Translation Quarterly No.100

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香港翻譯學會

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編者的話:

時光荏苒,不經意間《翻譯季刊》已迎來百期華誕。《翻譯季刊》由劉靖之教授創辦於一九九五年,迄今已歷經二十五個春秋。四分之一世紀,歲歲年年能一路堅持下來,是很多人無私的奉獻和努力,包括前任主編陳德鴻教授,香港翻譯學會會長陳潔瑩博士等,更重要的是衆多一直支持《翻譯季刊》的作者和讀者。今年也適逢香港翻譯學會成立五十周年,雙慶同至,實爲難得。爲此,學會會長兼本刊編輯委員會主席陳潔瑩博士特地爲本期撰寫了獻辭。《翻譯季刊》爲香港翻譯學會的會刊,有兼容並蓄的開放視野,提供一個良好的平臺給中國內地、港澳臺地區以至世界各地的翻譯學者分享他們的研究成果和發現,積極推進翻譯研究,尤其是中文語境下的翻譯研究。

本期共收錄七篇文章和一篇書評。

劉季春 "更新翻譯觀念——促中國文化走出去" 系統比較了中西翻譯理論,指出傳 統的"信"與"忠實"的翻譯原則有其局限性,不能很好的揭示中英翻譯的現象。作者 結合個人翻譯和教學經驗,用實際生動的例子表明翻譯是個"既增、又减、還改"的 過程。最後,作者指出中國文化能否真正走出去,更多的是應該破除思想禁錮,更新 翻譯觀念。徐敏慧"翻譯文學的資本及其神聖化進程"一文則借鑒翻譯社會學的概念, 探討翻譯文學如何通過不同形式資本的積累獲得神聖化地位。作者從文本、副文本、 以及文本外三個層面入手,探究影響中國翻譯文學神聖化進程的模式與機制。作者指 出,翻譯文學的地位並非與生俱來,而是文學場域內各種力量長時期不間斷爭鬥、抗 衡的結果,結合商業和藝術兩個層面能更好地揭示翻譯文學的神聖化進程。劉傑"重 構抗戰語境下的盟軍譯訓教育"一文追溯了二戰背景下軍事口譯教育的歷史發展,研 究主要聚焦於戰時口譯教育,深入探討當中課程設計、教科書和培訓方法。該文通過 梳理歷史材料和重構戰時譯訓教育的語境,有效重現了抗戰期間中美軍隊中的英文譯 員的培訓過程和方法,對於加深理解戰時口譯培訓提供了一個重要的視角。本期第四 篇論文作者為李波和劉美隆,該文系統描述了宋淇翻譯思想及其翻譯活動。宋淇為香 港翻譯學會發起人之一,曾擔任學會副會長(1974-1976)和會長(1976-1980)等職 務,並創辦和主編《譯叢》期刊。作為一位與翻譯學會和香港翻譯研究頗有淵源的學 者,宋淇在二十世紀香港翻譯文學史上占有重要而獨特的一席。該文通過介紹評介宋 淇,讓讀者更好地了解香港地區翻譯活動及研究的發展及演變。此外,該文收入本期 也是致敬宋先生,感謝他為香港譯界作出的貢獻。裘小龍一文則主要討論漢詩英譯的 各種問題。作者結合自己的課堂教學經驗,討論了中詩英譯的種種問題。作者指出漢 詩英譯是一門複雜、多方面的工程,但在翻譯中忠於原詩並重現原詩意義與感性是可 能的,也是必須的。本期第六篇作者爲沈春利及于金權,主要考察閻連科作品《為人 民服務》及其英譯本。文章結合意象考察政治翻譯,深入研究英文譯文及副文本,對 政治文本的英譯作了細緻有益的探討。本期第七篇作者爲 Anthony Cordingley 與 Josh Stenberg,其文章研究中文語境下的自譯現象。本文以諾貝爾獎獲得者高行健爲個案,發現高行健作品的合作翻譯挑戰了許多關於合作翻譯的公認觀點,當中作者的參與並沒有限制譯者自由等。本期最後一篇爲書評,作者蘇玉鑫對單德興所著《翻譯家余光中》一書做了系統評介。學界以往關注得更多的是余光中在詩歌、散文創作方面的成就,而對其在翻譯方面的貢獻則缺乏深入的探究。該書評系統介紹了余光中在翻譯領域的貢獻和成就。

雖然翻譯已經發展成為一門獨立學科,但這絲毫沒有弱化其跨學科的特點。從本期收錄的論文可知,翻譯研究涉及方方面面,所借鑒的方法也愈加多元,某種程度上也說明了《翻譯季刊》的開放性和包容性。展望未來,我們希望《翻譯季刊》會越辦越好,繼續服務翻譯研究學者、業界人士和大學翻譯系的師生。

劉康龍

二零二一年六月

Message from the Chairperson of the Editorial Board, in celebration of the 50th Anniversary of the Hong Kong Translation Society

編輯委員會主席獻辭:香港翻譯學會五十周年誌慶



One Hundred Issues of Certitude

It is with double delight that the Hong Kong Translation Society presents the 100th issue of its refereed journal *Translation Quarterly* in its golden anniversary year.

Putting out 100 issues, by simple mathematics, would have taken a quarter of a century had it been all plain sailing. Plain pragmatics would suggest otherwise: untold stories of glitches, delays, setbacks and personnel changes translated into missed deadlines. It was not without great fortune and fortitude that Founding Chief Editor Liu Ching-chih launched the first refereed journal on translation and interpreting studies in Hong Kong in 1995 with no institutional support. The journal soon gathered momentum and its circulation continued to rise during the successive and successful helmsmanship of Leo Chan (now Honorary Chief Editor) since 2005. Its visibility and global reach have been heightened especially by an electronic licensing agreement in 2009 with EBSCOhost, among the world's most prolific providers of full text journals, magazines and other research sources online.

Over the past 26 years, the journal has striven a long way to fulfill its vision of becoming a major academic journal on T&I studies published in the Chinese and English languages in the world. The interdisciplinary and multidimensional topics covered hitherto have involved languages other than Chinese and English, ranging from Arabic, French, Indian, Japanese, Korean, Maori to Tibetan. After Li Dechao assumed Chief Editorship in 2019, together with Associate Editors Shelby Chan, Li Bo and Liu Kanglong, new plans have come to fruition, including a new typesetting design and a bold leap forward – *Translation Quarterly* is available for open access starting from this 100th issue on the newly refurbished website of the Hong Kong Translation Society in commemoration of its 50th anniversary, marking the commitment of the Society and its flagship journal to knowledge sharing and empowerment.

From fortitude to certitude, we witness with gratitude the journal flourish under the steering of successive Chief Editors and prominent Editorial Board members, including but not limited to: (retired) Evangeline Almberg, Serena Jin, Jane Lai, Laurence Wong, Lo Chi-hung, Robert Neather, Sun Yifeng; (serving) Andrew Cheung, Lee Tong King, Li Defeng, Rachel Lung, Sara Laviosa, Joseph Poon, Duncan Poupard, Shao Lu, Stella Sorby, Wang Binhua,

Jackie Yan and Zheng Binghan. Guest editors are occasionally commissioned. Notable especially is the Advisory Board, which has for over the past decades attracted distinguished scholars in the field, including: (late) Cheng Yang-ping, Ho Peng-yoke, George Kao, Lin Tai-yi, Göran Malmqvist, Peter Newmark, Eugene Nida, Yang Xianyi, Anthony Yu, Yu Kwang-chung; (retired) Lai Tim-cheong, Joseph Lau, Jan Walls; (incumbent) Mona Baker, Cay Dollerup, Howard Goldblatt, Lin Wen-yueh, Liu Ching-chih, Wolfgang Lorscher, Luo Xinzhang, James St. André and Yang Chengshu.

All article submissions to *Translation Quarterly* are peer-reviewed anonymously by solid experts in their respective areas of research. To date, we are proud to have published about 500 original articles, research essays and book reviews on interlingual and intercultural communication subjects. We would like to pay tribute to all those who have contributed to the sustained success of the journal, which serves as the bedrock for our future endeavours to become a major international journal on T&I studies published in both Chinese and English on our newly renovated platform.

Cheers to one hundred issues of fortitude. It lays claim to yet another one hundred issues of certitude.

Elsie Chan Chairperson, Editorial Board June 2021

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更新翻譯觀念——促中國文化走出去

劉季春

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Citation: Liu, Jichun. 2021. "Breaking with Old Ideas about Translation: A Push for Chinese

Culture Going Abroad." Translation Quarterly 100: 1-13.

