,譯者 和譯文讀者是影響原文本中形式發生變化的主觀因素。譯者對語 言和文化的態度,無疑影響文本的呈現形式。如主張採用引進域 外語言形式和文化的譯者,顯化就可能增加,主張純潔民族語言 和反對文化殖民的譯者,其譯本中隱化就可能增加。另外,譯文 讀者作為譯語交際雙方的一方,是譯者交際的對象,翻譯是譯者 根據譯文讀者的認知能力做出的交際行為。因此,譯文讀者也是 制約翻譯中形式變化的一個重要因素。譯文讀者對翻譯中形式變 化的作用,在漢英翻譯和英漢翻譯中所表現出的明顯不對稱,即 漢英翻譯的顯化往往多於英漢翻譯的顯化,漢英翻譯的隱化要少 於英漢翻譯的隱化(柯飛,2005: 306)。這種不對稱正是因為漢 語譯文讀者往往對英語語言文化的了解要多於英語譯文讀者對漢 語語言文化的了解,即漢語讀者對英語語言文化的認知儲備要比 英語讀者對漢語語言文化的認知儲備相對豐富一些,從而導致漢 英翻譯中的顯化要多於英漢翻譯的顯化。當然,我們這裏不能把 這種不對稱歸咎於譯文讀者一個因素,其他因素也必須考慮。這 樣,影響翻譯中形式變化的因素至少有五個:譯者、譯文讀者、 (原)文本、語言和文化。

(二)制約因素之間的關係

我們認為,制約翻譯中形式變化的譯者、譯文讀者、文本、

語言和文化等五個因素具有層次性。從某個角度來看,語言因素和文化因素是上位因素,譯者、譯文讀者以及翻譯交際所使用的文本是下位因素,語言和文化對具體的交際行為從宏觀上發生不同的作用。從另一個角度來看,譯語交際的雙方——譯者和譯文讀者是上位的因素,因為在具體翻譯交際中具體文本以及交際言語形式(包括含有文化成分的形式的選擇)都受到譯者操縱和譯文讀者期待的制約。

另外,就影響翻譯中形式變化的語言因素來看,語義、句法和語用等客觀因素之間的關係是:在語用的驅動下,以語義再現為基礎,以句法形式為體現。翻譯是一種語用行為(Levy 1967,轉引自 Zhong 2001),具體的翻譯行為是取得特定的語用功能,在取得這種特定功能的同時,往往需要再現原語文本的意義,需要依賴形式來體現。

三、當前隱化和顯化研究中的疑問

當前對翻譯中形式變化的研究較多地表現在對翻譯中隱化和 顯化的研究。盡管當前的隱化和顯化研究取得了一定的成績(詳 見柯飛,2005;黃立波、王克非,2006;吳昂、黃立波, 2006),然而,當前隱化和顯化的研究還存在諸多疑問,這些疑 問大概分為以下幾類:規範研究不明確、描寫研究不全面、解釋 研究不深入。規範研究不明確表現在對翻譯中形式變化認識不夠 全面,從而對隱化和顯化的認定比較模糊;描寫研究不全面主要 表現在對非言語形式所引起的隱化和顯化的描寫較為欠缺;解釋 研究不深入主要表現在對影響隱化和顯化的因素缺乏全面的認識,對隱化和顯化的解釋不成系統。總的說來,前者的缺乏直接 影響到後者的完善。這些觀點具體體現在如下疑問之中:

(一) 規範上: 什麼是隱化和顯化?

黃立波、王克非(2006)把隱化和顯化區分為形式上的隱化 和顯化與意義上的隱化和顯化兩類,把連接詞的隱化和顯化看作 是形式上的現象。然而,我們不禁要問,難道"連接詞"沒有意 義嗎?例如:

- (1)a. "我很想幫你。但是,。"
 - b. "我知道了,沒關係。"

我們認為,這裏的"但是"應該有意義,否則,"我知道了"就 是無中生有。連接詞在 Blakemore (1992)看來往往具有程序意 義,即引導聽話人作出正確的理解。既然連接詞有意義,連接詞 的隱化和顯化又怎能看作是形式上的隱化和顯化呢?

我們不妨來看看一些學者對顯化的定義。Shuttleworth & Cowie (1997: 55) 指出,"顯化" (explicitation) 是指譯文以更明顯的言語形式來表述原文的信息,具體體現在譯文中往往出現由譯者增添的解釋性短語或連接詞等。Klaudy & Károly (2003)則認為,"顯化"是指原文中的一個意義單位由譯文中的幾個意義單位來表達,如原文中一個句子的意義由譯文中兩個或更多的句子來表達,或者原文中一個短語的意義由譯文中的一個小句來表達;隱化(implicitation)則與顯化正好相反。由此,我們發現,隱化和顯化都是以意義為基礎,參照言語形式的體現來判

定。我們認為,區分形式上的顯化和隱化與意義上的顯化和隱化 是不必要的。因為形式負載意義,所謂的意義上的顯化和隱化也 是靠形式來體現。

另外,下例中的現象是難以依靠形式和意義為參照來解釋的。例如:

- (2)a1. Did your treatment for stammering work?
 - b1. Peter Piper picked a peck of pickled pepper.
 - a2. How amazing!
 - b2. Yes, b-b-but th-th-that's not s-s-something I v-v-very often w-w-want to s-s-say.

(Sperber & Wilson 1986/1995: 178)

我們在翻譯(b1)時,如果譯成"彼特·派佩拾了一配克的 腌制胡椒"就根本不能傳達 b 的意圖,我們可以考慮用漢語中相 似的繞口令"吃葡萄不吐葡萄皮"來對譯。但如果這種譯文可以 接受的話,那麼,這是隱化還是顯化呢?盡管形式上有所仿擬, 但原文的意義一點也沒有得到再現,這裏更顯然是說話人意圖的 再現。那麼,意圖又在判斷隱化和顯化中起到什麼作用呢?我們 認為,(b1)顯然也是說話人讓聽話人識別其信息意圖所給出的 言語形式上的推理線索,這些言語形式雖然有概念意義,但起着 引導聽話人理解的作用,可以把它們看作是具有概念意義的言語 形式起着程序意義言語形式的功能的特殊情況。

另外,前文我們提到形式變化主要體現音位、語序、標點、 詞性、句法成分、句法結構、篇章結構以及負載特定文化成分的

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語言形式等變化上,那麼,哪些形式變化屬於隱化和顯化的研究範圍呢?很明顯的一點是,當前以形式為參照的隱化和顯化認定,並沒有關注非言語形式。事實上,Shuttleworth & Cowie(1997)和 Klaudy & Károly(2003)的定義都沒有排除原文本中非言語形式可能帶來的隱化和顯化現象。我們認為,非言語形式也是形式,同樣影響原文意義的再現和譯文讀者的理解。例如,漢語中的因果律、時序律能幫助漢語讀者明白其中的因果和時間先後次序的關係,即漢語語序就能起到英語中一些連接詞的作用,我們能說語序不是形式嗎?若語序是形式,我們可以說(3a)中的"because"被隱化嗎?是不是應該說成是被另一種語言中的一種如"因為"一樣的形式所替代呢?

- (3)a. Because I don't know what you have done before, I am sorry for my misunderstanding.
 - b. 我不知道你以前做過什麼,很抱歉,誤解你了。

我們認為,隱化和顯化大致可以參照程序意義和概念意義的 再現來認定。顯然,概念意義的隱化和顯化是較容易認定的,因 為原文中承載概念意義的形式必然是言語形式,該言語形式是被 隱化還是被進一步顯化只要稍加注意便能予以識別。但是,程序 意義的隱化和顯化則有必要做進一步的區分。表程序意義的形式 不僅有言語形式,而且還有非言語形式。原文中表程序意義的言 語形式在譯文中可以由表程序意義的言語形式或非言語形式替 換;同樣,原文中表程序意義的非言語形式在譯文中也可以由表 程序意義的言語形式或非言語形式或排言語形式 程序意義的言語形式或非言語形式

問題:

首先,當原文中表程序意義的言語形式或非言語形式在譯文中可以由非言語形式替換時,但譯者不僅有意或無意用了非言語形式替換,而且還用了言語形式來替換,這種情況就牽涉到譯文中同時使用了兩種表程序意義的形式來替換原文中一種形式的可接受性。若譯文具有可接受性,我們認為,這裏出現了顯化現象,如(4b)和(4c)都是可接受的譯文,但是(4b)與(4c)比多了顯性的連詞,因而屬於顯化譯文;再如(6b)和(6c),這兩個譯文同樣都可以接受,只是(6b)比(6c)多了話題標記(topic marker) "啊",這個"啊"屬於顯化現象,因為漢語話題往往居於句首,話題"這些女孩子"居於句首已經表明了其話題地位,用不用"啊"並不是必要的。若譯文不具有可接受性如(5c)和(7c),也就是說譯文屬於誤譯,那麼誤譯產生的形式變化則不能認定為隱化和顯化現象,畢竟隱化和顯化現象的考察必須基於原文意義和譯文的可接受性,否則,沒有基準,就無法限定隱化和顯化的考察範圍。

- (4)a. He was a nonsmoker and a teetotaler.
 - b. 他既不抽煙,也不喝酒。
 - c. 他不抽煙,不喝酒。
- (5)a. He came in, looked around, went to the table and took a seat.
 - b. 他走了進來,向四周看了看,走到桌旁,坐了下來。
 - c *他走了進來,接着向四周看了看,接着走到桌旁,接着坐了下來。

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- (6)a. These girls, they know nothing. (Martin Amis: Money: A Suicide Note)
 - b. 這些女孩子啊,她們啥也不知道。
 - c. 這些女孩子,她們啥也不知道。
- (7)a. 他進來,向四周看了看,走到桌旁,坐了下來。
 - b. He came in, looked around, went to the table and took a seat.
 - c. *He came in, then looked around, then went to the table and then took a seat.

其次,若譯文的意義相比原文而言發生了變化,這只能說明 出現了新的形式,帶來了新的意義,就無所謂隱化和顯化,如 (8b)的"但不"已經歪曲了原文意義:

- (8)a. I like playing basketball and table tennis.
 - b. 我喜歡打籃球,但不喜歡打乒乓球。

再次,當原文中表程序意義的言語形式或非言語形式在譯文中必須由言語形式替換時,但譯者不僅有意或無意用了非言語形式替換,這種情況應該視為誤譯,不是隱化也不是顯化,如(9c):

- (9)a. 讀書鑽研學問,當然得下苦功夫。為應考試,為寫論文, 為求學位,大概都得苦讀。
 - b. Reading calls for painstaking efforts if it serves an academic

purpose, such as passing an exam, writing a thesis or pursuing a degree. [4]

- *Reading calls for painstaking efforts if it serves an academic purpose, passing an exam, writing a thesis, pursuing a degree.
- (二)描寫上:如何解決語料庫在隱化和顯化研究中的局限 性?

當前研究隱化和顯化現象的主要工具是雙語平行語料庫。然而,導致對隱化和顯化的解釋性研究有所欠缺的一個重要原因卻恰恰是使用平行語料庫來研究隱化和顯化,因為原文和譯文中一些非言語形式很難通過平行語料庫進行檢索,也就是說,當前隱化和顯化現象的描寫性研究存在局限,而這些局限又在一定程度上導致了該領域中的解釋性研究無法做到更加完善。

我們認為,隱化和顯化是指原文中的承載一定意義的言語形式和非言語形式在譯文中發生省略、添加或擴展等形式變化的現象,這些形式變化不導致原文本中形式所承載的意義在譯文中發生變化。據此,我們認為,只要原文中的非言語形式在原文中發生變化且不改變原文的意義,這樣的變化就有可能是隱化和顯化現象,這些現象必須得到研究。在我們看來,任何忽視非言語形式因素的研究都隱含了一個重大的交際觀問題,即把交際簡單地看作是編碼與解碼過程,忽視了交際之中話語受眾對說話人意圖的識別必須有推理的參與,而不是僅僅依賴於解碼。只有意識到交際之中必須有話語受眾的推理參與,才能重視交際中非言語形式的作用,才能注意到翻譯中非言語形式的隱化和顯化現象。

正如前文所言,隱化和顯化是參照表現一定意義的形式變化

來認定的,原文意義不變是認定某形式變化是否屬於隱化和顯化的前提條件。然而,意義的準確識別是當前依賴計算機進行的語料庫檢索無法完全做到的,意義的準確識別離不開人工參與,尤其是非言語形式的意義的識別。這樣,判定一個形式的變化是否引發原文意義的改變自然也無法依賴平行語料庫的檢索。一言蔽之,對隱化和顯化的認定和描寫無法完全依靠平行語料庫的檢索,而是需要人工參與。另外,上文我們提到,當原文中表程序意義的言語形式或非言語形式在譯文中可以由非言語形式替換時,但譯者不僅有意或無意用了非言語形式替換,而且還用了言語形式來替換,這種情況就牽涉到譯文中同時使用了兩種表程序意義的形式來替換原文中一種形式的可接受性。譯文的可接受性更是需要人的識別才能做出。

至此,我們認為,語料庫對研究隱化和顯化現象的功能主要 在於描寫承載原文概念意義的言語形式的顯化和隱化,同時,對 原文中承載程序意義的言語形式的顯化和隱化現象做出初步的描 寫,然後通過人工再加以甄別哪些是真正的顯化和隱化;對原文 中承載程序意義的非言語形式的隱化和顯化則更多地需要人工識 別,因為平行語料庫對非言語形式的描寫能力有所欠缺。

(三)解釋上:影響隱化和顯化的因素有哪些?為什麼一些 形式更容易產生隱化和顯化?其中是否有某種規律?