Abstract

Breaking with Old Ideas about Translation: A Push for Chinese Culture Going Abroad (by Jichun Liu)

With the increasing influence of China in international affairs, the issue of "Chinese culture going abroad" has been raised to the status of national policy-making. However, it is an undisputed fact that the Chinese culture that has been disseminated abroad so far has produced little effect. Therefore, how to make Chinese culture "go abroad" in a more effective way has become a common concern for China's translation scholars. Through tracing the different evolutionary processes of the core ideas about translation between China and the West and with a profound rethink of the reasons behind these changing ideas, the author demonstrates the significance of breaking with old ideas and adopting a new translation mode to push Chinese culture to "go abroad".

還是在上個世紀七十年代末,筆者剛上大學時就對翻譯發生了濃厚興趣,但及至上了翻譯課後,反而對於理論上的一些問題,很長時間都感到困惑。比如,"什麼是翻譯?"或"翻譯的標準是什麼?"不錯,當年老師給我們講過嚴復的"信、達、雅",教材裡還提到"忠實、通順"的標準。但什麼是"信"或"忠實",仍構成很大的問題。記得上世紀八十年代初,我讀到葛傳槼的一篇文章,他是這樣解釋的:"說'信'也好,說'忠實'也好,翻譯必須在把原文變成另一種文字時,做到不增、不減、不改。評論譯文是否忠實,必須先讀原文。"(1980,357)要知道,葛老的《英語慣用法詞

典》在中國外語界久負盛名,因此他說的"不增、不減、不改"影響頗廣,也讓我記憶深刻。可是,根據我個人的觀察,翻譯似乎並不是這樣,但無奈多數人都那麼認為。後來我自己做了翻譯老師,這就讓我犯難了:我不能跟學生講連自己都不相信的東西啊!很不幸,我大概花了近20年的時間,得出的竟是一個相反的認識,即:總的來說,翻譯是個"既增、又減、還改"的過程。

我無意苛求前輩。人的認識,對也好,錯也罷,都是歷史文化的產物。通讀中西 翻譯史便會知道,在二十世紀上半葉前約兩千年的時間軸上,人們做翻譯,不論採用 哪種方法,大致都是在追求"忠實"或"等值"。究其原因,最可能的解釋就是:在 古代,人們最早翻譯的大都是宗教或文學經典。他們對原文及其作者自然頂禮膜拜, 因此在翻譯時只能是敬若神明,極力模仿。比如,古羅馬基督教拉丁教父哲羅姆(St. Jerome) 認為,《聖經》的翻譯,應該採用一詞譯一詞的方法。因為他相信,《聖經》 中甚至詞序也具有玄義。(Lefevere 1992, 3)中國的佛經翻譯也經歷了大致相同的過 程。中國翻譯史專家馬祖毅(1998,33)認為,"佛經翻譯的草創時期,譯經僧侶對佛 教經典抱有虔誠態度,揣揣然惟恐違背經旨。" 因此早期佛經譯家都極為忠實審慎,大 都採用直譯和音譯(馬祖毅,1998,23-24,33;梁啟超,2020,925),儘管間有"格 義"的方法(一種"歸化"譯法)和後來一直存在的"文質"之爭(即:是該偏"意 譯",還是該偏"直譯"呢?),但總的理論基調,都是偏於'質'"(比如,文獻記載, 最早有支謙的《法句經序》提到了"因循本旨,不加文飾",後來道安又提出"案本而 傳",再後來玄奘又提出"五不翻"原則,這些都是典型的質派觀點)。其實,在我看 來,兩派的目的都是一致的,即"求真",只是認識有異,在嘗試不同的方法而已。這 種"直譯"或"求真"的傳統,最終成了中國後世"忠實"翻譯觀的最重要的理論資 源,以至於在譯界形成對"忠於原文"的一種執念。另一方面,翻譯觀念的演變,很 明顯也受到新興相鄰學科的影響。比如,在西方,盛行于上世紀初的結構主義語言學 認為,意義是由符號的差異決定的。(Saussure 2001) 比如,A 之所以是 A,乃是因為 它不是 B,不是 C,不是 D,不是……。(盛寧,1994,115) 按照這個邏輯,語言就 是一個封閉、穩定、邊界分明的符號系統。因此,用符號書寫的文本,其意義是固定 不變的。閱讀也就是發掘文本固有的意義,而翻譯的任務,自然便是再現其意義了。 然而,自上世紀五、六十年代始,又興起一系列解構主義理論,翻譯學者才逐漸突破 "忠實"觀的藩籬。根據新譯《聖經》的經驗,奈達(Eugene A. Nida)(1964)提出了 基於等效原則(the principle of equivalent effect)的"動態對等" (dynamic equivalence)的概念,率先將焦點由原文和作者轉移到了讀者的反應上。此後,翻譯研究學派告 訴人們,翻譯不是在真空裡進行的,翻譯中的各種決策會受到詩學觀、意識形態和贊 助人等因素的制約,翻譯實際上是對原文的重寫(或譯"改寫")。(Lefevere 1995)而 闡釋學、互文性等理論則讓我們明白,一切文本都是互文本,盤根錯節,相互滋養。 作品一旦完成,作者即告死亡。文本的意義是開放的,閱讀是讀者的狂歡,是參與寫 作。(巴特 (Roland Barthes) 等西方學者的觀點,張中載等,2002,340-346) 翻譯被比作原作的"來生"(Benjamin 2000)。這就從根本上打破了"原創作品"的神話,也消解了意義最終求解的迷思。以"目的論"(Skopos theory)為代表的德國功能學派更是宣告:"目的決定方法。"(Nord 1997)這種種理論,都是在凸顯譯者的主體性,從而將原文及其作者從王位的寶座上一步步拉了下來。

比較而言,中國學者對翻譯的認識則停滯不前。嚴復於 1898 年在《天演論:譯例 言》裡對翻譯之難提出的"信、達、雅"三字感悟,可能連他自己也不曾想到,竟會成 為中國後世翻譯人近 100 年不動搖的信條。我們的翻譯研究為什麼會這樣呢?若能認 真反思一下,我們也許會很不樂意地發現,我國的人文社科研究者,傳統上大多過於 重成規和權威,而輕實際和體驗,喜歡在故紙堆裡探微索隱,尋找依據。就翻譯的標 準而言,首先是畫地為牢,不敢挑戰既有觀念。實際上,如上文所言,翻譯求"信", 古已有之,並非嚴復首創。因此,當他採用"達旨"式"譯述"的方法翻譯完赫胥黎 的著作,仍不忘在《譯例言》裡不無愧疚地聲明:"實非正法。什法師有雲:'學我者 病。'來者方多,幸勿以是書為口實也。"(赫胥黎,2009,15)同樣,黃仁宇自譯的 《萬曆十五年》,好評如潮,可他在《自序》裡也特別說明:"因為國內外情況的差異, ……,這一翻譯實際上是一種譯寫"(1997,006)。你看看:本來是件理直氣壯的事 情,最後卻搞得像做了虧心事似的!大家知道,林紓是中國近代翻譯西洋小說最多的 人,但因其翻譯方法,曾長期受到中國譯界的詬病,即不承認他的翻譯是所謂"真正" 意義上的翻譯。可是,若要講授中國近代翻譯史,誰也無法繞過他。錢鐘書是當代大 儒,1985年《中國翻譯》在11月和12月連續兩期刊登了他的舊文《林紓的翻譯》, 在中國翻譯界影響很大。文章中,錢先生一方面說,"林紓的翻譯所起'媒'的作用, 已經是文學史公認的事實。","接觸了林譯,我才知道西洋小說會那麼迷人。",但另 一方面他又說, "正確認識翻譯的性質,認真執行翻譯的任務,能寫作的翻譯者就會 有克己的功夫,抑制不適當的寫作衝動,也許還會鄙視林紓的經不起引誘。"可見錢 先生對林紓翻譯現象的態度是愛恨交織、十分矛盾。中國的理論研究是怎樣與實際背 離,也由此可見一斑。與此相反,我們死守教條之時,西方學者則把一切翻譯現象納 入研究的範圍,因而迎來了學派林立的新天地。

上世紀改革開放後,中國翻譯界並非沒有過對翻譯理論的探索和爭鳴,但視界狹隘得多,比如還在延續"形似"與"神似","直譯"與"意譯"之類的翻譯方法的爭論。對嚴復的"信、達、雅"也有過不少批評,但主要集中在對"雅"字的批評上。最後,似乎多數人都認同,做翻譯的標準還是要"信"。因此說,我們的理論研究長期在原地打轉。對嚴復本人的批評,則是說他言行不一,不可理解。直到1981年王佐良發表《嚴復的用心》,中國翻譯界對嚴復和嚴譯《天演論》的評價,才有了根本的轉變。但遺憾的是,王佐良也只是將嚴譯赫胥黎當作個案,覺得他情有可原。他不但沒有對翻譯的"忠實"觀提出質疑,在文章的結尾,又走回重釋"信、達、雅"的老路上去了。(王佐良,1989,37-42)據我所知,這個時期對嚴復理論最為堅定的批判,是來自香港的周兆祥。他指出:"時至今日,快將一百年了,我國論翻譯方法的文章還開口閉口教人'信、達、雅'。批評翻譯的文章,也總是拿'信、達、雅'做準繩。這種

現象太可哀可歎了。"(1986,46-50)可是他的觀點在中國翻譯界完全給淹沒了。值得 一提的是,自上世紀七十年代末,許淵沖開始發表系列文章,提出了許多獨樹一幟, 又中國特色鮮明的翻譯觀點,構建了一套系統的理論。但他的理論卻遭到了國內眾多 知名人士的批評,而支持他的人只是小眾。比如,許淵沖(1981,1988)提出"優勢 論"("發揮譯文語言的優勢")和"競賽論"("文學翻譯是兩種語言的競賽"),但有學 者則指出:"我不喜歡那種掙脫'緊身衣',恣意滿足譯者一己表達欲的翻譯;我更反 對 '發揮漢語優勢',以譯本和原著'競賽'(各種語言都在稱職地為操這種語言的人服 務,何來優劣?如何競賽?),要'借屍還魂'(原著明明是活生生的文本,已經並正在 又將繼續被讀者'解讀',如何是'屍'?) 等等別出心裁的高論。"(陸谷孫,1998,46) 許淵沖則認為:"譯作和原作都可以比作繪畫,所以譯作不能只臨摹原作,還要臨摹 原作所臨摹的模特"(即"譯者要與原作者競賽,看誰臨摹得更好。競賽中發揮譯文語 言的優勢,譯作就有可能青出於藍而勝於藍。")(許淵沖,1998,79,411,412)。許 淵沖還指出:"文學翻譯的低標準是求似或真,高標準是求美。如以譯詩而論,我認 為主要是真(或似)與美的矛盾。翻譯求似(或真)而詩求美,所以譯詩應該在真的 基礎上求美。這就是說,求真是低標準,求美是高標準;真是必要條件,美是充分條 件;譯詩不能不似,但似而不美也不行。如果真與美能統一,那自然是再好沒有;如 果真與美有矛盾,那不是為了真而犧牲美,就是為了美而失真。如果譯的似的詩遠不 如原詩美,那犧牲美就得不償失;如果譯得'失真'卻可以與原詩比美,那倒可以算 是以得補失;如果所得大於所失,那就是譯詩勝過了原詩。"(許淵沖,2003,252)筆 者讀過許淵沖的幾乎所有的重要論述,也特別關注過他與別的學者之間的主要爭論, 可以看出,許先生的眾多觀點,基本都能做到邏輯自洽(但如果只看他的"只言片语" 或部分論述,則很可能造成誤會。這也是我在這裡長篇引用的緣故)。當然,任何理 論都不可能是完美的。許淵沖常常喜歡引用貝多芬那句"為了更美,沒有什麼清規戒 律不可打破。"的名言,來表達他探索翻譯理論的決心。個人而言,我是十分欽佩他 的這種精神的。我私下常常在想:假如西方那"離經叛道"的"目的論"是由許淵沖 提出來的,他不更會被批得體無完膚嗎?現在回頭來看,他的許多觀點,與後來引進 的西方解構理論,都有通約之處。

三

中國學者接觸西方解構主義理論已經多年,大家對翻譯是否已經達成某種新的共識呢?比如,承認對原文的"改寫"也是翻譯。然而,事情遠非這樣簡單。知名學者之間仍是意見分歧,甚至針鋒相對,使一般學習者無所適從。比如,英漢語比較研究專家潘文國指出:"如果說西方譯論是從各種'等值'或類'等值'的理論起步的,則中西互譯的研究一開始就必須從'改寫'開始。不管是中譯外還是外譯中,翻譯都意味著改寫。"(2007,33)我想他是從語言譜系的角度來說的,因為不同語系間兩種語言的轉換,其難度遠非同一語系間的轉換可比。而著名翻譯理論家許鈞(2014)在《人民日報》發表了一篇題為"'忠實于原文'還是'連譯帶改'?"的文章。針對 2012 年

莫言獲諾貝爾文學獎(不少學者認為,葛浩文(Howard Goldblatt)的翻譯起了關鍵作 用,但他的翻譯不是傳統意義上的"忠實"翻譯),他借用評論家李建軍的觀點,認為 因文化障礙,諾獎評委"無法讀懂'原汁原味'的'實質性文本',只能閱讀經過翻譯 家'改頭換面'的'象徵性文本'。"因而,諾獎評委從莫言作品裡看到的,是"符合自 己想像的'中國''中國人'和'中國文化',而不是真正的'中國''中國人'和'中 國文化'""打動諾獎評委們的並不是莫言作品本身,而是'脫胎換骨'、徹底'美化' 的譯文"。他認為,經過這樣"誤讀"而"走出去"的"不是真正的中國的莫言,而是 葛浩文的莫言,不是真正的中國文學"。許鈞的結論是:"對原著的刪改遠不是中國對 外譯介中必然採用的方法或模式""如果將葛浩文式的翻譯方法絕對化、唯一化和模式 化,甚至據此質疑以忠實為翻譯原則的翻譯觀念,這恐怕是有失偏頗的。"有趣的是, 我國譯介學的創建者謝天振則表示,在圍繞中國文化"走出去"的問題上,國內某些 學者存在認識上的誤區,發表了一些似是而非的觀點,誤導了我國學界的輿論。他指 出,他們以"譯入"的原理思維,看不到"譯出"與"譯入"的差異。"譯入"是因為 這個民族對外來文化有需求;而"譯出"是人家沒有這種需求。他還指出,他們也看 不到文化譯介的基本規律,即文化譯介總是從佔據主流地位的"強勢文化"流向"弱 勢文化"的民族和國家。(謝天振,2016,9-11)可見,翻譯觀念及其翻譯模式的爭論 仍在繼續。