當前對翻譯的隱化和顯化現象的解釋,研究者們所分析的因素可以概括為主觀和客觀兩個因素。根據主觀因素分析主要是指根據譯者在翻譯中所表現的能力和行為來解釋,即譯者個人的語言與文化的能力和普遍性的主觀行為;根據客觀因素分析則主要指從雙語之間的語言與文化以及文本差異的角度來解釋隱化和顯

化。他們所採用的理論大概有社會學和認知語言學的角度。例如,Vinay & Darbelnet(1995: 193)認為,顯化翻譯是因為譯者出於謹慎(prudence)或出於疏忽大意(ignorance)導致的。Pym(2005)指出,譯者為了逃避得不到報酬或失去客戶的風險而採取顯化翻譯策略,因為顯化翻譯的風險較低。Puurtinen(2003)認為,學生譯作中的隱化和顯化主要源於他們的語言能力和知識有所欠缺,而不是有意為之。Halverson(2003)則從認知語法的角度來解釋翻譯的普遍性,認為導致這些特徵的原因是語義信息的認知結構存在差異。汪立榮(2006)對翻譯中的隱化和顯化的解釋也立足於認知框架,指出這兩種現象的產生與不同語言文化的接受者對同一事物的認知存在差異而有着直接關係。柯飛(2005)更明確地概括了影響隱化和顯化的因素,指出翻譯中的隱化和顯化受到譯者因素、文本因素、兩種語言以及兩種文化差異的制約。

然而,這些解釋都還有待於完善。例如,Vinay & Darbelnet、Pym 和 Puurtinen 主要強調的是譯者的影響;柯飛指出的影響因素更為全面,但並沒有指出譯文讀者等因素也可能影響翻譯中的隱化和顯化,畢竟翻譯作為交際是譯者和譯文讀者雙方參與的。Halverson與汪立榮的研究角度有相似之處。汪立榮(2006: 210)參看了張敏(1998)、沈家煊(1999: 5)、Lakoff(2003)、(Fillmore 1982; 2003)等多個名家的相關論述,指出:"一個認知框架代表一個概念系統",是"約定俗成的概念結構"。Halverson和汪立榮的認識,我們認為,是無法解釋一些言語形式變化的,因為許多隱化和顯化現象並不是都在概念上發生的,例如該領域研究較多的連接詞,連接詞並沒有概念意義。

根據以往學者們對隱化和顯化的認定以及語料庫描寫的結 果,隱化和顯化主要表現在銜接形式和含有特定文化信息的語言 形式上,那麽,這些形式為什麽會容易發生隱化和顯化呢?目 前,至少這方面缺少綜合解釋,有的也只是局部的或散點式的解 釋。根據言頹解釋,還不足以讓人們發現產生隱化和顯化現象背 後的規律。我們認為,銜接方式和含有特定文化信息的言語形式 之所以容易發生顯化和隱化,其根本原因是譯文的讀者對象與原 文讀者對象出現差異,譯文讀者的認知環境與原文讀者的認知環 境不相同。認知環境中包含了百科信息、邏輯信息和詞匯信 息,⑤ 來自兩個不同語言文化的人除了與語言直接相關的詞匯信 息肯定存在差異之外,他們的百科信息也往往存在甚為顯著的差 異。為了讓譯文讀者更容易識別原作者的意圖,譯者容易對原文 中表示程序意義且為了方便原文讀者理解的各種銜接形式進行調 整,同時,也是由於譯文讀者和原文讀者之間的認知環境存在差 異,尤其是認知環境中一個概念意義所包含的百科信息存在差 異,譯者為了方便譯文讀者的理解,譯者容易對含有特定文化信 息的言語形式進行調整,從而產生隱化和顯化的現象。

四、餘論

我們指出翻譯中形式變化的類型和制約形式變化的因素,從 而解釋了形式變化的原因,進而指出了當前翻譯中隱化和顯化研 究所存在的問題和研究方向。

我們認為,當前隱化和顯化研究中必須要解決的問題是:首

先要明白翻譯是一種交際,隱化和顯化是交際中出現的現象,進而採用正確的交際觀。當前忽視非語言形式對隱化和顯化現象的判定是傳統的代碼交際觀。傳統的代碼交際觀把交際看作是編碼和解碼的過程,忽視了交際中存在非言語形式交際的存在,對交際中的推理沒有給予足夠的重視。只有採取正確的交際觀,才能更好地限定什麼是隱化和顯化,從而展開這兩種現象的描寫和歸納,並從制約隱化和顯化的因素出發對描寫結果作出相應的解釋研究。但是,描寫研究不能僅僅局限於語料庫。

我們認為,由 Sperber & Wilson (1986/1995)提出的關聯理論,其交際觀是明示-推理 (ostensive-inferential)交際觀,是在反對代碼交際模式的基礎上建立起來的。它關注非語言符號因素的交際作用,承認非言語形式交際的存在。關聯理論的交際觀可以為隱化和顯化的研究帶來許多有益的啟示,本文的研究可為資證。

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注 釋

四 譯文讀者也可能影響譯者,但最後具體言語形式的選擇由譯者落實,因而無法認定哪些具體形式是由於譯者讀者影響而導致的變化,只能說,譯者讀者確實影響了形式的變化。許鈞(1996)曾組織過讀者對《紅與黑》的多個譯本的接受度調查,結果表明讀者更喜歡具有洋味的東西,更欣賞異域色彩。這可以旁證此處的觀點。其實,根據魯迅(羅書肆,1984)的觀點:"翻譯的不行,大半的責任固然該在翻譯

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- 家,但讀書界和出版界,尤其是批評家,也應該分負若干的責任"。 另外亦有德國功能派目的論(Skopos theory)學者 Nord(1997/2001)的觀點。我們認為,不僅僅是譯文讀者,更多的人員如批評家、委托人(可以是出版界)、譯文使用者、翻譯活動的發起人等都可能影響形式的變化。
- 這裏似乎我們還可以從交際是否成功的角度來看,從這個角度來看, 我們可以發現有些形式的變化是多餘的或不必要的,而有些形式的變 化則是必需的。但是,由於我們很難判定一個交際是否成功,本文更 多地依賴原文意義是否再現的標準來判定形式的變化,包括後文的隱 化和顯化。
- 陽聯理論學者 Blakemore (1987; 1992) 指出程序意義是不具有命題表 徵的信息,其存在是為了便於話語的理解,引導命題表徵的處理,傳 統上的連接詞往往就只有程序意義;概念意義具有命題表徵的信息, 如名詞等一般都具有概念意義。
- (9a)和(9b)均引自 http://www.rainlane.com/dispbbs.asp? boardID=8&ID=22406&page=1。
- Sperber & Wilson(1986/1995: 86)指出:概念的邏輯信息包括了一套演繹規則;百科信息包括了該概念的外延(extension)和/或內涵(denotation)信息;詞匯信息包括了表達該概念的詞匯或詞組的信息,如句法範疇、共現可能性、音位結構等信息。

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結構主義的翻譯教學論 *

王樹槐 王衛平

Abstract

On the Structuralist Perspective in Translation Teaching (by Wang Shuhuai and Wang Weiping)

One of the solutions to the problem of completing the huge volume of translation theory teaching and practical training in a limited time is to implement structuralist methodologies. Structuralist teaching emphasizes a disciplined structure, advocates a spiral curriculum and discovery learning, thus it greatly improves teaching efficiency and economy. This paper first introduces J. Bruner's structuralist teaching theory, then explores how to teach translative procedural knowledge through a spiral cirriculum and declarative knowledge through discovery learning.

翻譯教學牽涉到的理論千頭萬緒,龐大的理論教學、實踐訓練與有限翻譯課時之間不可避免地形成尖銳的矛盾。要充分發揮理論的指導性、效益性,減少實踐的盲目性、因循性,途徑之一便是實施結構主義課程。

結構主義教學論由美國教育家布魯納(J. Bruner)提出,它 強調學科的基本結構,提倡早期學習和螺旋式課程,宣導發現 法,因此在提高教學的經濟性、簡約性、效能性上具有重要的價值。本文首先對結構主義教學論進行述介,然後探討它在翻譯教學中的運用。

一、布魯納結構主義教學思想述介

布魯納的結構主義教學思想產生於上世紀 50 年代末美蘇爭霸、美國朝野對教育品質和智育目標迫切關注的背景之下,它受影響於列維·斯特勞斯(Claude Levi-Strauss)的結構主義人類學、皮亞傑(J. Piaget)的結構主義心理學和喬姆斯基(N. A. Chomsky)的結構主義語言學。結構主義教學理論指導了美國和許多國家的課程改革,是當代最具深遠和廣泛影響的教育思想之一。下面我們從課程論、教學論、學習論三個方面對它做一簡要介紹。

(一)結構主義的課程論(參見布魯納,1982)

布魯納認為,在知識不斷更新、爆炸的當今時代,學生最需要掌握的不是零散的學科事實和技巧,而是學科的基本結構。學科結構是指學科的基本概念、基本原理以及聯繫。比如生物學習中的向性,代數學習中的變化率、分配率、結合律,外語學習中的結構規則、句型,等等。他指出學習結構的意義在於:1、使學科容易理解,學生能更容易理解類似的事物或特殊現象。2、有利於人類的記憶,能夠免去記憶細碎的、再生的(regenerative)的細節材料,宏觀上能將事物之間的聯繫串通起

來。3、能促成遷移,使學生舉一反三、觸類旁通。4、能縮小高級知識和低級知識的差距,因為學科結構的概括性越高,學生就能越早接觸到學科前沿。

布魯納提出了一個大膽的假設: "任何學科的基本原理都可 以用某種正確和有用的形式教給任何年齡的任何人" (布魯納, 1982: 1)。這一改變傳統學習準備觀念的觀點,有着它自己的課 程編制理論做基礎。結構課程的學習通過兩種途徑實施。1、 "螺旋式課程"(spiral curriculum)。螺旋式課程將學科結構或 重要的原理、問題,轉化或改寫為不同的年齡階段學生所能夠理 解和接受的形式, 學生一開始便能接觸到問題的本質或概貌, 只 不過學科結構在初級階段以比較淺顯的方式呈現,隨着年齡的增 長、課程抽象水準的上升,最後以比較複雜的形式呈現。2、呈 現知識結構的策略必須與學生對知識結構的表像形式相適合。學 生"再現表像"的三個發展階段是表演式再現、映射式再現、符 號式再現。用一組行動來表示某個概念是表演式再現;用一組簡 略的意象或圖解來表示某個概念,是映像式再現;用一組符號命 題或邏輯命題,通過形式與轉換的法則或規律來表示某個概念, 是符號式再現。這三個階段的邏輯抽象水準不斷螺旋上升,教學 的關鍵在於一方面要切合於學生的認知特點,另一方面通過具有 挑戰性而且合適的課題,引導、加速學生智慧的發展。

(二)結構主義的教學論(參見 Bruner 1966: 40-53;布魯納, 1979)

布魯納認為教學理論必須具有四個方面的特徵:1、必須詳細說明最有效地使個體建立學習心理傾向的經驗,包括一般類型

的學習和特殊類型的學習;2、必須詳細說明將知識體系組織起來、並使得學習者易於掌握的方式;3、必須詳細說明所學材料的最有效的序列;4、必須詳細說明學習和教學過程中獎勵和懲罰的性質和步調。與此相對應,布魯納提出了教學的四條原則。

- 1、動機原則:獎勵與懲罰構成外部動機,成功與失敗則構成內部動機。內部動機足以保證學生學習的動力;外在的獎勵和懲罰應儘量少用,它們可能會破壞學習行為。教學的首要任務是要激發、維持學生學習的內部動機,並保持其方向性。這便要求一方面增加教材本身的趣味,另一方面促成態度和原理的遷移使學生獲得成功的內部獎勵。
- 2、結構原則:結構的優越性在於它能簡化資訊、產生新的命題、增強知識的可操作性等方面的力量。運用進行結構教學時,要注意三個方面的問題:i、結構的再現形式:根據學生認知水準的特點,將知識結構分別以表演式再現、映射式再現、符號式再現呈現給他們,這也就是布魯納假設中的"某種正確和有用的形式";ii、結構的經濟原則:要求儘量減少解決問題所需的信息量,簡化問題解決的步驟;iii、結構的有效力量:要求所學的主題內容對於學生來說具有"繁衍價值"(generative value),還要讓學生分析、瞭解自己的思維和完成學習任務的過程。
- 3、程式原則:對於所有的學習者來說,獨一無二的學習序列是沒有的。最理想的學習序列隨多種因素而定,包括過去的學習經驗、認知發展的階段、材料的性質和個別差異等。判斷學習序列是否優化包括以下準則:學習的速度;對遺忘的抵制;已習得的知識遷移到新情境的可能性;根據待學知識所選擇的表像再現形式;根據認知的緊張度所表現出的學習經濟性;根據新假