四

我是在1998年赴英國作高訪學者,開始接觸西方當時最新翻譯研究成果的。2001 年,上海外語教育出版社也引進了"國外翻譯研究叢書"(共 29 本)。正是這些理論 的引進和吸收,才逐步打破中國翻譯界的單一翻譯觀。現在想想,翻譯的"忠實"觀, 其實本身並沒有錯,錯就錯在我們視"忠實"的翻譯為唯一的翻譯種類,和視"忠實與 否"為翻譯唯一的評判標準。德國功能學派的"目的論"為什麼有那麼強的解釋力?我 想,強就強在它的包容性。在"目的論"那裡,哪怕是逐字對譯、嚴格遵從原文句子 結構的翻譯,只要目的明確,也被視為合法的翻譯。我本人是很認同西方的這些理論 的。原因很簡單,就是因為它們比較符合翻譯的實際。而我們那種"不增、不減、不 改"的翻譯原則,則完全是想當然的產物。理論的真偽是可以檢驗的。舉例來說,貝 克 (Mona Baker)的翻譯教材 In Other Words 裡有一節關於 collocation (搭配)的討論, 其中引用了這樣一段有趣的 "定義": "Why do builders not produce a building or authors not invent a novel, since they do invent stories and plots? No reason as far as dictionary definitions of words are concerned. We don't say it because we don't say it." (1992, 47) 我在 講課時突發奇想,要學生翻譯這段話。不出所料,所有學生都翻譯不好,因為他們還 是按老方法翻譯。我告訴他們,翻譯這段話的困難正是源於搭配。因為一種語言裡的 搭配,往往無法原封不動地搬到另一種語言裡。我於是給學生試譯了一遍: "既然大 家可以隨意地說打牌,打籃球,那我們為什麼就不能說打棋、打足球呢?從詞典釋義 中是找不到答案的。我們不這麼說,就是因為我們不這麼說嘛。" 我採用了換例的方法 (其實原作者也可不那么说),字面變了,但作者的意思絲毫未變,還保留了原文幽默 的風格。這多好!這使學生了明白一個道理:字字對應未必忠實,非字字對應未必不 忠實。還是貝克的這本教材,在《附錄》裡有一篇 China's Panda Reserves 的英譯漢 材料,原是幻燈片的說明文字。其中有一段是這樣寫的:"Many of the species growing wild here are familiar to us as plants cultivated in European gardens—species like this exotic lily.'' 貝克的中國合作者的譯文是:"這裡野生的許多種類我們很熟悉,是歐洲園林內 種植的種類——像這一奇異的百合花等種類。"(1992,268)翻譯得非常忠實,可是問 顯來了:譯文中的"我們"指的是誰呢?是指"歐洲人",還是指"中國人"呢?要知道, 原文是說英語的外國人寫的,而譯文的讀者卻是中國人!又比如,海南三亞的景區介 紹有這麼一個句子:"這裡四季春常在,請到天涯海角來!"譯者可能根本就沒多想, 便按字面翻譯了。原本是向遊客宣傳當地的宜人氣候。殊不知,每個國家的春天都是 不一樣的。若在英國,寒氣未去,春雨連綿,害人思鄉。有人可能要說,這類例子大 多屬於非文學翻譯。即便如此,但這至少說明,"忠實"的標準並不完全適於另一大類 翻譯吧。我多年來一直為學生講授一門《非文學翻譯》的課程,但我會在課程中穿插 部分文學翻譯的內容。目的就是要讓學生明白,文學翻譯與非文學翻譯,其原理沒有 本質區別。我曾選過一篇蕭乾自譯的短篇小說《兩夕》供課堂賞析。事前沒有給學生 透露譯者信息,於是大家熱火朝天地討論開了。有位學生說,譯者肯定是外國人。我 問依據是什麼,學牛回答說譯者顯然不理解原文。也有學牛說譯者很不負責任,因為 譯文太不忠實于原文了。接著我告訴他們:譯者就是作者本人。學生听了感到愕然。 在我讀過的作者自譯的作品裡,我發現他們改動原文的情況,遠比他人翻譯改動原文 的情況多。為什麼呢?我猜想不外乎有這樣幾種可能:第一,自己的作品,不必擔心 別人批評;第二,譯者發現了原文的缺陷,趁翻譯成外文的機會加以彌補,就如作者 修訂一本書的道理一樣;第三,譯者發現,即使表達相同的內容,在目的語言裡需要 不同的寫法;第四,這些譯者本來就是跨文化交際的專家,他們意識到是在與新的文 化背景下的讀者對話,因此主動迎合他們的閱讀習慣。

五

其實,怎樣推介中國文化,享譽西方的雙語作家林語堂和熊式一,早已為我們提供了可資借鑒的範例。對林語堂的研究有很多,本文不贅。熊式一用英語改寫的《王寶川》,曾轟動英美劇壇,風靡歐陸,傾倒了包括英國王室和美國第一家庭在內的千千萬萬的歐美觀眾。熊式一(2010)在《八十回憶》中談到了他改編此劇的過程,很值得一讀。他說:"當年我初到英國偷偷的在六個星期的晚上,用英語胡湊了一出通俗的話劇,目的只不過希望它能博得英美觀眾的欣賞,成為一出雅俗老幼都可接受的舞臺劇"(第89頁),"我把它不盡情理之處和俗不可耐的唱詞,改為入情入理的對話"(第66頁)。"我信手信筆亂揮一通,因為這東西本來就用不著把原本奉為規範,所以我雖然說這是照中國舊的戲劇翻譯的,其實我就只借用了它一個大綱,前前後後,我隨意增加隨意減削,全憑自己的心意,大加改換"(第30頁)"破例最大,最

嚴重的一點是:我添加了一名角色——外交大臣。……自一九——年革命後,我國法 定一夫一婦嚴律,我只好請出這位先生來,把一位多出來的女主角帶走,以解我的難 題"(第 111 頁)。他在《王寶川》的"中文版序"裡也提到這點:"我對迷信、一夫多妻 制和死刑,也不主張對外宣傳,故對前後劇情,改動得很多。""說實話:我最得力的 導師,是倫敦各劇院的觀眾!在這一段期間,凡在倫敦上演的戲劇,成功的也好,失 敗得一塌糊塗的也看,我全一一欣賞領略,我專心注意觀眾們對臺上的反應,我認為 這是我最受益的地方。"(第29-30頁)有點反諷的是,因擔心《王寶川》的成功,而讓 西方人誤認為它是中國戲劇的經典,熊式一又把元曲巨著《西廂記》譯成了英文。這 一次,他採用的是完全不同的翻譯策略。他在回憶中寫道: "是我下了十一個月的苦 工, ……常常每天伏案八九小時, 筆不停, 心不停逐句逐句——有時逐字逐字推敲翻 譯出來的。"(第64頁)"真不料《西廂記》出版之後,識者甚少;只有幾個文人,略 事賞識。"(第 66 頁)讀到這些,我真有點感慨:早在上個世紀三十年代,當今功能 主義的"目的論"、翻譯研究學派的"操控論",還有奈達的"讀者反應"論,在熊式 一的手裡,早已運用得這般燗熟!可是,我們傳統的翻譯教育總是過於糾結譯文與原 文在細節上的忠實,而忽視譯文的整體效果。不幸的是,很多人不明白,原文中的細 節並非同等重要,試圖複製原文中的每一個細節,不但不可能,也是不可取的。

六

前文已經論及,所謂"原汁原味"的"實質性文本",在理論上並不成立。周兆祥 指出,翻譯求"信"的要求,"有一個絕對錯誤的假設,以為意義是一種外在的實體, 可以從一篇文字轉到另一篇文字,翻譯工作就是搬運意義的工作。"(1986,3)常識告 訴我們,不但是譯文不能每次"準確地"表達原文的原意,就是原文也未必能每次"準 確地"表達作者的原意,要不然我們的語言中就不會有"言不盡意"的說法了。而且, 作者也未必是原文意思的唯一主人,讀者完全有可能讀出作者意想不到,但又合理的 新意。我國的古代經典在歷朝歷代中不斷被詮釋,哪個是"原汁原味"的呢?真相是: 愈是偉大的作品,愈有被賦予不同解讀的可能,因而被改寫的可能也愈大。莎士比亞 的戲劇在世界各國被改編,在中國近現代史上,前後就有林紓、田漢、深實秋、朱生 豪、卞之琳等幾十人翻譯過莎士比亞。它們中有文言,有白話、有詩體,有散文,各 有風格。很難說誰的譯文是"原汁原味"。即便同是詩體,詩體與詩體之間也各不相 同,猶如李白和杜甫的風格之不一樣。稍微想想,世界上哪有主體完全不介入的翻譯 呢?在我看來,每一次翻譯都具實驗性質,譯者只是憑自己的審美情趣和能力在盡一 份努力。更何況,即便同一個譯本,一千個讀者,還會有一千個哈姆雷特!從這個意 義上說,所有的翻譯都是"象徵性文本"。我喜歡把原作與譯作之間的關係,比作父母 與子女之間的關係。子女可以多像點父親,也可以多像點母親,但子女絕不是父親或 母親,而是一個獨立的新生命。事實上,有些擔心是根本沒有必要的,"連譯帶改"的 翻譯模式不會取代以"忠實"為導向的翻譯模式而成為唯一的翻譯模式。"目的論"已 經說得十分清楚:目的不同,翻譯方法就不同。因此,當我們提倡"連譯帶改"的翻 譯模式之時,並不等同說"改寫"策略是翻譯的必選之項。準確地說,不管是譯入還是譯出,該忠實的時候就得忠實,該改寫的時候就應改寫,"改寫",還是"不改寫",都是有條件的;當我們提倡"連譯帶改"的翻譯模式之時,更不等同認可不負責任的亂譯。其實,有效的改寫較之于簡單的忠實對譯者的要求更高。我研讀過葛浩文翻譯的莫言小說,發現他認為需要忠實的地方,他都能做到非常忠實。相反,"原汁原味"的提法,就像"不增、不減、不改"的提法一樣,對於初涉翻譯的學生,具有很大的誤導性。我們的翻譯教學,正是長期受老觀念的束縛,理論與實際脫離,結果學生畢業之後很少能做好翻譯。

七

從邏輯上說,可能有人要問:我們為何提倡採用"改寫"模式來做"譯出",而長期以來都是按照"忠實"原則做"譯入"的呢?這樣問,似乎並不準確,譯入不也可以改寫嗎?典型的例子,遠的有林紓譯西洋小說,龐德(Ezra Pound)譯中國古詩,近的有葛浩文譯莫言,這些都是採用了"改寫"的譯入,且產生了很大的影響。因此,"改寫"不是譯出的專利。同理,"忠實"也不只是對譯入的要求。但嚴格說來,任何翻譯都包含了改寫,如果不避諱的話,所有翻譯都可說是"連譯帶改"或"連譯帶寫",只是改寫的"幅度"和"目的"或"原因"之不同,這也是為什麼西方翻譯研究學派能那麼鏗鏘有力地說:"Translation is, of course, a rewriting of an original text."(Susan Bassnett & André Lefevere,轉引自 Lawrence Venuti, 1995,vii)。翻譯時是採用"忠實"的方法,還是採用"改寫"的方法,或是"改多改少",我推想,影響或制約譯者決策的,大致有三個方面的原因,當然,這三者還可能交相作用:

第一,用經濟學裡的術語,我想是"供求關係"在起作用。我基本認同謝天振的 觀點,承認"強勢文化"和"弱勢文化"這個不平等的事實。我們說中國文化"走出去", 這個提法本身就暗示了"走出去"的困難和不利地位。俗語雲:送上門的買賣不好做。 我們在"走出去"的過程中表現出強烈的認同焦慮,特別是希望得到英美文化的認同。 我們心甘情願,不辭辛苦學習他們的語言和文化。請看:十四億人口的大國,幾乎所 有的大、中、小學,只要有條件的,都開設英語課程;每年有成千上萬的學生參加託 福、GRE 和雅思等考試。相反,人家以老大自居,對我們的文化不感興趣,覺得沒 有必要向我們請教。十多年前,我在重慶參加一次學術會議。休息期間,我同會議方 請來的一位美國翻譯理論家閒聊,問及他對中國學術界的瞭解,他竟一無所知,這讓 我十分驚訝。現在想想,這也不足為怪,我們自己的關注點不也是有所選擇的嗎?我 想,這種情況表現在翻譯上,譯入便更傾向于忠實的全譯,原因不言自明,而譯出則 更傾向於改寫了,因為我們提供"產品"的時候,必須迎合"顧客"的需求。"強勢文 化"和"弱勢文化"與翻譯策略的互動關係,在翻譯史中也能找到例證。在古代,希 臘文化被认为高於羅馬文化,因此希臘的作品為羅馬的譯者奉為至寶,因而在翻譯中 亦步亦趨,緊隨原文,大量吸收希臘文化。但後來羅馬人意識到自己是勝利者,在軍 事上征服了希臘,於是他們一反常態,把希臘作品當作可以任由他們宰割的"文學戰

利品"。(譚載喜,2000,22)我想,假如哪一天這種中西文化的強弱之勢倒轉過來, 譯出也就不必非要我們中國人自己來做了,翻譯模式自然也就不同了。

第二,我想可以從原作的"文本類型"得到較好的說明。不同于其他學者的分類 方法,本文大致按"文本品質""文化負載"和"文本用途"三個方面將文本劃分為三 大類(當然還存在兼類的情況)。第一類按"文本品質"劃分:它可分為"經典文本" 和"非經典文本"。如前文所述,經典文本的作者要麼是上帝或佛祖,要麼就是文學巨 匠,因此,翻譯他們的作品,不能不以虔誠謙卑的態度。而非經典文本,即今天翻譯 的大多數作品,除了重譯經典之外,其文字的品質和作者的地位,都不能與經典作品 的等量齊觀。因此,翻譯這類作品,大可不必那麼忠實和較真。因為至少行文拖遻是 原文常見的毛病,還可能伴有邏輯不通。因此很多時候譯者都有改善原作表達方式的 可能。我的經驗是,只有當把一種語言翻譯成另一種語言的時候,最容易發現原文的 問題和不足。要是不信,不妨試試將自己自認為寫得最得意的文章翻譯成外文。要知 道,原作的毛病,譯者比作者看得更清楚,因為譯者是最挑剔的讀者。實際上,世界 上並沒有那麼多"不可改寫"的經典,我國古代四大名著之首的《紅樓夢》,我們覺得 高山仰止,但譯者戴乃迭(Gladys Yang)卻看出了許多毛病,如"結構鬆散,情節進 展緩慢"等等(楊憲益,2003,39-42),更何況凡夫俗子如我輩,文字造詣鮮能及曹 氏十一。我常想,圖書館裡的許多學術著作,壓縮三分之一,倒有成為經典的可能。 再說第二類,按文本的"文化負載"劃分:它可劃分為"高文化負載文本"(下稱"高文 本")和"低文化負載文本"(下稱"低文本")。當然,文本的"高低",只是相對而言。 不難理解,翻譯前者比翻譯後者,需要改寫的東西就會更多。低文本略為簡單,主要 涉及普世(universal)性質的作品,比如科學文獻,而高文本則更為複雜,可涵蓋文 史哲等領域。這些作品原本就是紮根於自己的土壤,若原封不動搬到另一個文化裡, 一定會水土不服,因此翻譯時改寫的可能性就大。比如《紅樓夢》自然是屬於高文本, 譯者戴乃迭就提到:"小說裡寫了許多西方人完全不熟悉的神話和傳說。作者將佛教 和道教裡的神和仙同凡人混在一起,以高度現實主義手法加以描繪。這就把我們搞糊 塗了,因為我們自幼受希臘羅馬神話傳說和《聖經》的薰陶——完全是另一種文化傳 統。小說裡各種各樣的醫藥以及占卜算命這類顯然是中國人的玄虛神秘的玩意兒,也 同樣使我們難以捉摸。""《紅樓夢》裡引用了大量文學和經書典故,其中有些連今天 的中國青年都不清楚,更何況外國讀者。此外,小說裡為數眾多的詩詞和雙關語,在 翻譯中不可避免地要遜色不少。"(戴乃迭,2003,40-41)儘管如此,楊憲益和戴乃迭 仍是按"忠實"的方法將《紅樓夢》翻譯成了英文。顯然,不是戴乃迭不清楚其中的 文化障礙,而是愛情戰勝了方法,夫唱婦隨罷了。不過事後,戴乃迭仍認為,他們的 翻譯偏于直譯、太死板,讀者不愛看,不如英國漢學家霍克斯(David Hawkes)的譯 本那樣靈活和富有創造性。(楊憲益,2011,4-6)這裡的所謂"靈活"和"創造性", 要是站在對立的角度,不就是偏離原文的"改寫"嗎?事實上,現在已經有不少關於 中國文學翻譯在海外接受情況的調查,其中就有學者指出: "有大量資料表明,在英 語世界霍譯本更受歡迎,而楊譯本備受冷遇。"(謝天振,2014,4)當然,假使翻譯 的目的,只是出於推廣中國文化的考慮,比如為了少數中國文化愛好者或漢學家學習

或研究之用,那麼楊譯本自然就能起到霍譯本所起不到的作用。從語言構造來看(因 為語言本身就包含文化),有近親關係的語對之間的文本屬於低文本,如英德或英法 之間的翻譯就比較容易做到對等,因而需要較少的改寫;反之,不同語系的語對之間 的文本就属高文本,如中英之間的翻譯就遠比英德或英法之間的翻譯難,因而更能體 現譯者的創造性和翻譯藝術。因此研究不同語系之間語言互譯的理論,或許更具普遍 意義。此外,"高文本"和"低文本"的劃分,還可以解釋一種特殊的翻譯改寫現象, 即作者用 B 語言(外語或第二語言)創作,然後由自己或同說 A 語言(作者的母語) 的別人將作品翻譯成(即"回譯") A 語言。這種情況也屬於高文本之間的翻譯。因 為作者用 B 語言的創作,實際上就是將 A 語言的文本(這裡姑且稱之為"隱形文本" / "invisible text" ——即存在大腦裡的文本)翻譯成 B 語言。在翻譯過程中,譯者就必 須為目標讀者做大量的文化過濾和改寫。同理,當譯者將 B 語言的文本回譯成 A 語言 時,譯者又必須為 A 語言的讀者(新的目標讀者)做大量的改寫(比如刪節母語讀者 不必要的背景資訊)。我手頭就有兩個典型的例子,一個是呂叔湘翻譯的《漢語口語 語法》(節選),英語原著是語言學家趙元任撰寫的 A Grammar of Spoken Chinese (An Excerpt)(一本專門寫給外國人研究中國話用的著作)。經呂先生的慧心改造,原來密 密麻麻 847 頁的巨著,結果被刪減成了僅剩 380 頁的"小書"(且排版還舒服多了)。 趙先生對此非但沒有生氣,反而讚歎不已:"這簡直是'正中下懷,不敢請爾!"(趙 元任,2001,《赵元任序》)另一個就是前文已經提到的,作者黃仁宇自己翻譯的《萬 曆十五年》,英語原著叫 1587,A Year of No Significance。但試想一下:假如黃仁宇將 用英語對英美人講的中國明朝的故事,不做任何改變再搬到中文裡講給中國讀者聽, 將會是怎樣怪誕的一件事!最後,按"文本用途"劃分:它同樣可以分為兩大類:即 "用途一致文本"和"用途不一致文本"。前者文本之間的翻譯,需要做出的改寫自然 最少,比如將一個劇本翻譯成另一個劇本;而後者則可能需要做大量的改寫,比如上 面的呂叔湘譯趙元仟,或將小說改編為動漫。不難想像,在今天這個出行高鐵,萬物 互聯的新時代,人們的需求和趣味發生了天翻地覆的變化,一本書只有一種譯法的時 代已經結束。