設、新組合的繁衍所表現出的有效力量。

4、回饋強化原則:學習取決於在某個時間、某個地點將 "結果的資訊"告知學生,以供他們糾正之用。回饋資訊時要注 意三點:一是時間,要求在學習者想將他的嘗試結果與意欲達到 的目標進行比較之時,即是要及時回饋;二是條件,要求在學生 退出思維定勢或高度焦慮狀態之後;三是方式,要求將回饋資訊 轉化為學生能夠理解和處理的形式。

(三)結構主義的學習論

布魯納的學習論思想體現在發現學習、思想程式與直覺思 維、學習行為等幾個方面。

- 1、發現學習。發現學習以培養探究性思維為目標,以教材或學習內容為物件,讓學生通過再發現的步驟來進行學習。布魯納認為發現學習的優點在於:i、激發智慧潛能,充分發展邏輯推理、假設和論證能力。ii、激發內部動機,使學生不斷獲得學習成功的滿足。iii、掌握探索方法,如使用資訊、嘗試假設、直覺思維與分析思維、對照與對比等。iv、有助於記憶的保持,因為發現的資訊能嵌入一個業已構成的認知結構中,有利於檢索。布魯納主張在探索學習過程中:i、教師與學生合作;ii、學生參與結構的形式;iii、使學生瞭解各種可供選擇的方法和不同的觀點;iv、讓學生有機會發表自己的意見(參見 Bruner 1979)。
- 2、思想程式與直覺思維。知識的獲得是一個問題解決的過程,它包括兩個步驟:一是根據感性材料提出試驗性的假設;二是用更多的感性材料對試驗性假設做檢驗。因此,要將分析思維和直覺思維相互補充:分析思維以明顯的步驟為基礎並可以明確

報告,而直覺思維總是以熟悉相關知識領域及其結構為基礎,採 用躍進、越級和捷徑的方法得出結論,當然這一結論還需要比 較、分析等方法作檢驗。培養直覺思維的方式有:教授學科結 構、運用啟發式程式、發展學生的自信和勇氣。顯然,學生的直 覺思維、預感、頓悟,都有助於提出大膽設想,促成發現活動 (參見布魯納,1982)。

3、學習行為。任何一個學習情節(episode)都包括三個方面:i、新知識的獲得;ii、知識轉換(transformation):通過外推法(extrapolation)、內插法(interpolation)、變換法(conversion)將所獲得知識整理成新形式並使之適應於新任務;iii、評價:核對一下處理知識的方法是否適合於新任務。這樣一種學習行為遵從了學科結構的連續性、往復深入性,使得學習脈絡更加清晰。

(四)簡評

布魯納的結構主義教學理論強調根據學生認知表像水準對學科結構進行編排、改寫,強調在發現學習中發展學生的直覺思維和內部動機,因而能極大地提高教學的針對性、經濟性、能動性。雖然以此指導的美國基礎教育改革失敗,但它卻深深影響了世界各級別、各類型的教育。它在美國基礎教育改革失敗的原因有二:一是忽視了教育外部的社會因素對人的要求、影響,以及人在發展過程中的內心需求;二是課程難度過大。對於第一點,布魯納在其後期對結構主義教學理論進行了補充——提出教育的切適性(relevance of education):一方面教育要切適於人的發展,要發展學生軀體、心智、情感、精神和心理的整體力量,另

一方面學校改革要切合於社會需要,更多地關注社會問題、政治問題(Bruner 1971)。對於第二點,我們認為,雖然結構主義教學在基礎教育中可能難度過大,但是翻譯教學中,由於我們面對的是生理和心理、心智與情感都已經高度發展的高等教育接受者,它是完全能夠取得成功的。

二、結構主義課程論在翻譯教學中的 潛意識運用:文獻綜述

在我們綜述文獻的過程中,我們發現已經有學者在翻譯教學中運用到結構主義的螺旋式課程方案了,雖然這些運用是不自覺的。我們先看看 B. Hatim 的翻譯教學課程模式。我們首先需要瞭解他在符號學維度下區分的體裁(genre)、話語(discourse)、語篇(text)三個概念。體裁是與特定語言情境相聯繫的語言表達方式的規約形式,如十四行詩、餐譜等;話語是指說話者在思維、寫作時對某一特定問題的態度,如所用的言語所帶有的性別歧視或政府官腔等;語篇是由一系列相互聯繫的功能因素構成,最終服務於一個特定的修辭目的(Hatim 1997a)。語篇、話語、體裁的難度依次上升。受 Reiss(2004: 24-47)的影響他將語篇劃分為三類:說明型(exposition)語篇(重心在於狀況、事件、個體、關係)、論述型(argumentative)語篇(重心在於概念評價)、教導型(instruction)語篇(重心在於未來行為的構成)(Hatim 1997b: 39),它們的難度依次上升。根據閱讀是否滿足期望(expectation-fulfilling)、遵從規範(norm-confirming),他

將語篇的交際分為穩定性(static)和動態性(dynamic)兩個維度,其中交際穩定性的語篇是無標記(unmarked)語篇,交際動態性的語篇是標記語篇(Hatim & Mason 1997: 27-28)。標記語篇的難度大於無標記語篇。Hatim 的翻譯教學課程設計是:第一階段定位為無標記的語篇三類型翻譯;第二階段擴展為無標記的語篇、話語、體裁三符號翻譯;第三階段再擴展為有標記的語篇、話語、體裁三符號翻譯(Hatim 2001: 182)。我們看到,Hatim 教學體系的基本結構是語篇、話語、體裁。三個類型的語篇翻譯訓練,在與體裁和話語的對照翻譯中得到提升;語篇、體裁、話語又在交際穩定性和動態性的對照中得到提升,整個課程體系是按照螺旋方式不斷上升的。

再請看法國雷納第二大學 D • 瓜岱克教授提出漸進式的翻譯 課程模式(參見劉和平,2004):

	1		
1、基礎翻譯			
1、1 描述翻譯			
1、2基礎翻譯	2、經濟翻譯		
1、3 概要翻譯	2、1 描述翻譯		
1、4基礎檔翻譯	2、2經濟翻譯	3、技術翻譯	
	2、3 概要翻譯	3、1 描述翻譯	
1、5日常文件	2、4經濟文件	3、2技術翻譯	4、法律翻譯
基礎翻譯	翻譯	3、3 概要翻譯	4、1 描述翻譯
1、6基礎翻譯	2、5 日常經濟	3、4技術文件	4、2 法律翻譯
	翻譯	翻譯	4、3 概要翻譯
	2、6經濟翻譯	3、5 日常技術	4、4 法律文件
		翻譯	翻譯
		3、6技術翻譯	4、5日常文件
			翻譯
			4、6法律翻譯

這也是一個結構主義的課程設計:在瓜岱克看來,翻譯教學的基本結構是描述翻譯、概要翻譯、檔翻譯、日常事務翻譯,這四項基本技能在基礎翻譯、經濟翻譯、技術翻譯、法律翻譯四個層次中往復出現,通過逐步上升的螺旋式訓練,最終得到不斷加強。

三、結構主義的翻譯教學論

教學領域的知識可以分為兩類:陳述性知識(declarative knowledge)和程式性知識(procedural knowledge)。前者是關於事實、原則的知識;後者是如何運用心理方法解決問題的知識。另外,一部分抽象的知識既有陳述性知識的特點,又有程式性知識的特點(Anderson 1993: 18-20)。同樣,翻譯知識教學的也包括這兩個類別。對於程式性知識學習,我們可以運用螺旋式課程設計;對於翻譯陳述性知識學習,我們可以運用發現法設計。

(一)翻譯程式性知識教學:螺旋式課程設計

我們認為,按照程式性原則,學生的翻譯能力可以在句/句群、語篇兩個層次上按螺旋上升方式依次發展。句/句群層次的重心在於語言結構的對比與轉化,語篇層次的重心在於生產具有交際性特徵的"句/句群的有機整合體"。下面我們先分別討論這兩個層次的螺旋式課程體系,然後討論翻譯程式性知識學習的思維發展問題。

A、語言結構對比與轉化層次的螺旋式課程設計

這一層次以"形合意合轉化"為結構,分英漢翻譯和漢英翻 譯兩個方向。在英漢翻譯方向我們設置兩級螺旋。第一級螺旋, 轉化英語在形式上疊床架屋、邏輯上錯綜複雜的結構。在這一過 程中,我們要求學生首先在把握語義命題的基礎上,超越、摒棄 英語的形式結構,然後掌握漢語邏輯"組塊" (chunking)的六 條原則。1、時間組塊原則:在敘述一系列事件時,漢語一般遵 從"先發生的先說,後發生的後說"。2、空間組塊原則:在表 沭空間關係時,一般按照由近及遠,由此及彼,由大及小敘述, 少數時候也遵從由遠及近,由彼及此,由小及大。3、層次組塊 原則:在敘述層次含孕的關係時,一般按照由總及分的順序,少 數時候也遵從由分及總。4、因果組塊原則:在敘述因果關係 時,一般是原因在前、結果在後,少數時候也遵從結果在前、原 因在後。5、對比組塊原則:在敘述對照關係時,一般是鋪敘在 前、主旨在後,少數時候也遵從主旨在前、舖墊在後。6、資訊 值組塊原則:在敘述一串資訊價值不等的資訊時,通常遵從已知 資訊在前、新知資訊在後, "低值信息在前、高值信息在後" (周之鑑,1994)。第二級螺旋,漢語語言的精煉、美化。這一 階段要求訓練學生的譯文簡潔、準確、形象、富於感情和文采, 可以讓學生在翻譯某一英語體裁的同時,去閱讀同類題材的漢語 語料,學習漢語作品中優秀的表達方式。

我們再看漢英翻譯方向。根據中國學生學習英語的特點,我 們設置三級螺旋。

第一級螺旋,語法的正確和邏輯的通暢。"語法的正確"包括以下四條原則的訓練。1、視角一致原則:前置的不定式、分

詞短語、介詞短語,必須和後面主句的主語在邏輯施事上保持一致,避免垂懸結構(dangling structure)。2、平行/平衡原則:將若干成分並列敘述時,既要照顧到它們語法形式的對等(如詞性、語法成分、主動/被動等),也要照顧到抽象/具體性質的對等。3、取一、取強原則:漢語注重駢偶,兩個、多個重複的成分可能意義相同,一個可能涵蓋了另一個。翻譯中只需取一個,或意義強的那一個。4、尾重原則(end-weight principle):字數冗長、結構複雜的成分通常放在句末,以免"頭重腳輕"。

"邏輯的通暢"包括以下三條原則的訓練。1、合理搭配原則:漢語的某些搭配在邏輯或形象上不能為英語所接受,必須學會英語的可接受搭配。2、邏輯明晰化原則:漢語表述時,有時成分之間的關係交待得不明確,翻譯前要分析它們之間的內在關係:並列?遞進?轉折?讓步?因果?在將這些隱含的邏輯關係譯為英語時,要通過適當的連接手段(如連詞引導的從句、介詞短語、非謂語形式等)將主句和從句、從句與從句之間的層次關係表現清楚。3、邏輯合理化原則:如果仔細分析一些漢語句子的深層次命題,就會發現表層敘述存有邏輯矛盾,譯前必須將邏輯關係合理化。

第二級螺旋,語言的簡潔和風格的區分。在簡潔譯文的教學中,首先要訓練學生避免直譯:1、"不必要的動詞+名詞"結構;2、套語名詞(如加快經濟改革的步伐 accelerate the economic reform)和範疇詞(如促進和平統一事業 promote China's peaceful reunification);3、套語修飾詞(如勝利完成 accomplish);4、在英譯文的語境中已經自明的資訊;等等。同時還要訓練學生學會使用:1、語義場中的下位詞;2、詞化程度高的詞;3、字約

義豐的固定短語、句型; 4、名詞化結構; 5、轉換修辭法、矛盾修辭法; 6、連字型大小引導的結構作前置定語; 7、由分詞短語構成的獨立結構表示原因、狀態、結果等; 8、介詞結構表述方式、對比、原因等; 9、一些並列的語法結構,英譯時可以處理為修飾與被修飾成分; 等等。但是,當簡潔性與意義的準確、自然地道、文體效果發生衝突時,則退居次位。

"風格的區分"包括辭彙和句子兩個層次的風格韻律比較。辭彙層次比較可以通過三個方面:1、詞源:拉丁語詞源>法語詞源>英語詞源(">"表示正式程度更高);2、語域:專業辭彙>日常辭彙,詩體辭彙、古語辭彙>普通辭彙;3、形態:單個動詞>短語動詞,表示方式的介詞短語>單個副詞,嚴格的一致關係(concord)>不嚴格的一致關係,完全形式>縮略形式。句子層次比較可以通過幾個方面:1、指導學生閱讀 A Communicative Grammer of English (Leech & Svartvik 1975),熟記其中總結的連詞、介詞的風格差異(如 notwithstanding>though;in order that>so as to);2、強調前置的倒裝語序>普通語序;3、分詞構成的獨立結構>由連詞引導的從句;4、it 起始的敘述結構(如 It is noted that)>普通敘述結構;5、用虛擬語氣、被動語態表示的請求>陳述語氣、主動語態的請求;6、(表示動作或狀態的)名詞化結構>動詞結構;7、介詞置於wh-形式前>介詞置於wh-形式後;等等。

第三級螺旋,語言的自然、地道,包括以下六個傾向的訓練。1、靜態視角傾向:英語在表達延續性動作和存在狀態時,多使用"系動詞+形容詞"或"介詞+名詞"結構。2、語序倒裝傾向:語序倒裝一般是為了滿足以下三個方面的需要:i、強

調;ii、形象的連貫;iii、形象的牛動。3、用詞鮮明傾向:一般 情況下,英語傾向於多用動詞,少用抽象的名詞;多用形象、意 義充實的辭彙,少用晦澀抽象、意義虛泛的套詞。4、隱喻傾 向:隱喻意義在英語中大量使用,語言因此而形象、生動,難以 傳達的概念和感受也變得百觀可感。比較而言,英語辭彙的隱喻 意義遠比漢語普遍,其隱喻的透明度和理據性均低於漢語(蔡基 剛,2008)。因此,需要擴大學生的英語隱喻圖式,通過背誦、 仿習來內化英語的隱喻思維。5、無靈視角傾向:從隱喻學看, 無靈句是一種語法隱喻,它在形式上讓視角多變,內容上更顯客 觀或活潑。表示時間、地點、狀態、原因、受動、心理與感覺的 語義成分都可以作為無靈主語。與此相聯繫,謂語動詞可以是表 示人心理活動、動作的辭彙。6、虛實轉換傾向:很多情況下漢 英翻譯的虛實是可以對應的。但是:i、在一些語境中,漢語的虛 在低層次上表現為一些字詞外延、內涵的非確定性, 高層次上則 表現為認知方式的神秘性、感悟性、整體性,而英語要求準確界 定、條分縷析。翻譯時可以採用下位概念具化、虛狀實譯。ii、 在另一些語境中,漢語的實表現為沒有曲折變化,要求指稱具 體、語言和思維生動、形象,而英語由於沒有對應概念,需要借 助曲折變化、抽象名詞,因而意義表現出概括性、模糊性。翻譯 時可以採用上位概念泛化、視角轉換。

在上述兩個方向的螺旋式訓練中,首先要照顧到新教學點對 舊教學點的包含,通過新舊知識有機結合,充分抵制遺忘的負面 影響;同時還要合理安排好學習的速度、緊張度和學生的認知負 荷量,使上述"結構"訓練的經濟性、有效力量得以充分發揮。

B、語篇生產層次的螺旋式課程設計

Newmark (2001: 15) 根據 Bühler 和 Jakobson 的語言功能理論,將語篇分為三種:資訊型(informative)、呼籲型(vocative)和表情型(expressive)。這三種類型語篇的翻譯難度逐次遞增。翻譯教學中,首先讓學生知道,一方面語篇類型和功能具有雜合的特徵,另一方面,每一個語篇又有主要的修辭功能和語篇類型(Hatim & Mason 1990: 145-49),因此語篇翻譯教學可以按照類型進行組織。然後,以 Beaugrande & Dressler(1981)區分的"語篇交際性標準"(即銜接性、連貫性、資訊性、情境性、互文性、意向性、可接受性)作為本階段學習的"結構",圍繞三個層次、七條標準實施結構主義螺旋式課程。

第一級螺旋,資訊型語篇(如科學論文、產品說明書、新聞報導、招投標書等):

- 1、在銜接性維度上,Halliday & Hasan (1976) 曾將英語的 銜接分為語法銜接和辭彙連接,前者包括照應、省略、替代、連 接;後者包括重複、搭配、同義/反義、上義/下義。漢語的銜 接與英語大體相似,只是在細節上存有區別。資訊性語篇對銜接 要求很高,英漢翻譯要求重複替代詞,或省去語境中自明的照 應;漢英翻譯要求恢復替代和省略的語法標記,運用變換求雅 (elegant variation)。
- 2、在連貫性維度上,第一個實現途徑是資訊單元 (information unit)之間的邏輯關係。資訊型語篇的邏輯關係一 般是原因-結果、條件-結論、方式-目標、情景鋪墊-事件觸 發,這些邏輯關係在英漢翻譯時通過漢語虛詞和語序體現,漢英 翻譯時宏觀上通過"語篇序列"(sequence)(Hatim & Mason

- 1990: 165)之間的組合體現,微觀上通過序列內部的"元素"(element)體現,它服從於語篇修辭目的的安排。第二個實現途徑是語篇心理圖式。資訊型語篇要求心理網路暢通,其心理圖式以"腳本(script)"(Schank & Abelson 1977: 41)為主。翻譯時要在譯語腳本中將缺乏跨文化通約性的"軌道"、"前提"、"空位"作補釋或填充。
- 3、在信息性維度上,Beaugrande & Dressler(1981: 142-45) 將資訊區分為三個等級。一級資訊只包括已知資訊,三級資訊只包括未知資訊,二級資訊包括部分已知、部分未知資訊。資訊型語篇主要為"無評價性的、穩定性的"(參見 Hatim & Mason 1997: 183)二級資訊、三級資訊,語篇中的中斷點和缺省可以通過"向後降級"(backward downgrading)(Beaugrande & Dressler 1981: 144)得以填充,即從語篇已經發生過的事件中尋求線索、得出理解。對於微觀認知語境的資訊,Sperber & Wilson(2001: 86)分為邏輯資訊、百科資訊和辭彙資訊。資訊型語篇翻譯教學要求培養學生根據上下文語境來掌握語義,同時培養根據辭彙資訊、邏輯資訊進行語用推理的能力。
- 4、在情境性維度上,Beaugrande & Dressler (1981: 163)區分了情境監控 (situation monitoring)和情境管理 (situation management)。前者指對語篇情境做無協調 (unmediated)的陳述,而後者指將語篇情境導引向語篇生產者的目標。情境性主要是通過語篇體裁結構、語篇策略等語篇構件實現。資訊型語篇主要運用情境監控,其語篇策略和體裁結構主要包括:i、敘述性(narrative)結構:背景(setting)——(初始事件——)問題——解決(——問題複雜化——解決);ii、程式性(procedural)結

構:步驟 1——·····步驟 x(——目標)(參見 Larson 1998: 401-

- 6)。翻譯過程中可直接保留源文的語篇構件,再現資訊功能。
- 5、在互文性維度上,資訊型語篇翻譯中一般要求對"互文指涉"(intertextual reference)(Hatim & Mason 1990: 132),即對其他語篇材料的引用,做形式保留。
- 6、在意向性維度上,第一個實現途徑是資訊排列方式。功能學派認為資訊的聚焦原則是舊資訊在前,新資訊在後,對此我們稱為無標記聚焦。在特定的語境中為了達到強調效果,也將新資訊放在句首,舊資訊放在句後,對此我們稱為標記聚焦。資訊型語篇多為無標記聚焦,翻譯時要將資訊由低值向高值排列。第二個途徑是語篇成分的變異、突出。資訊型語篇的變異、突出較少,一般可用常規、自然的語言結構翻譯。第三個途徑是語域,包括語篇的正式程度、作者一讀者心理距離、術語的專業程度。資訊型語篇通常較為正式,作者一讀者的心理距離也較大,術語多為技術語言,翻譯時通過選擇正式詞、大詞來重現源文語域。
- 7、在可接受性維度上,可接受性與語法性(grammaticality) 構成兩個極端,前者通過合作原則(Grice 1975)實現,後者是 語篇的抽象語法要求(Beaugrande & Dressler 1981: 119-30)。翻 譯過程中,可接受性體現為譯文與讀者的合作關係,語法性體現 為譯文對原文語法形式植入的程度。資訊型語篇譯文的可接受性 處於語法性和合作原則的中間。

第二級螺旋,呼籲型語篇(如廣告、宣傳單、公示、論辯文 等):

1、在銜接性維度上,呼籲型語篇對銜接要求很高,英漢翻 譯要求重複替代詞,或省去語境中自明的照應;漢英翻譯要求恢

復替代和省略的語法標記,運用變換求雅。

- 2、在連貫性維度上,呼籲型語篇的邏輯關係一般是:問題 一解決、一般一具體、假設一事實、讓步一轉折、並列一選擇、 條件一結論。語篇心理圖式以"計畫"(plan)(Schank & Abelson 1977: 75)為主。在計畫圖式中,中斷點和缺省需要運用 百科資訊進行推理、填充,翻譯時要求根據情景語境和文化語境 對空位(slots)做實化處理,或者按照目的語的世界圖式對"計 畫箱"(planbox)進行結構重組。
- 3、在資訊性維度上,呼籲型語篇出現了"評價性、動態性"(參見 Hatim & Mason 1997: 183)的一級資訊、二級資訊,對資訊加工的方式常常是向後降級和向外降級(outward downgrading)(Beaugrande & Dressler 1981: 144),後者指的是讀者從語篇外去尋求線索以理解當前事件。翻譯教學中要訓練:i、分辨微妙的評價性態度因素並在譯文中體現;ii、通過預設、百科知識、向前/向外降級等手段來掌握語義。
- 4、在情境性維度上,呼籲型語篇主要是情境管理,其語篇策略、體裁結構主要包括:i、闡述性(expository)結構:論點(結論)——理由1——理由2······理由x;ii、描述性(descriptive)結構:論題(topic)1——評論(comment)1/2···/x——·····論題x——評論 1/2···/x(參見 Larson 1998: 406-411);iii、主張——反主張結構(claim-counterclaim);iv、問題——解決結構(problem-solution);v、一般——特殊結構(general-particular)。翻譯過程中,通過對語篇構件的目的語順應,使譯文充分為讀者所接受。
 - 5、在互文性維度上,由於互文指涉在互文空間跨越的距離

會非常大(如時間的久遠、不同民族之間巨大的文化和心理差距),同時為達到讀者意動的目的,譯者會對互文指涉進行操縱,互文指涉會發生變形,為目標語語篇的語境所同化(accommodation)、順應(adaptation)(Hatim & Mason 1990: 129-33)。為了達到語篇的呼籲目的,常常有必要對互文指涉進行改譯。

- 6、在意向性維度上,呼籲型語篇有很多標記聚焦,但變異成分較少。翻譯教學中要訓練學生對聚焦手段、聚焦位置的辨認,並在譯語中設置等功能的聚焦。在語域上,呼籲型語篇的作者-讀者心理距離一般較近,通常可用非正式的日常語重現語域。
- 7、在可接受性維度上,由於是完全以目標語為中心的側重功能的翻譯,合作原則必須執行,可接受性水準也最高。

第三級螺旋,表情型語篇(如小說、戲劇、散文、詩歌等):

- 1、在銜接性維度上,沿小說——戲劇——散文——詩歌這一連續體,對銜接的要求越來越低,甚至會有一些隱含着特殊語用意圖的、故意的銜接不暢。翻譯時首先要分辨這類銜接不暢的深層意圖,不可為達到譯文的表層流暢而隨意補充。
- 2、在連貫性維度上,表情型語篇的邏輯關係常是:原因一結果、條件-結論、並列-選擇、情景鋪墊-事件觸發,但在邏輯序列之間會出現中斷點或"跳脫",此時形成連貫的手段是情節、情感、形象、意象。語篇心理圖式以"主題(theme)"(Schank & Abelson 1977: 131)為主。教學要點:i、分辨源文中

的情節鋪設、情感遞進、形象/意象的性質與類別,按照"隱含

情感→顯發情感、散點情感→彌漫情感、外部形象→內部形象、局部意象→整體意象"的順序使原文的"跳脫"在譯文中實現連貫; ii、分辨源文的"人際主題、角色主題、生活主題",並在譯文中重現。

- 3、在資訊性維度上,表情型語篇多是一級資訊、二級資訊,也有少量的三級資訊,它們具有很強的評價性、動態性,對資訊加工的方式常常是向後降級、向外降級、向前降級(forward downgrading)(Beaugrande & Dressler 1981: 144),後者指的是讀者必須等待語篇後續的事件來理解資訊。同時資訊的中斷點和缺省非常多,教學中要求訓練學生綜合運用辭彙資訊、邏輯資訊、百科資訊進行推理,並根據語言語境、情景語境和文化語境掌握意義。
- 4、在情境性維度上,表情型語篇一般採用情境管理。其語篇策略、體裁結構主要包括:i、導誘性(hortatory)結構:導入 ——展開 ——主題;ii、言辭性(repartee)結構:言辭交換 1……言辭交換 x,每一輪言辭交換又包括"問題——答話"(參見 Larson 1998: 411-19);iii、情一景(事)結構:漢語通常是情/景(事)結合,而英語常常是情/景(事)分離。翻譯過程中導誘性結構和言辭性結構一般可以直接保留;景(事)一情結構由於涉及深層心理接受,可以向譯入語方向調整。
- 5、在互文性維度上,如果為了照顧文本的完整性和閱讀的 流暢性,可以對互文指涉進行上位泛化或變形處理,如果為了突 出文化的異質性,則可以對互文指涉加以保留,並加上擴充說明 或注腳增釋。
 - 6、在意向性維度上,表情型語篇常常出現標記聚焦,會運

用到修辭、變異、突出、不定點、陌生化等手段,作者-讀者心理距離一般很近,術語的專業性水準較低。翻譯教學要點是:i、對有通約性的因素做保留,不可為達到譯文的"簡潔"、"合理"而隨意對"不可靠性"、"冗長編碼"等因素"中性化"(neutralize)、"自然化"(naturalize)(申丹,1995: 141-62);ii、對無通約性的變異、不定點、陌生化分別進行"自然化"、"具體化"、"日常語言化";iii、對經過上述處理的因素盡可能做補償。

7、在可接受性維度上,表情型語篇翻譯由於引進很多異質的表述方式,因此更靠近源語的語法性,可接受水準較低,但必須在譯語讀者可以忍受的範圍之內。

在這一課程體系中,語篇的七條交際標準及其翻譯要求在三個難度不斷上升的層次上重覆出現,學生對它們的理解逐步深入。

C、翻譯程式性知識學習的思維發展

與布魯納的再現表像三階段相對應,學生的翻譯思維發展要經歷語言符號表徵思維、圖像形象表徵思維、邏輯關係表徵思維 三個階段。在第一階段,學生的思維重心在於運用判斷、推理來 分析源文的語法層次關係,並根據語境掌握歧義、隱喻義、抽象 詞義。在產出譯文時,他們常常囿限於語言形式本身,傾向於在 譯語中尋求語法成分的對等結構。比如下面一句的翻譯教學:

> The cells are the last constant link in the great chain of mutually subordinated formations that form tissues, organs, systems, the individual.