表 1: 文本類型與翻譯策略

分類依據	文本品質		文化負載		文本用途	
文本類型	經典	非經典	高文本	低文本	一致	不一致
翻譯策略	偏"忠實"	偏"改寫"	偏"改寫"	偏"忠實"	偏"忠實"	偏"改寫"

第三,現當代之所以中國大多數譯者按"忠實"的標準做翻譯,我想,主要還是"主流意識"的問題。千百年來,大家都這麼做,觀念上很難突破。自然,主流意識得以延續,與當時的社會文化密不可分。值得一提的是,上個世紀五、六十年代中國翻譯界的一大盛事,就是《毛澤東選集》(下稱《毛選》)四卷本的英譯。據當年參與者程鎮球(1993,2-3)先生回憶,"《毛選》翻譯要求在文字和精神上完全忠實于原文。"因此,當時的標準掌握之嚴,組織程序之苛,譯者規格和熱情之高,都是罕見

的。結果總體偏直譯的英譯《毛選》便成了經典。這無疑在客觀上加強了人們對"忠 實"翻譯觀的信仰。我本人也曾學習過英譯《毛撰》的部分文章,尤其是學習一些成語 的直譯方法,很佩服這些專家高超的文字表達能力,也為他們這種追求忠實的努力而 鼓舞。然而,改革開放四十年,尤其是最近二十年,由於西方解構翻譯理論的影響, 和人們對跨文化交際認識的提高,以及國內政治環境的日趨寬鬆,對外傳播的一線人 員的翻譯觀念,實際上已經發生了變化。我最近注意到,就連政治性要求最高的《習 近平談治國理政》(下稱《習談》)的英譯,就已經廣泛採用了"改寫"的方法,由《毛 選》英譯的直譯傾向悄然轉變成了意譯傾向,尤其是文章標題的翻譯,大多採用節略 的方法。這裡僅舉一個例子:《習談》(第三卷) 裡有一篇題為《發揚鬥爭精神,增強 鬥爭本領》的文章,英譯標題則是: "Meet Challenges Head-on"。文章中有這樣一句 話: "領導幹部要有草搖葉響知鹿過、松風一起知虎來、一葉易色而知天下秋的見微 知著能力,對潛在的風險要有科學的預判,知道風險在哪裡,表現形式是什麼,發展 趨勢會怎樣,該鬥爭的就要鬥爭。"(習近平,2020,226-227)其英譯文則很簡單:" ···leading officials should be sharp and quick in foreseeing and identifying potential threats, perceiving their locations, forms and likely trends, and resolving them as necessary.' (Xi 2020,264)由此可見,風向正在轉變。因此,我們現在呼籲更新翻譯觀念,可謂正逢 其時吧。

在本文結束之時,我想特別指出:中國文化能否真正走出去,擺在我們面前的最大問題,已經不完全是翻譯能力的問題,而更可能是能否破除思想禁錮,更新翻譯觀念的問題。從傳播學的角度說,對外譯介,如果不能得到目標讀者的欣賞和接受,一切努力都歸於徒勞。我們過去對外譯介,基本上是為譯介而譯介,無視譯介的效果。常言道:心急吃不了熱豆腐。我們應該明白,文化的對外推廣是分階段的,不能一蹴而就。早在上世紀八十年代,傳媒界前輩段連城先生就已經注意到了傳播效果的問題,他因此出版了一本中英文對照的專著,中文书名為《對外傳播學初探》,但英文书名卻是 How to Help Foreigners Know China。(1988) 這給了我很大的啟發。我們高喊"要讓中國文化走出去",但顯然空有一腔熱情和美好的願望,而沒有科學的觀念和方法,是遠遠不夠的。

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翻譯文學的資本及其神聖化進程

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Abstract

The Capital and Consecrating Process of Translated Literature (by Minhui Xu)

The position of translated literature is not presupposed but established on the basis of both the overall volume of the capital and the relative weight of different forms of capital, which constitute the consecrating mechanism of translated literature. Drawing on the concept of the sociology of translation, this study aims to investigate how translated literature achieves a consecrated position through the accumulation of different forms of capital. It argues that the consecrating process needs to be scrutinized at three levels: the textual, paratextual, and extratextual. At the textual level, the transference and appropriation of the original linguistic and literary capital are examined; at the paratextual level, both peritext and epitext are explored so as to see their functions in accumulating economic and symbolic capital; at the extratextual level, various institutions are investigated so as to decide on their powers for consecrating translated literature. The overall volume and the structure of the capital at these three levels work together to form a constituting ecology for the consecration of translated literature.

一、引言

本文所討論的翻譯文學指經典的、嚴肅的文學的翻譯,屬文化產品。翻譯文學的 地位不是假定的而是建立的(Toury 2012),即通過文學場域中各種角力之後逐步建立 起來。文學場域"對文學的持續信仰、參與其中的語言遊戲、產生的物質及象徵的風 險與利益"(Bourdieu 1996, xix)是理解文學的社會源起的基礎。由於缺乏專屬的分析 工具,布爾迪厄借用經濟資本與象徵資本的概念對文學產品進行分析,因為任何社會實踐活動都遵循一種經濟的邏輯,文化/文學產品的競爭也必然帶有其它產品競爭方式的特點。文化生產場域內各種力量在經濟資本與象徵資本兩個象限之間挪回,依據所獲取的資本佔據或中心或邊緣的位置。文學產品的本質使其具有兩種秉性:商品意義和象徵意義,其蘊含的市場價值和象徵價值相對獨立,是一種具有獨特邏輯的"逆向經濟"(inverse economy)(Bourdieu 1996,141)。象徵資本與經濟資本並非正相關,但"被廣泛認可,具有合法性,擁有真正的信用,並能在一定條件下保證長期的'經濟'利益"(Bourdieu 1996,142)。

翻譯文學是一種特殊的文學形式,已經成為世界文學的主要媒介,是"國際競爭舞臺上非常有效的武器"(Casanova 2010,294)。翻譯文學居於文化生產場域中的有限生產場域一端,與大規模生產場域相對,主要競爭象徵資本,但也躲不開經濟資本的影響與制約,尤其在當今世界的文學場域,經濟的邏輯甚囂塵上。對於翻譯文學來說,文學價值與市場價值,或者說象徵資本與經濟資本,同時影響著翻譯文學的地位及其神聖化進程。

近年來,翻譯文學的神聖化進程得到越來越多的關注,以英語發表的與其他文學神聖化進程相關的研究主要包括克肖(Kershaw 2010)、貝爾薩(Bielsa 2013)、瑪麗內特和露絲(Marinetti & Rose 2013)、薩皮羅(Sapiro 2015)、博爾(Boll 2016),等等。翻譯的中國現當代文學作品也吸引越來越多的學者著書立說,這一點在 2012 年莫言獲得諾貝爾文學獎之後愈發顯著。許多研究聚焦中國現當代文學譯介的現狀、存在的問題、以及譯介的主要模式(高方、許鈞,2010; 呂敏宏,2011; 馬會娟,2013; 謝天振,2013; 2014; 葛浩文,2014; 耿強,2014; 劉雲虹、許鈞,2014),研究漢學家的翻譯貢獻(孫會軍,2016; 徐敏慧,2019),探究作者、譯者、編輯、評論者和出版商等參與者對譯本接受的影響(Lovell 2012; 蔣夢瑩,2017; Qian 2017; Xu & Yu 2019),客觀上都探討了影響中國現當代文學神聖化進程的某一側面。但縱觀上述研究,全面探索中國現當代文學在英語世界的神聖化進程機制的研究尚不多見。

本文從翻譯社會學視角出發,從文本、副文本、以及文本外三個層面入手,探究影響翻譯的中國文學神聖化進程的模式與機制。文本層面關注作品內在的文學價值,這通常是文學作品有機會被翻譯的重要因素,是自帶的語言文學資本。副文本層面,根據熱奈特(Genette 1997)的劃分,副文本包括文內副文本(序、跋、引言、注釋、書籍封面等)和文外副文本(書評、訪談、相關學術研究等),它們扮演了文本與讀者之間調節者的角色,具有指導的功能。文本外層面,主要考察社會機制對作者/譯者及作品的影響,包括教育機構、文學獎項、基金資助、大眾媒體等,這些看似遠離文本的機制,卻如風向標,不僅為讀者提供導向,而且揭示文學標準,制約翻譯文學的存在與發展。翻譯文本在這三個層面所積聚的文學語言資本、經濟資本、社會文化資本、以及轉換而成的象徵資本共同作用、共同構建了翻譯文學走向神聖化的歷史進程。

二、資本總量與資本構成

布爾迪厄指出,社會空間包括兩個關鍵維度:資本的數量和資本的構成(Bourdieu 1990,93)。社會空間是一個動態領域,空間內的不同占位隨著資本的變化而變化(參見 Crossley 2008,90)。不同類型的資本特性各異,經濟資本的本質屬性使其具有快速增減的特點,如果投入大量資金,經濟資本就會迅速增加,例如政府補貼,贊助人投資,銷售額增長,等等。而文化資本的本質屬性決定了文化資本不能一蹴而就,只能通過一定時間的資本積累過程來逐步改變。在整個社會空間中,任何參與者在場域中位置的分佈"首先根據他們所擁有的不同種類的資本的總量,其次根據其資本的構成,即各種資本的相對權重"(Bourdieu 1990,128)。

就翻譯文學積累的資本數量及資本構成來講,首先文學場域是由兩個對立的兩端構成:一端為經濟資本份額的高或低,另一端為象徵資本份額的高或低(Kershaw 2010,2),翻譯文學所積累的資本總量及其資本構成決定了翻譯文學在文學場域的位置,每種形式的資本與其它所有類型的資本都有著或近或遠的聯繫,因此確定什麼力量能將何種形式的資本賦予翻譯文學作品中是一個值得研究的問題,需要對個人、機構、社會結構的歷史活動、相互作用等進行全面詳細的考察。

翻譯文學的功能之一是使民族文學進入世界文學場域,贏取"一種國際存在的權力"(Casanova 2010,296),文學作品"如果不以權威語言發行就不會屬於世界文學"(Lefevere 1990,24)。翻譯文學已成為文學作品在世界文學場域中的主要傳播方式,通過其神聖化進程參與構建世界文學的經典標準,並在這一構建經典的過程中發揮重要作用(Sapiro 2016,6)。布爾迪厄認為作品的價值不是其本身所固有的,而是通過場域中所有參與者的共謀,包括批評家、序言作者、出版商、經銷商等等,他們協助"發現"作者與作品,促使其揚名並得到認可,集體構建了一種心照不宣的信仰,促成文學產品價值的生產與再生產,從而將作者與作品神聖化(Bourdieu 1996,167)。那麼,究竟什麼樣的社會、文化、政治條件才能使翻譯文學在世界文學場域獲得一席之地,贏取足夠的象徵資本?從社會學視角全方位地分析文本、副文本、文本外三個層面,將使翻譯作品的神聖化歷程以更加全面的姿態得以呈現。

三、文本層面:源文本的語言文學資本

源文本內在的文學價值構成了源文本的語言文學資本,是文學作品得以被閱讀被接受的基礎和保證,也是文學作品有機會被選取進行翻譯的前提。以沈從文作品的翻譯為例,沈從文是中國現代文學史上的偉大作家,他的小說從主題到風格都是獨樹一幟,他深刻敏銳的洞察力使他對湘西普通鄉下人的描繪反映了中國農村的全貌,甚至"寫出了二十世紀整個人類的生存處境"(Kinkley 1987, 4),他"與華茲華斯、葉芝和福克納等人具有同樣高的道德意識水準,並以同樣的持久與熱情關注現代人的生存狀況"(Hsia 1999, 191)。他賦予語言"詩一般的質感……豐富、深刻、充滿美感,能在片刻間調動所有感官"(Nieh 1972, 93)。他的故事具有豐富的感染力和象徵意象,是

"中國現代文學史上最偉大的印象主義者。他能不著痕跡,輕輕幾筆就把景色或人類微妙的感情勾畫出來,堪比中國的大詩人和大畫家,現代文學作家中無人能及"(Hsia 1999,208)。沈從文的語言獨特性是他豐富的人生閱歷以及奇妙的想像力的真實寫照,同時又是對湘西地方自然風物與人間百態栩栩如生的描摹,體現出很強的地域色彩及獨特的個人風格,他繼承了"就地取譬"的湘西傳統,"造語新奇,出人意表,樸實而又神氣飛動"(凌宇,2006,304)。沈從文將"他的區域本土語言"引介到"這種意象和隱喻的國際語彙"中,賦予這一語言"與傳統詩歌等同的詩學地位"(Kinkley 1987,120),使這一糅雜了本土色彩的語言得到昇華,因此既是本土的,又是世界的。沈從文的創作風格深受中國文學傳統的影響,他的抒情的敘事是中國傳統的延續,譯文保留這些語言特徵及敘事風格,是對文學傳統的繼承與發揚,也是文學資本的有效挪用。這些獨特的文學內在價值以及國際學界對這些文學價值的認可與褒獎,為沈從文及其文學作品在世界文學場域積累了相當的文學資本和象徵資本。

因此,文學作品的內在價值構成文學作品最根本的語言文學資本,這些語言文學資本是文學作品被翻譯、有機會進入世界文學場域的必要條件。

四、副文本層面:資本總量的重要構成因素

文本在源語文化中取得成功是選擇小說進行翻譯的必要條件(Kershaw 2010,6),當某個文學作品被選擇進行翻譯時,它已經在源語文學場域取得了一定的成功。但翻譯文學作品有其獨特的生產和接受的社會條件,原作在源語文化中的成功儘管重要但還不夠,還需要目標語文化中相應資本的累積以助其神聖化。徹斯特曼指出,"翻譯系統不僅僅包含翻譯事件,還包含與這些事件相關的陳述:一是翻譯話語,包括翻譯評論、序言和其他副文本,二是有關翻譯的學術研究"(Chesterman 2006,14),前者涵蓋文內、文外副文本,後者則涉及文本外範疇。

4.1 文内副文本

文內副文本即附著于文本、與文本同時面世的各種伴隨文本,通常是"邀請讀者"(Kershaw 2010,7)開啟文本閱讀之旅的重要元素,由作者、譯者、編者、出版者、設計者、學者等通力打造。最常見的文內副文本無外乎以下幾種:譯者序跋注,通常著墨于詳細闡釋作者與作品以及翻譯策略介紹;作者/編者的序跋,大都從更宏觀的層面解說歷史社會文化背景;出版商致力於推廣行銷的書本的封面、封底、扉頁、書脊等處的編排設計方案。

譯者的序跋注是最常見、也是最直接的文內副文本,把原作置於豐富的語言文化語境之中,指導讀者在特定的語境中閱讀、理解並欣賞文學作品,典型例子可見金介甫(Jeffrey Kinkley)的譯者序和注釋(徐敏慧,2019),這些努力使原作自帶的語言文學資本得以轉移到目標語系統之中。由於譯本出版的時間、地點、動機各不相同,譯者慣習各異,因此譯者序跋注所關注的焦點各具特色,但對原作者的創作風格、文學成就的介紹從未缺席,原作者的語言文化資本在翻譯文本的神聖化歷程中發揮了重

要作用。另外,譯者序跋中將原作者與中外著名作家相提並論(Ching & Payne 1982; Hsia 1971; Kinkley 1995; 2009),也成功挪用了這些著名作家的象徵資本,提升、鞏固了作者在世界文學場域中佔據的文學地位。