處於語言符號表徵思維階段的譯文會是下面的樣子:

細胞是構成組織、器官、系統以及個體的相互隸屬的構造物長鏈中最後恒定的一環。

語言符號表徵思維的翻譯常常會導致翻譯腔,譯文的可讀性較 差,有時甚至影響表意。

在第二階段,學生的思維已經掙脫語言形式的束縛,開始運用圖像形象(包括視覺形象、聽覺形象、味覺形象、膚覺形象、 圖表或表格等)作為表徵載體進行譯文的加工運作。比如上一 句,學生會在大腦中構成細胞、組織、器官、系統、個體的關係 圖,並將譯文組織為:

細胞是相互隸屬的構造物所組成的長鏈上最後恒定的一環,這些相互隸屬的構造物形成了組織、器官、系統乃至個體。

在第三階段,學生的思維不僅擺脫語言形式的束縛,而且能在形象的基礎上根據事物之間的邏輯關係進行思維,在譯文中將源語的事理邏輯充分凸顯。如果是文學翻譯,他們還會運用文體學知識來監控整個翻譯過程和結果。比如上一句,學生便會運用新舊資訊的聯想、比較、整合來分析邏輯關係:原文是一個鬆散句,焦點資訊在句首 The cells are the last constant link,而 link 必然會將資訊加工方向轉移到 chain,讀者便會疑惑 chain 是什麼?跟着是解釋——mutually subordinated formations,而又在讀者疑惑是什麼 formations 的時候,原文作者再給 formations 一個定語

從句進行說明,整個句子的資訊一環套一環,後一部分不斷說明、補充前一部分。由於能充分考察到資訊之間逐層解釋的關係,學生翻譯時便會將原文中最低價值的說明資訊放在譯文的最前面作鋪墊,一步一步逐漸導入,直到最後亮出焦點資訊——"最後、恒定的一環是細胞":

生物的組織、器官、系統乃至個體,都是由相互隸屬的構造物組成。這一系列構造物好比一根大鏈條,鏈條上最後、恒定的一環便 是細胞。

發展學生翻譯思維,就是要儘快將學生從第一思維階段引至 第二、第三思維階段。一般而言,這一任務要與"語言結構對比 與轉化教學"同期完成。在學生還處於語言符號表徵思維時,一 方面需要訓練學生析解英語中包含有因果、時間、空間、對比等 邏輯關係的多重複句,另一方面可以準備好譯語中同類體裁的平 行文本,讓學生閱讀、學習、仿用,注重點在語言修養(包括母語)的提高;在向圖像形象表徵思維引導時,應該訓練學生對語 言外殼的脫離,讓學生在大腦中重現語言所描述的場景,充分發 展形象思維,並鍛煉側向思維和發散思維;在向邏輯關係表徵思 維引導時,應該培養學生的邏輯思維能力和理論演繹能力,運用 理性分析來組織語言和語篇,使自己的譯文產出始終處於元認知 的監控之下。

(二)翻譯陳述性知識教學:發現法學習

在翻譯領域的陳述性知識的學習與探索中,發現法學習具有

重要的教學價值。教師要注重發展學生的直覺思維,培養學生提出假設、證實/證偽假設的能力。同時,教師還應參與學生的發現過程,指導、監控學生的發現步驟,並充分發展學生在各階段上的技巧、膽識、嚴密思維和合作精神。這一探索過程通常分為八個步驟:1、就待研問題查閱各種電子文獻、紙質文獻;2、對文獻梳理、歸結、評價;3、得出局部結論;4、根據直覺、頓悟、邏輯關係提出新的觀點/假設;5、進一步制定研究方案;6、(運用多學科知識、實證材料)論證局部觀點/假設;7、將觀點/假設推廣,檢查適用的範圍和條件,並進行修正;8、提出理論模式。實際教學中也可以選用若干主要步驟,或將某些臨近步驟融合。下面我們以"等值論"的發現學習為例。

首先,要引起學生對等值論的探究興趣,讓學生明白它在翻 譯研究中的地位和重要性:將翻譯研究從經驗的研究範式帶進科 學的研究範式。

第二,指導學生探究學習的過程結構:將全部學生分為若干組,每組包括 3-4 個學生,第一步是學生組內探索活動,他們分工合作查閱文獻、歸納學術觀點、提出論點或假設,第二步是學生組間探索活動,在課堂中採用研究課、論壇的形式,讓每組選出代表,互相討論、評價。

第三,從五個階段指導學生展開對等值論的發現過程。第一階段,探索等值論流派的"問題結構",對等值論流派的理論背景、立論基礎、學術主張做系統的總結。在教師的指導下,學生通過合作查詢文獻會發現等值翻譯理論包括以下流派:1、以Chomsky轉換-生成語言學為基礎的對等,包括形式對等與功能/動態對等(Nida 1969)、萊比錫學派的 Koller 的五種對等形

態和 Kade 的四種對等關係(參見 Snell-Hornby 1988: 20-21)。
2、以 Halliday 功能語言學為基礎的對等,包括語篇對等與翻譯轉換(Catford 1965)、下轄 8 個功能—風格範疇的語篇整體形態(text profile)對等(House 1997)。3、以語篇語言學為基礎的對等,包括語篇對等(Neubert & Shreve 1992)、語境三維度對等(交際活動、語用行為、符號互動)(Hatim & Mason 1990)。4、以對比語言學為基礎的對等,包括模糊對等與精確對等(Kommissarov 1977,參見 Fawcett 1997: 60-62)、直接翻譯與間接翻譯(Vinay & Darbelnet 2000)、翻譯的比較一描述模式(Leuven-Zwart 1989; 1990)、文體對等與假性對等(申丹,1995)。6、以語用學為基礎的對等,包括風格對等(Popovic 1976)、美學等效與最小最大策略(MINMAX STATEGY)(Levý 2000)、意義連貫和意義隱含對等(Baker 2000);等等。

第二階段,探索中外學者對待等值論的態度。學生會發現,西方學者對等值論除了主張派之外,還有三派觀點:1、反對派,如 Gutt (2001: 12-14) 從心理認知角度、Snell-Hornby (1988: 21-22) 從學科範疇角度、Nord (2001: 35-36) 從譯文功能角度、Chesterman (1997: 10) 從模因演進和譯者地位角度、Wilss (1996: 3) 從譯員培訓角度、「日 Hermans (2007: 61) 從後現代角度、尼南賈納 (2001: 166-170) 從後殖民角度批評了等值論。2、辨證或折衷派,如 Baker (2000: 6)、Bassnett (2004: 36) 主張辯證地看待等值問題,Baker (2000) 還借用等值概念組建翻譯教學體系。3、描寫派,如 Toury (2001: 61; 86) 主張只要是源

文一譯文關係,便首先要承認它們是等值的,然後再對等值進行描述:等值是歷史的、動態的、相對的,它的程度和類型由規範所決定。學生也會發現中國學者對等值論持有三派觀點:1、支持派,如吳新祥、李宏安(1984)從十五個層面設置等值標準,范仲英(1994:22-32)從四個層次提出翻譯的等值要求。2、反對派,如吳義誠(1994)、劉宓慶(2006:262)認為等值論不適合於(英漢)翻譯研究。3、融通派,如勞隴(1990)、羅新璋(1994)認為等值論、等效論與"信、達、雅"理論本質是一致的。

第三階段,引導學生探求等值論流派的貢獻與缺陷,並得出局部結論。1、分析在借用"等值"這一概念背後,等值論學者真正的理論主張:Nida追求的是語用角度相同的讀者反應;Catford追求的是範疇轉換和層次轉換;Baker追求的是辭彙、句子、篇章、語用等層次的翻譯技巧;Hatim & Mason追求的是相同的語境總體效果(包括交際目的、言外之力、語篇修辭目的、話語態度、體裁規約);申丹追求的是相同的文體效果;等等。2、從數學概念出發的等值論會帶來誤導:首先,會將等值理解為等同(identity),這是Neubert & Shreve(1992: 142)、Bassnett(2004: 36)等學者所反對的;其次,一味在語篇中設置若干層次的等值,並逐一追求,理論者最終會發現無法實現這一目標。

第四階段,引導學生評價學者們對等值論的態度,並得出局部結論:機械套用和簡單排斥都是不可取的。等值論學者在"等值"概念背後是有很多真知灼見的,我們要做的是將他們的翻譯主張作為一種翻譯理念,合適地運用於具體語言結構、具體語篇、具體語境的翻譯之中。同時,在實用文本的翻譯中,強調的

是"翻譯充分性" (adequacy) (Nord 2001: 34),這是等值論 無法指導的領域。

第五階段,引導學生對等值論的研究趨勢和歷史意義提出自己的觀點。1、等值論的研究趨勢:從語義到語用、從語言到交際、從文本資訊到讀者接受、從形式到功能再到形式/功能並重、從靜態到動態、從單學科視角(語言學)到多學科視角(文體學、敘事學、美學等)。2、等值論的歷史地位:作為翻譯研究的一種"模因"(meme)(Chesterman 1997),在規定性譯論領域中,等值論雖然還影響着今天的研究,但它已淡出研究主流,取而代之的是規範(norm)模因。前者的重心在於文本資訊,後者的重心擴展到文本資訊、社會要求、價值與道德等範疇。等值論將科學的研究範式引進翻譯研究,並且承前啟後,所起的啟蒙、鋪墊、過渡作用是不可抹煞的。

在運用發現法時,因為翻譯教學材料蕪雜、理論流派繁多,要注意選擇典型性的學習材料,結合"範例教學法"(瓦根舍因,1988),讓學生從"個"的翻譯案例過渡到"類"的翻譯特殊性,進而遷移到"範疇"的翻譯規律,最後上升到對整個翻譯理論系統的認識,並自覺地指導如何翻譯、如何根據文化背景變數評價翻譯。

四、結 語

運用結構主義教學論時,要注意以下幾個問題。1、不是所有的應用翻譯理論和描述翻譯理論都能系統地編入學科結構之

中,一些與主要理論板塊聯繫不大、比較零散的理論觀點或翻譯技巧,我們需要運用"微型理論課"(Colina 2003: 64)或"嵌入式教學"(O'Malley & Chamot 2001: 153)來輔助解決。2、要真誠地對待學生,尊重他們的情感、翻譯經驗和翻譯評價,充分相信他們的潛能,建立和諧的師生關係。3、要分辨學生在英漢語言知識儲備、思維方式、認知圖式、興趣愛好等方面的差異,針對個體差異因材施教。4、要發展學生的非智力因素,在他們分工合作搜索平行文本、翻譯、討論修改、反思總結的過程中,培養他們的毅力、細心、責任心、人際交往能力(包括與同伴、客戶)和團隊合作精神,使之獲得成功的自信和快感,終將"譯技"上升到"譯理"進而到"譯道"。

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注 釋

- 在 Leuven-Zwart 的模式中,比較模式是將兩種語言間的"原翻譯素" (Architransmese)作為中間對比項,決定翻譯中採用微調 (modulation)、調整(modification)、變化(mutation)中的某一 項方法;描述模式是從文體學、敘事學角度分析上述翻譯方法對譯文 的功能(概念、人際、語篇)所產生的影響。前者是微觀層次上的對 比語言學分析,後者是宏觀層次上的功能文體學分析。
- Wilss 對待等值論的觀點上發生很大變化: 1980 年他提出 "語篇-語 用對等" (Wilss 2001/1982: 135),1982 年仍堅持並發展這一論點 (Wilss 2001/1982: 138; 157),1996 年他又宣稱"等值是不存在的" (Wilss 1996: 3)。

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也談漢詩英譯中 "形式對等"的重要性 * ——與金春笙先生商権

張保紅

Abstract

Rethinking Formal Equivalence in Chinese-English Poetry Translation (*by Zhang Baohong*)

This paper argues against Jin Chunsheng's article "My View on Formal Equivalence in Chinese-English Poetry Translation" published in Issue 2, 2007 of Chinese Translators Journal. The author rethinks Schlepp's English translation of Ma Zhiyuan's Autumn Thoughts from the perspectives of imagery, the meaning suggested by imagery, rhythm and poetic feelings, content-oriented point of view and target readers' acceptance. It aims to improve upon our prevailing cognitive studies on Chinese-English poetry translation.

《中國翻譯》(2007 年第 2 期)上刊登了金春笙先生與黃國文先生商権的文章〈漢詩英譯"形式對等"重要性之我見〉 (以下簡稱〈金文〉)。拜讀之餘,深受教益與啟發。〈金文〉 從詩歌的審美符號集的形式、美感經驗、審美情趣諸層面對

Schlepp、翁顯良英譯的《天淨沙·秋思》以及李賦甯英譯的《題金陵津渡》進行了較為詳盡的評鑒與研討,並對黃國文文中論及的漢詩英譯中"形式對等"的翻譯標準提出了批評。〈金文〉認為:"漢詩英譯不求形貌,只求意象、意境的造設"。對於意象的翻譯,〈金文〉主張譯文要釋放出意象的內蘊之美,而對於意境的傳譯則主張"要注重意境的演繹"。筆者認為〈金文〉獨到的解析與鑒賞之於詩歌翻譯是有其重要價值與意義的,但傾向於將鑒賞所得付諸譯文,就有將鑒賞與翻譯混同之嫌,其結果則是翻譯中突顯了原作的意義或構成意境的這樣或那樣的意蘊,而消解或遮蔽了原作意象及其組合與系列呈示藝術的詩學特色與價值。正是基於這一原因,本文擬以意象詩學為視角,從意象、象下之意與意境中的虛境、聲韻與詩情、內容主義傾向與譯文讀者的接受等幾個方面就 Schlepp 所譯《秋思》,黃國文所提出的"形式對等"標準與〈金文〉進行商権。為了便於分析,茲將《秋思》原文及 Schlepp 譯文轉錄於下:

原文: 天淨沙•秋思(馬致遠) 枯藤老樹昏鴉,/小橋流水人家,/古道西風瘦馬。/夕 陽西下,/斷腸人在天涯。

譯文: Tune to "Sand and Sky" – Autumn Thoughts

Dry vine, old tree, crows at dusk, /

Low bridge, streaming running, cottages, /

Ancient road, west wind, lean nag, / The sun westering /

And one with breaking heart at the sky's edge.

一、意象的翻譯

談論詩歌離不開談論詩歌中的意象,詩歌詩意的生發、濃郁 及其流轉與意象及其組合與系列呈示緊密相連,正是在這一意義 上,意象之於詩歌表情達意的重要價值一再為人們所論及。美國 詩論家路易斯(Lewis 1947: 17)說: "意象是一切詩歌中的衡 量,每首詩本身就是一個意象"。將意象視為詩歌中不可或缺的 因素, 並將其提升到體現詩歌詩質與詩意的中心地位。詩論家嚴 雲受(2003:402)說: "一首詩就是一個意象系統。詩的世界就 是意象世界。這是從整體構造着眼來作出的判斷"。明確說出了 意象之於詩歌的重要性及其價值是在詩作文本意象系統中來實現 與完成的。學者鄒建軍(1999: 76)說: "詩與非詩的界限,內 在層面表現在有無詩美發現,外在層面表現在有無意象化的直觀 而間接的方式"。"(意象)處於詩歌內在形態與外在形態的交 界處,處在作者審美與讀者審美的交叉地帶,是作者藝術表現的 着力處和讀者藝術接受的聚變點,它從根本上控制着詩歌藝術創 "告舆接受的成敗"。着重指出了意象化的組構方式與作者的創造 藝術、詩作的構成藝術與讀者的藝術接受的緊密聯繫。至此可 見,詩作中的意象既與文本系統中的諸要素緊密相連,還與文本 系統外的諸多因素密切相關。由此論及詩歌意象的翻譯,對意象 翻譯的認知視角與考量方法在源語與譯語中均應是多維多層的。 從〈金文〉中有關意象翻譯的討論來看,其諸多論述的着力點與 關注面值得商榷。下面就〈金文〉中述及的相關意象的翻譯進行 探討。

(一) 文本語境與譯語文化語境——"西風"的翻譯

"西風"是原曲意象系統中的一個有機組成部分,其在曲子 中的詩學價值與功能既可涌渦自身在漢文化中的自然屬性(如西 風與寒冷、肅殺等相聯繫)體現出來,也可誦過其與"枯藤"、 "老樹"、"昏鴉"、"古道"、"瘦馬"、"夕陽"、"斷腸 人"等意象的相互作用、相互影響、相互滲透體現出來,即共同 啟示出枯萎、蕭瑟、淒清、衰敗等的蘊含。前者呈現出的是意象 "西風"的個性,後者彰顯的是其在文本系統中意象的共性,這 一共性體現出詩作中意象組合與系列呈示所遵循的情趣定向律, 即"詩中各個意象都體現一定的意趣情思,它們連接在一起,應 通力合作,相得益彰,形成具有特定的思想內涵、富有一定美學 情趣的意境"(彭建明,2003:51)。具體地說,文本系統中意 象共性的呈現往往會使某一意象某一方面的性質或特點突顯,另 一方面的性質或特點消隱,從而大大強化某一意象在文本系統中 突出的表情達意效果。例如,意象"夕陽"與明麗、歡快或閒適 的意象共處一個文本系統,那麼"夕陽"中所具有的燦爛、溫 煦、愉悦的一面便會被突顯出來,從而啟示出歡悅或自足的詩 情。如,(1)窈窕夕陽佳,風薑春色好(孟浩然);(2)同游 清蔭遍,吟臥夕陽曛(孟浩然)。反之,"夕陽"若與黯淡、憂 愁的意象共處一個文本系統,那麼夕陽中所具有的蕭瑟、清冷、 頹敗的一面便會被突顯出來,從而啟示出一種淒涼、頹喪的詩 情。如,(1)夕陽無限好,只是沂黃昏(李商隱);(2)夕陽 一片寒鴉外,目斷東南四百州(汪元量)(嚴雲受,2003:235-237)。大抵基於上沭原因,眾多中外譯者在翻譯漢詩中的"西 風"時,並未出於"對譯文讀者的考慮"將原作中的"西風"改

也談漢詩英譯中"形式對等"的重要性

譯為"秋風"、"刺骨的風"等什麼的。相反,他們依然以 the west wind 譯"西風"。且看以下譯者對"(古道)西風(瘦馬)"的翻譯:

- (1) Ancient highway, gaunt horse / in western wind. (tr. Burton Watson)
- (2) Down a worn path, in the west wind, / A lean horse comes plodding. (tr. Ding Zuxin & Burton Raffel)
- (3) An ancient road, west winds, a lean horse (tr. Wai-lim Yip)

從上可見,"西風"傳譯為 the west wind,並非像〈金文〉所說的這"是語言自身的無奈"。〈金文〉脫離文本意象系統來談論"西風"的翻譯,只是過於注重了其被接受的歷史文化語境,而忽略了"西風"的文本語境及其語境下可實現的詩學功能與價值。若按〈金文〉的意旨,將"西風"譯為 autumn wind,那麼"嫋嫋兮秋風(屈原)","秋風起兮木葉飛(張翰)","秋風起兮白雲飛(劉徹)","秋風吹木葉(王褒)"等等漢詩句中的"秋風"又該如何翻譯呢?如若"秋風"與"西風"合二為一,顯然有悖於漢文化中"秋風"與"西風"分屬兩個不同的意象,有着各不相同意蘊內涵的常規。因此,將"西風"譯為the west wind,既忠實於原作文本及其意象藝術構建,也表現出對原語文化負責任的態度。

(二)譯語語境的參照——"瘦馬"、"夕陽西下"、 "斷腸人"的翻譯

〈金文〉結合譯語文化語境來探討"西風"意象的功能與價值的路徑是值得肯定的。但較為遺憾的是,其在論述《秋思》中其他意象的翻譯時,卻止步於以英語文化語境為參照,而是以偏於個人主觀的想像來對 Schlepp 的譯法進行評斷。〈金文〉說:

"瘦馬"譯成 lean nag,lean 是褒義詞,指人或動物時意為清瘦而健康的,在此用來修飾馬,與原曲意象有距離。再者"nag(口)(舊)馬,尤指老馬,狀況不佳的賽馬"(戴煒棟,2003:1131)。 試問:在馬致遠的年代有"賽馬"嗎?馬是一個模糊的概念,顯然Schlepp 在選詞上未免欠妥!

"夕陽西下"譯成 the sun westering,暫不論 westering 這個形容詞怎麼變成動詞,這裏的"西下",為什麼非得一語點破"西"字?旭日東昇,落日西沉,這是大自然的規律,盡人皆知。……。單從 the sun 與現在分詞 westering 組成的獨立主格字面承載的資訊,讀者得知的只是"太陽西下",遠不如"夕陽西下"那麼富有詩情畫意。另外 And one with breaking heart at the sky's edge(心碎人在天邊)不如"斷腸人在天涯"更能給讀者淒涼悲戚的心靈感應。因為漢詩的肝腸寸斷意象鮮活,而譯詩的心碎用得太亂,沒有新意。

針對〈金文〉所說,我們依序探討如下。

〈金文〉認為將"瘦馬"譯成 lean nag 是有問題的,其理由 也許源自 lean 的外延意義是 thin in a healthy and attractive way: lean and athletic looking(Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English)。但其認定用 lean 來譯"瘦"不妥,顯然忽略了 lean 可有的語境意義,有道是"Each word when used in a new context is a new word"(J. R. Firth)。具體地說,一方面,lean 在譯文中會因前後其他詞語(如 ancient road,west wind,the sun westering,breaking heart等)的影響其意義向消極面轉化,這一推斷可從前文有關意象系統的論述中得到支撐,也可通過讀者得到的"最初資訊的決定性效果"(primacy effect)予以佐證——排列在《秋思》譯文文本前面的詞語(如 dry、old、low、ancient 等)會改變或弱化 lean的詞義或內涵而使之與前者趨同(申丹,1998: 290-291)。另一方面,從 lean 在英語文化語境中的使用來看,其意義也並非執於〈金文〉所說的"清瘦而健康的"一隅。例如:

(1) Let me have men about me that are fat, / Sleek-headed men, and such as sleep o' nights: / Yond Cassius has <u>a lean and hungry</u> <u>look;</u> /

該例選自莎士比亞戲劇 Julius Caesar 中的第一幕第二景,文中劃線處的"瘦人餓相"是同"胖人的光鮮"對舉而出的。

(2) That Lean and Hungry Look.

這是 Suzanne Britt Jordan 所撰寫的一篇幽默小品文的標題,發表在大約二十年前的《新聞週刊》(Newsweek)上,後來作者將這篇文章擴展成一本書: Skinny People Are Dull and Crunchy Like Carrots

(1982)(劉士聰,2002: 68)。不難看出,作者筆下的 lean 就是 skinny 的意思。而事實上,在作者的這篇小品文裏,lean 的內涵一直是通過其論述對 thin people 的認識來完成的,而作者論及thin people 時使用了一系列帶貶義的形容詞,如 narrow,wizened,shriveled,surly,mean,hard等,由此不難確定 lean 的消極內涵。

從例文來看,lean 與 hungry 同現已成搭配慣例,提起一方,便自然想到另一方。此外,在習語 as lean as a rake 中 lean 的涵義也就是 bony、skinny 之意。這也許就是 Schlepp 以 lean 來譯"瘦(馬)"的原因。再者,nag 一定是指"賽馬"嗎?翻開英國作家斯威夫特(J. Swift)的傳世名作 Gulliver's Travels 中第四部分"智馬國之行"("A Voyage to the Country of the Houyhnhnms"),我們會看到 nag 一詞在作者筆下一再出現,與"賽馬"並無關聯,目錄幾例如下:

- (3) In this employment, <u>a sorrel nag, one of the under servants</u>, was very ready to assist me. (Chapter 3)
- (4) And his Honour ordered one of his servants, <u>a strong sorrel</u> <u>nag</u>, <u>very honest and good-natured</u>, <u>to be my guard</u>, without whose protection I durst not undertake such adventures. (Chapter 8)
- (5) Being one day abroad with <u>my protector the sorrel nag</u>, and the weather exceeding hot (Chapter 8)

也談漢詩英譯中"形式對等"的重要性

例文中劃線處表明 nag 充當的是僕役、保鏢等之類的角色。比照 看來,譯文中 nag 頗有與羈旅之人形影相弔,相依為命之感,這 正合原曲題旨,又怎能說"欠妥"呢?

就"夕陽西下"、"斷腸人"的英譯文,〈金文〉也未作具體的研究,就匆匆做出了自己的評斷。Westering 果真像其所說的不能變成動詞嗎?"西下"一語點破"西"字就是如此不懂常識,毫無詩學意味嗎?例如:

- (6) I found the sun already westering, wherefore (not minded to be caught in the dark) I rose and ... set out on my return. (J. Farno: Black Bartlemy's Treasure, Chapter XXVII)
- (7) The low westering sun shone right on the shoulders of the old Binton Hills (G. Eliot: *Adam Bede*, Chapter LIII)
- (8) and I could distinguish, by the shine of the westering sun up the valley, a concourse thickening ... (E. Bronte: Wuthering Heights, Chapter XVI)

顯而易見,westering 是可以用作動詞的,而且還正是與 sun 一再連用,既給讀者呈現出鮮明的畫面感,也給讀者以強烈的時間流逝的過程感與方位感。不僅如此,譯者以 westering 譯 "西下"還在音韻上呼應了前文的 west wind,[w] 的複現既暗示出西風呼嘯的聲響,又予人西風勁吹,遍佈環宇的擴展聯想,極大地渲染了作品的意蘊氛圍(Gill 1985: 46)。

〈金文〉批評"斷腸人"的譯文是"濫調",也偏於從個人 的經驗來論說。翻開英語文學作品,我們會看到丁尼牛(A. Tennyson) 悼念亡友可倫(A. H. Hallam) 所寫下的詩篇 "Break, Break、Break",break 一語雙關,既表現了浪花衝擊岩石的聲 響,也傳達出詩人失去墊友心情悲痛腸欲斷的情懷;拜倫(G. Byron) 在"When We Two Parted"一詩中描寫戀人分別時肝腸寸 斷的情形用的也是 break 一詞的變體,如 When we two parted / In silence and tears, / Half broken-hearted / To sever for years, /; 🗐 樣地,司各特(W. Scott)在其詩"The Maid of Neidpath"中描 寫戀人等待心上人由期盼到落空時的絕望心情也是用 break 一詞 的變體,如 He came—he pass'd—an heedless gaze, /.../ The castlearch, .../ Could scarcely catch the feeble moan / Which told her heart was broken; 風靡全球的英文歌曲"此情可待"("Right Here Waiting")將戀人間隔海相望難相見的刻骨銘心之痛表現得尤為 強烈,用的也是 break 一詞,如 Whatever it takes or how my heart breaks / I will be right here waiting for you;而在英文歌曲 "Breaking My Heart"中,這一短語被反覆吟唱,如泣如訴,更是將友人別 離,肝腸寸斷的詩情表現到了無以復加的地步。如此看來, breaking heart 還會是"濫調"嗎?

二、象下之意與意境中虛境的翻譯

《周易·系辭》在解決"書不盡言,言不盡意"的矛盾時, 提出"立象以盡意"的原則。這一原則中"象"指具象的事物, 與抽象的"意"相對,但比"意"更易於為人們所理解和接受, 其作為"意"的載體,其含蘊的空間也常常大於"意",因而 "象"一方面具有蘊含意義的多向性,另一方面又能盡傳其 "意",即以象顯意,以象盡意。通常而言,在詩作中意象只是 手段,意象及其組合與系列呈示創造詩作的意境才是目的。"意 象是意境形成的先導,意境則是意象組合生成的必然"(吳戰 壘,1991: 41-42)。但意境不是諸意象的簡單相加,而是超越於 諸意象之和,是意象的組合與昇華。也就是說,意境的形成有實 境與虛境之分,實境是指詩中呈現的可以捉摸的"境"內之 "象",而虛境是指由"境"內之"象"生發出來不易捉摸的 "象"外之"境"。

從〈金文〉的行文來看,意象、意境在翻譯中的重要性是一再得以強調的,但對意象的傳譯,〈金文〉的認識傾向於譯出"意象"的內蘊之美,即象下之意或意象可暗示、啟發出來的意義,主張譯出"意象間的空白",即"詩人不曾在詩的意象群落中言傳,而讀者卻可以憑藉其詩性素養,從詩的意象群落中想見和意會的那些東西"(張孝評,1999: 134)。且看〈金文〉的相關論述:

再者,用 the sky's edge(天邊)來譯天涯是夠對等的,因為以象而論,詩人談的天涯就是天邊,而象外之意卻指異鄉,譯詩似乎沒有將原詩的文化內涵譯出。

······Schlepp 的譯文在一定意義上傳達了原曲的某些文字的概念意義,但他未能把曲中承載的蒼涼淒婉的鄉愁情懷的言外之象完美地釋放出來。

類似地,〈金文〉對意境的傳譯,其觀點也傾向於譯出可由 意象組合與昇華出的意境中所含蘊的意味,即意境中可由實境部 分生發出來的虛境部分。且看其相應描述:

翁譯把原曲的資訊拉長了,但他拉長的只是"原文中那些'不言而喻'的內隱成分轉變成文字"。 翁譯竭力尋找馬致遠散落在字裏行間的詩人個人的"微觀特徵",以此揣摩馬致遠作此曲時的周圍環境,並發揮譯者審美主體的作用,加以渲染,把原曲的意境表達得淋漓盡致……。

······Schlepp模仿原曲的簡潔,但闡釋審美主體性體現得淺些,因此,很難給重邏輯思維、抽象思維的西方讀者帶來淒涼悲切的感受。譯者不應該刻意複製原詩的形式,而應將原詩的韻致、情愫、意象儘量完美地傳達出來。

以上論述表明,Schlepp 的譯文只有形式的對應,未將原曲中所含蘊的"異鄉、蒼涼、淒婉、悲切"顯化為表體的文字,不便於讀者直接體會到原曲的意境,故而頗感遺憾與不足。〈金文〉的這一觀點應和着詩歌翻譯界由來已久的認識。詩歌翻譯家黃新渠說:

文學翻譯,尤其是詩歌的翻譯,不但要充分理解原詩的內容,還要 領會詩人的思想感情和言外之意,在傳達原作的意境上下功夫。逐 字逐句對號入座的翻譯絕不能說是忠實於原作的內容,更談不上什 麼藝術感染力了。漢詩英譯主要是給外國讀者看的,總要讓人看懂 才行,看不太懂的譯文就很難達到預期的效果。(轉引自《詩詞翻 譯的藝術》,1987:253)

翻譯家魏荒弩也說:

一個詩歌譯者決不能單純地、機械地去模仿原詩,而主要是忠實地 再現原詩的思想內容、音韻和意境。為了傳達原文的精神,翻譯時 就不能逐字逐句、亦字亦趨,斤斤計較一字的增刪,死守着詩行的 次序不放。(同上:467)

追根溯源,也許是我國傳統詩學中,"意"的主導與統攝作 用更受重視── "得意而忘象" 《莊子•外物》; "日月所及, 皆詩也,但以意剪裁之"(宋代徐俯); "無論詩歌與長行文 章,俱以意為主,意猶帥也。無帥之兵,謂之烏合,……"(清 代王夫之),從而導致人們在論詩、解詩過程中歷來盲導對"象 外之象"、"言外之意"、"弦外之音"的追求。這一追求溢出 漢語詩學的節圍,直接影響到詩歌翻譯的實踐與批評。因而,譯 者論及詩歌翻譯時,一貫主張要以傳譯原作意象與意境中所含蘊 的"意"為旨歸,而對使意境蘊含生生無窮的意象及其組構的藝 術形式關注不夠。如此,漢詩英譯的現實情形就恰如著名詩人與 批評家葉維廉所指出的那樣: "一首中國詩要通過詮釋方式去捕 捉其義,然後再以西方傳統的語言結構重新鑄造……。他們都忽 略了其中特有的美學形態、特有的語法所構成的異於西方的呈現 方式"(參見蔣洪新,2002:27)。毫無疑問,由於意象及其組 合與系列呈示共同營構意境的詩學方式漕消解,其最終結果往往 是詩的意義通過日常的語法邏輯陳述出來了,易於讀者搞懂了,

可詩歌創作中詩人通過語言創造意象,又以意象及其組構來暗示、啟發、調動人們想像和聯想的藝術沒了,詩也隨之飛走了。

三、聲韻與詩情的傳譯

詩論家辛普森(L. Simpson 1975: 3)說:"詩之思是通過節奏表達出來的"。詩的節奏可分為內化的節奏與外化的節奏。內化的節奏指內在的音樂性,是詩情呈現出的音樂狀態,即情感的圖譜。外化的節奏指外在的音樂性,表現為韻律(韻式、節奏的聽覺化)和格式(段式,節奏的視覺化)(呂進,2007: 8-9)。〈金文〉從音律、音韻的角度探討了《秋思》以及 Schlepp 的相應譯文,其重點在分析外化節奏中韻式部分的傳譯。〈金文〉認為:

而譯詩的節奏,三音步、四音步、五音步不等,與原曲迥異。此外,原曲是押ia韻,且一韻到底。而譯詩幾乎無韻,傳達不出原曲的節奏和聲律之美。

並在此基礎上進一步說:

曲中九個意象蘊含豐富,是形、義、音的結合體,承載着厚重的審 美資訊。但 Schlepp 只傳達義而傳達不出形、音與圖像性,這實在 是英語的無奈。 事實是否全然如上所述呢?細讀 Schlepp 排列成 5 行的譯文, 我們會看到譯文在格式上體現了原曲視覺化的節奏即 "形美", 而且 5 行之中前 3 行的音節數分別為 7、8、7,在全文篇幅中 佔據絕對主導的地位,這 3 行的主旋律為 4 音步揚揚格,也因 此定下全文的格律基調,譯文中伴隨着的其他步格(如第 1 行中 的第 3 音步為揚抑格,第 2 行中的第 3 音步為抑揚格,第 3 行 中的第 1 音步為揚抑格等)則為使譯文的音樂性變得多彩多姿的 "配合旋律"(counterpoint)(王寶童,1993: 34)。揚揚格的 主旋律利於表達心情凝重的愁苦詩情,有道是:"重重格(指揚 揚格,筆者注)走路聲動地,大腳像石板和鉛幣"(布林頓, 1992: 28)。此外,行文中不斷出現的逗號也進一步大大舒緩了 詩文的節奏,濃郁了凝重、愁苦的詩情。誠如俄羅斯詩人勃洛克 所說:"真正的詩人的精神世界表現在一切之中,直到逗號" (呂進,2007: 18)。

從音韻的角度看,譯文未像原曲那樣押上一韻到底的尾韻,但譯文中多管齊下的腹韻、頭韻、尾韻等回環映照大大渲染與深化了原作的詩情,在音韻上取得了與原作所表徵出的"諧音綜合""諧音和語義的關聯"的近似的效果(蔣濟永,2002: 96-97)。如,被美國詩人愛倫•坡(E. A. Poe)稱之為人類語言中最能表達哀愁的語音[ou](趙彥春,2005: 285),在譯文中反覆出現(如 old—crows—low—road);還有能暗示西風嗚咽的語音[w]的複現(如 west—wind—westering);能極大舒緩詩文節奏的長母音[ai]、[ei]、[i:]的複現(如 dry—vine—sky;ancient—breaking;tree—stream—lean);還有[iŋ]與[d3]的複現(如running—westering—breaking;bridge—cottages—edge),等等。顯

然,〈金文〉所說的: "而譯詩幾乎無韻,傳達不出原曲的節奏 和聲律之美",是難以令人信服的。

總體來看,譯文充分發揮了英語的音韻特點與優勢,較好地再現了原作的節奏與詩情,也許正是在這一意義上,我們看到了譯者選詞用字,編排詞序的良苦用心:"枯藤"、"老樹"分別譯為在發音上悠長徐緩的 dry vine、old tree 而不是 withered vine、rugged tree;"小橋"譯為與前後文在語音上回環映照的"lowbridge",而不是"small/little bridge",值得一說的是這裏"小橋"的譯文是從視覺意象的角度出發來譯的,呈現出鮮明的畫意,怎麼會使"田園野趣之美蕩然無存"呢?"流水"譯為stream running,而不是 running stream;"夕陽西下"譯為 The sun westering 而不是 The westering sun,既體現出一種時空流動不居的動態感,又以揚揚的步格協調着譯詩的主旋律並應和着譯作的詩情。至此"Schlepp 只傳達義而傳達不出形、音與圖像性,這實在是英語的無奈"。看來只是〈金文〉未作具體分析的一廂情願說辭了。因此,詩作聲韻與詩情的傳遞應從譯文整體來考量,孤立的、片段式"尋章摘句"的分析顯然有失偏頗。

四、內容主義傾向的翻譯觀

內容和形式是文學作品中長期困擾人們的問題。中西古近代 文論中都有重內容,輕形式的傾向。西方以亞里斯多德提出的 "模仿說"為代表,亞氏認為,模仿的物件構成了作品的內容要 素(如悲劇中的情結、性格、思想),屬於模仿的目的,因而是 重要的;模仿的媒介和方式構成了作品的形式要素(如悲劇中的語言、歌曲、形象),這些要素是為內容服務的,因而是次要的。在我國,"詩言志"、"文以載道"一直是文學創作的主導理念,這一理念決定了在內容與形式的關係問題上必然偏向於內容,內容是最為重要的,形式只能是內容的陪襯和裝飾(王汶成,2002:94)。由於傳統文論觀的影響,傳統翻譯研究中便出現了重內容而輕形式的傾向,甚至還出現了內容與形式二元對立的分離狀態。

香平〈金文〉全文,其翻譯研究主要以傳統文論中的內容主 義傾向為大背景,因而〈金文〉反對黃國文所提出的"形式對 等",其文中指出:"若漢詩英譯皆以黃文提出的'形式對等' 標準來衡量 '忠'與 '不忠', '準確'與 '不準確', 單從語 言學角度去要求,竊以為不僅欠科學性、藝術性,目有悖文學翻 譯的特殊性"。在論及《題金陵津渡》一詩的翻譯時認為:"若 照黃文的'形式對等'理論來譯,恐怕原詩的意象之美,意境之 美都難以見出"。而細讀黃文,我們看到其所提出的"形式對 等"的標準是以功能語言學觀點"形式是意義的體現"為前提 的。也就是說,黃先生從功能語言學視角所提出的"形式對等" 中的"形式"是可以表現內容的"形式",是具有詩學功能與價 值的"形式"。也正是看到了"形式"與"內容"在詩學價值上 的緊密聯繫,呂俊(2001:95)指出,將"重內容、輕形式", "形式與內容的對立分離關係" "帶到文學翻譯中來是有害而無 益的"。綜而觀之,〈金文〉對黃先生觀點的解讀與評判無疑有 斷章取義之嫌。

而事實上,詩歌翻譯家們也早就從自身的翻譯實踐中認識到

了"形式的重要性"的問題。《唐詩三百首》的英譯者詹甯斯 (S. Jenyns)說: "詩的美與其說在於要講的話的內容,倒不如 說在於他們講的方式"。詩歌翻譯家江楓則說:"詩歌形式不正 是內容的外衣,資訊的載體,在多數情況下形式就是內容,載體 就是資訊……"。"對於譯者來說,更為重要的是通過形式去瞭 解內容,瞭解詩人看待世界和抒發內心的不同方式"(許鈞, 2001: 120-121)。翻譯家李芒也說到: "作品的內容是通過藝術 形式實現的,所以具有具體形象的審美意義。因此,甚至可以 說,藝術形式在表現內容方面起着決定性的作用"(同上: 33)。對於詩歌或文學作品中的獨特形式或表現方式要不要在翻 譯中予以轉存,王向遠(2004:25)從篇章結構方面區分文學翻 譯與非文學翻譯時說:"而文學翻譯則不同,好的文學作品是一 個有機的藝術整體,它是一個'全息'的資訊系統,不能割裂、 不能擴大,也不能縮小,否則就會破壞作品的藝術風貌。盡可能 將作品的篇章結構和表現方式按原貌完整地再現出來,是文學翻 譯家的責任和義務"。顯而易見,這裏將在翻譯中轉存表現原作 藝術風貌的形式因素已看作是翻譯家們義不容辭的責任了。

至此再回過頭來看《秋思》中的形式美因素,可以說其之所以能經過歷史的淘洗,流傳久遠的主要原因是與其獨特的藝術表現形式分不開的。從傳統詩學的層面看,《秋思》繼承並發展了詩至唐代近體意象高度密集,意象並置特色顯著的詩學成果,有效地彰顯與演繹着詩體向前演進發展歷程中意象的組構藝術,因而翻譯中有效地轉存原作的意象並置形式與特色意義尤為重大,這不僅有利於在中西文化交流中彰顯獨特的"民族外衣"(普希金語),也可避免使"中國古詩和現代新詩的英譯文卻幾乎看不

出有什麼差別" (傅浩,2005:61)。那麼,翻譯中如此轉存原作獨特的藝術表現形式後,譯作是否可以為讀者接受呢?這是下文所要探討的問題。

五、譯文讀者的接受

譯文讀者可否接受 Schlepp 的譯文呢?從〈金文〉的行文來看,答案是否定的。其理由有二:一是 Schlepp 的譯文"增加了西方讀者的'通道接受力'即理解的難度,因為中西不同的審美觀念形成了中西美學之間的差異。中國美學講究'含蓄朦朧',西方美學則崇尚'顯豁明晰'"。二是西方讀者重邏輯思維、抽象思維,Schlepp 模仿原曲的簡潔難以給西方讀者帶來淒涼悲切的感受。

〈金文〉的評斷值得商榷。首先,〈金文〉只強調了中西美學之間的差異,而未曾看到中西美學發展中可有的共性。以中國古典詩歌對英美意象派的影響為例,意象派前期主將龐德正是看到了漢詩凝練含蓄的詩學價值與文化價值才說:"正因為中國詩人從不直接談出他的看法,而是通過意象表現一切,人們才不辭繁難去翻譯中國詩歌"(參見朱徽,2001: 179)。而意象派後期主將洛厄爾則在提出意象派"六原則"時乾脆又加上一條:要含蓄,不要直陳(李平,2004: 183)。而在具體實踐中,意象派詩人常常通過"脫體法(disembodiment)"省去名詞前的冠詞或指示代詞來強化名詞的非專指性,為的正是要取得詩意朦朧模糊的效果(趙毅衡,1985: 253-254)。由此可見,在西方詩學中"含

蓄朦朧"也是倍受推崇的。

其次,〈金文〉有混同詩性語言與日常語言之嫌。我們知道,詩性語言既來自日常語言又不同於日常語言,是故有"詩家語"一說。"在詞法、句法等方面,詩歌語言對日常語言和散文語言的偏離,也帶有鮮明的形式美學意義"(吳戰壘,1991:179)。因而將詩性語言與日常語言不加區別,一味地以日常語言的語言邏輯與理性邏輯來規範詩性語言的"內在的意象邏輯"(肖馳,1986)或"情感邏輯"與"想像力的邏輯"(吳曉,1990),勢必會導致認識上的偏差,從而以日常語言的工具理性消解或遮蔽詩性語言的審美特性。

再次,〈金文〉對 Schlepp 譯文的評斷未能立足於動態的詩學觀。一味信守傳統詩學法則,難免會對傳統之外的詩學演進與流變大加韃伐,這既不利於探析文化交流與交融的現實現象,也會大大曲解譯者的用心,從而遮蔽我們對詩歌翻譯的認知視域。從漢詩英譯的歷史進程來看,不同詩學觀影響着譯文不同的呈現形態。19 世紀的翟里斯(H. A. Giles)所譯的漢詩沿用的是他那個時代讀者所熟悉的傳統英詩的格律與規範,20 世紀初的韋理(A. Waley)所譯的漢詩則放棄了傳統的英詩格律和押韻方式,轉而依賴英語的彈跳節奏(sprung rhythm)——這是英語現代詩發展出來的新方向,而在意象派詩人龐德、洛厄爾的漢詩英譯中則又鮮明地體現出意象主義詩學的特色,等等。Schlepp 的譯文可以說正是意象派詩學影響下的產物,體現出鮮明的現代詩學特徵。

最後,〈金文〉未曾關注到譯文讀者接受的現實文化語境。 Schlepp 的譯文將 11 個意象(或名詞短語)予以並置,這樣的譯

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詩〈金文〉認為譯文讀者是不能接受的。情況是否果真如此?不妨來考察一下英美詩人的作品。如羅伯特•白朗寧(R. Browning)之詩"Meeting at Night":

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The grey sea and the long black land; /
And the yellow half-moon large and low; /
And the startled little waves that leap /
In fiery ringlets from their sleep. /
As I gain the cove with pushing prow, /
And quench its speed i' the slushy sand. /
Then a mile of warm sea-scented beach; /
Three fields to cross till a farm appears; /
A tap at the pane, the quick sharp scratch. /
And blue spurt of a lighted match, /
And a voice less loud, thro' its joys and fears, /
Than the two hearts beating each to each.
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從上例中我們看到多個語詞意象(或名詞片語)彼此並置,相互之間也並無什麼語法或理性的邏輯聯繫,但絲毫不影響讀者解讀其間的詩情畫意。之所以能解讀,靠的是文本內"內在的意象邏輯"。例文中的意象——灰濛濛的大海、陰暗的陸地、昏黃的月亮、歡跳的波浪、小船、田野、沙灘、農場、窗戶等等不斷流動與切換營造出"月上柳梢頭,人約黃昏後"的浪漫意蘊氛圍之時,既予人強烈的畫面感與動態感,又表現了赴約戀人的急切期盼與喜悅難擋之情。這類詩文在英詩中並非孤例,讀一讀威廉

姆斯(W. C. Williams)之詩 "Spring and All",我們會看到詩文中的意象有天上的寒風烏雲,地上的枯木衰草,近處的荒蕪路徑、潭潭死水,延伸至遠方廣闊荒涼的泥濘之地,諸多意象掙脫理性的邏輯,像水銀燈似地逐一呈現出來,在徐徐展開這一幅"色彩斑斕"的嚴冬畫卷之時,予人冬天依然盤亙大地,春天姗姗來遲的沉悶與壓抑。而翻開龐德、洛厄爾、艾略特、史耐德(G. Snyder)、雷克斯羅斯(K. Rexroth)等詩人的作品,也都可找到類似的例證。"這種擺脫生硬的邏輯關係,把意象或詩段直接並置在當時(20世紀初,筆者按)已是大勢所趨,是很多詩人自覺的追求"(同上:286)。在這一意義上,Schlepp 的譯文可以為譯語讀者接受是有其現實文化語境與基礎的。

再來看漢詩英譯的情形。是不是 Schlepp 的譯法絕無僅有呢?且看下列例子:柳宗元詩《江雪》 "千山鳥飛絕,萬徑人蹤滅。孤舟蓑笠翁,獨釣寒江雪",W. Bynner 譯為:A hundred mountains and no birds, / A thousand paths without a footprint; / A little boat, a bamboo cloak, / An old man fishing in the cold river snow。張繼詩《楓橋夜泊》中詩句 "月落烏啼霜滿天,江楓魚火對愁眠",張廷琛和 B. M. Wilson 譯為:The setting moon, a cawing crow, the frost filled the sky; / River maples, fisherman flares, and troubled sleep。毛澤東詩《十六字令•其二》 "山,/倒海翻江卷巨瀾。/奔騰急,/萬馬戰猶酣",許淵沖譯為:Peaks,/Turbulent sea with monstrous breakers white, / Or galloping steeds / In the heat of the flight。

以上諸例表明,無論是英美譯者,中外合譯者,還是中國譯者,他們均採用了多個語詞意象並置的翻譯技法。由此可見,這

種詩歌創作的藝術手法已為越來越多的譯者掌握並付諸翻譯實踐中。而在近年出版的漢詩英譯集中(如《唐宋詞 100 首》,裘小龍英譯[2006];《從詩到詩——中國古詩詞英譯》,任治稷等譯[2006]),這種多個意象並置的藝術手法更是被使用得越來越多,已成為譯者傳情達意的基本常式之一。如果說 Schlepp 的譯法在意象派之前還只是一種潛在的翻譯技法的話,那麼現在已由潛在變為了顯在,成為大有用武之地的藝術表現手段了,其突出的詩學價值在於簡潔明快,圖畫感、雕塑感鮮明。

六、結 語

詩歌是語言的藝術,是意象及其組合與系列呈示的藝術。詩作中意象的詩學特色與蘊含從根本上是由詩作的意象系統來彰顯與確立的。不顧原作文本意象系統以及源語文化意象系統的詩學與文化因素,一味以譯語文化語境絕對壓倒原作文本語境或文化語境來進行翻譯研究的理念是值得商榷的。其不足表現在,一方面會遮蔽意象及其組合傳情達意的詩學功能與藝術特色;另一方面會減損源語文化中相應意象的蘊涵資料庫,表現出對源語文化不負責任的態度。鑒於此,原文文本語境與譯語文化語境出現不甚協調的問題,可由原文文本或文學詩學規範來予以解決。

以譯語文化語境為參照進行的翻譯研究,應立足於動態的、 生動的譯語語言文化現實與詩學規範,過於依賴詞典中的概念釋 義或以日常語言的規範來繩制不同類型的文本,其方法有靜止、 僵化之嫌,其結論顯然也有失片面與針對性。

詩歌是一個意象系統,也是一個表情達意的有機整體。這要求我們無論是對待原作,還是對待譯作中構成文本的各種要素及 其相互聯繫,都要有整體審視的眼光,要從詩作的整體來分析與 確立詩情的表達與再現。唯其如此,才不會隨意抹煞譯者的創意 與良苦用心。

詩歌翻譯自然應追求意境、神韻的傳譯,但詩作的意境與神 韻首先來源於詩作中意象及其組合與系列呈示的藝術化特徵之 中,其次來源於讀者與詩作文本相互交流而共同營構的成果。前 者偏於物質性,後者偏於非物質性,後者以前者為前提。因此翻 譯過程中,譯者掌握了意象及其組構的藝術方式,也就找到了傳 譯詩作意境、神韻的有效途徑,為更為充分地傳譯出原作的詩性 特質與表情藝術奠定了基礎。相反,若以後者為前提,處處將非 物質性的蘊涵化為物質性的表體文字,原作的詩學特色與藝術個 性在譯文中就會被大大降低或改變,原作因其獨特的表現形式而 生髮出的立體化的、發散性的意蘊內涵就往往可能被簡化為平面 化的、單維的、定向的語義疏解與事理陳述。正是在這一意義 上,黃國文先生從語言學視角論證的"形式對等,形式是意義的 體現"這一詩歌翻譯標準值得我們認同與尊重。

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也談漢詩英譯中"形式對等"的重要性

注 釋

問意境的蘊涵可分為三個層次:表層、深層與聯想意蘊。表層意蘊即文本的字面意思。深層意蘊指作品字面底下所含蘊的意味,其所得隨鑒賞才的悟解水準而有深淺豐約之差。聯想意蘊可以是作品潛在意蘊的觸類引發,也可以由鑒賞者的心理投射而產生(吳戰壘,1991: 88-89)。

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