作者/編者序跋通常更加宏觀,包括對作品創作背景的回顧或對作品描繪的歷史文化社會的解說。1981年,沈從文應邀訪美,期間哥倫比亞大學出版社詢問他是否同意再版他作品的英譯專集《中國土地》,沈從文答應並欣然作序,因為"英語世界的讀者對他多年以前的作品仍然感興趣,這令他很高興"(Shen 1982,3),他的作者序描繪了自己的生活軌跡,介紹了《中國土地》在抗戰時期面臨的選材、翻譯、出版的困難,也感謝譯者兼編者金隄與白英對這本書面世所做的貢獻,同時提到英譯文集的再版是哥倫比亞大學夏志清教授的建議,最後還感謝耶魯大學教授、漢學家傅漢思(Hans Frankel)(其夫人張充和是沈從文夫人張兆和的妹妹)將他的作者序譯成英文(Shen 1982,3-5)。作者序寥寥數言、不到三頁,提及了從作者到譯者到學者到出版商,作者只是表達感激之情,卻在無意間說明翻譯文本累積了象徵資本,成功地完成了文化及社會資本的挪用。

譯本的封面、封底、扉頁、書脊上的內容大都是出版商組織策劃。1982 年哥倫比亞大學出版的重印本《中國土地》,封面以中國書法展示書名的四個大字,把其他形式的中國文化的象徵資本轉移到翻譯文學中來。1995 年夏威夷大學出版社出版的《不完美的天堂》,封面由美國著名的書籍設計師理查•亨德爾(Richard Hendel)設計,上半部分是文字,即書名 Imperfect Paradise(《不完美的天堂》)和副標題"Twenty-Four Stories"(二十四篇短篇小說)呈兩行弧形排列,組成穹隆的視覺效果,右上角標有此書所屬的系列"來自現代中國的小說"字樣,且書名出自美國著名詩人華萊士•史蒂文斯(Wallace Stevens)的詩句"The Imperfect is our paradise";下半部分則是藝術繪畫作品"三個舞者"("Three Dancers"),所有這些都給讀者提供了無限想像以及與大師對話的空間。扉頁有系列總編輯葛浩文(Howard Goldblatt)的一段介紹文字,特別指出此系列選取本世紀在國際上享有盛譽的中國現代小說家的經典之作,"意圖以鮮活、權威的翻譯呈現中國現當代最優秀的小說家令人激動的作品"。這些設計方案及參與者使翻譯文本獲取了來自不同領域的文化資本和社會資本。

4.2 文外副文本

文外副文本指的是那些沒有實質性附加到文本的任何超文本元素,但可以在近乎無限的物理的、社會的空間自由流通(Genette 1997, 344)。常見的文外副文本包括書評、訪談、文集選材、作者/譯者的日記或書信、與作者/譯者及原作/譯作相關的學術研究、出版社的行銷策略,等等。

文外副文本除了評述原作外,更多的是對文本週邊因素的關照,產生副文本的效果而非副文本的功能(Genette 1997, 346)。熱奈特將文外副文本劃分為兩大類:公共的和私人的,前者包括出版社的推介、半官方的變體文本、作者參與或授權的評論、回應等,後者包括作者的初稿和筆記等前文本、個人信件、口頭表述、日記等,並指出所有這些都是一種社會遊戲,使作者有機會發表一種獨立于文本、與文本疏離的對

自己作品的評述 (Genette 1997, 370),是作者的總體話語的 "無限擴散" (indefinite diffusion)(Genette 1997, 346),提供給作者一種間接的、面向公眾自我解讀甚至是自我榮耀的機會。

熱奈特認為,文內副文本和文外副文本的目標是一致的,作者都直接或間接地參與其中,都是對作者/作品的評述,只是渠道不同(Genette 1997,402)。然而時至今日,翻譯文學作品的副文本的構成與功能已然發生變化,作者/譯者可能並未以直接或間接的方式參與到某些副文本當中。書評撰寫人並非奉命寫作,純粹是出於自己的興趣和動機對作品進行評述,但書評的總量、書評人的影響力、刊發書評的媒介的社會地位等要素共同發力,可能形成創立作品價值標準的話語體系(Kershaw 2010,7),成為象徵資本的重要來源。出版社的文外副文本大都以市場行為和促銷功能為主,包括海報、新聞發佈會、雜誌簡報、商業宣傳片、網路宣傳等。這些文外副文本的受眾既包括讀者、也包括媒體的受眾、演講的聽眾、宣傳片的觀眾、座談會的參與者等。出版商的努力以盈利為目標,但客觀上也推廣宣傳了作者及其作品,為其贏得經濟資本與社會文化資本。

同樣,相關學術研究以及選集的編纂出版也是作品獲得象徵資本的重要渠道。沈從文在美國被認可很大程度上歸功於金介甫、夏志清、王德威等中國文學研究學者對沈從文的譯介。金介甫的《沈從文史詩》是學習中國歷史、中國文學的學生學者的必讀書,他翻譯的《邊城》由美國最大的商業出版社哈珀·柯林斯出版發行,成功邁出從大學出版社到商業出版社、從學生學者讀者群到普通大眾讀者群的一步。他作為主要譯者翻譯並編輯出版的《不完美的天堂》被美國很多大學選為中國文學課程的教材。這類教材通常擔負著向學生介紹某一作家/作品的重任,在文學系統中發揮重要作用,可能"決定著哪一位作家能夠經典化"(Lefevere 1982,8)。剛入門的學生、學者往往會接受文集選取的作品,把它們視為經典,並不質疑選編過程中經濟、美學、意識形態諸方面的限制,而經常入選文集的作品便累積了豐厚的象徵資本,同時也獲取了一定的經濟資本,且經濟資本與象徵資本在一定條件下可以相互轉換,共同促進資本總量的增長。

這些文外副文本對於建立作者/作品的聲譽極其重要,不僅在傳播某位原作者及作品方面發揮著巨大作用,而且對某一特定文學的發展也發揮著重要作用(Lefevere 1982,4-5),成為促使文學作品神聖化並最終走向經典的重要推動力。

五、文本外層面:神聖化的助推劑

文本外層面的各個因素與文本並不直接相關,但卻創造了文本存在和發展的文化 生態,共同造就了文學經典之所以成為經典的文化機制。在助推翻譯文學神聖化的進程中,發揮重要影響力的文本外要素主要是機構、機制的作用,包括教育機構、贊助 機制、學術界話語體系、大眾媒體,等等。首先是教育機構,特別是大學等正規教育 機構。當某一作家/作品入選文集、文集又被選為學校課程指定的教科書時,這些文 學作品及作家便開始了神聖化的歷程,有機會成為經久不衰的經典。杜克(Duke)指 出,《中國現代短篇小說選,1919-1949》(Modern Chinese Stories and Novellas, 1919-1949)(Lau et al. 1981)"必定成為(美國大學)教授中國現代文學及東西比較文學課程的標準的翻譯教材"(Duke 1983,191),金介甫也指出,《不完美的天堂》被很多美國大學選為中國文學課程的指定教材,因而增加了銷售量。而對於出版商來說,這樣的作品及文集便成為有利可圖的產品(Sapiro 2008,155),成為出版社的教育庫存書目,可以不斷重印,產出豐厚的經濟資本。同時,重印也使這些作品得以不斷地發行、流通,為作者/作品贏得更廣大的讀者群,得到更多的關注和認可,必然累積更多的象徵資本。經濟資本與象徵資本相互轉換,且總量增長,助推其神聖化進程。

各種機構贊助人也發揮了重要作用,比如各個層面的基金資助,使獲得基金支持的研究者及其研究項目贏取了一定的經濟資本和象徵資本。如果與某一翻譯作品相關的研究項目獲得基金支持,這一作品便有機會入選熱點話題,引起更多的關注與認可,獲取神聖化進程所需的象徵資本。

學術界話語體系的影響力已被證實,因為學術界話語必須觀察文學場域的文學形式及其動態運作模式,其評價、判斷成為文學的風向標和指導原則,影響著作者/作品被認可、被欣賞、被接受、以及被神聖化的程度,甚至可能成為審查制度的一部分。

大眾媒體對翻譯作品神聖化的進程發揮著前所未有的作用,他們使相關活動進入公共視野,比如國際書展、獎項評選及頒獎會、改編自小說的影視劇發佈會、網路銷售渠道,等等。所有參與者都會充分利用網路媒體資源,打造能夠吸引最廣泛的受眾的產品。《邊城》2009年的新譯本在亞馬遜網站上的銷售無疑擴大了它的目標讀者群,在獲取經濟資本的同時,也收穫了相應的象徵資本。法蘭克福書展已是中國文學尋求海外出版發行的重要途徑,對推介翻譯文學作品的重要意義不言而喻。而現代文化生活中"文學藝術獎項令人震驚地迅速崛起"(English 2005,I),在媒體及文化產業日益國際化的語境中,各類獎項的"象徵資本承擔了特殊的重要性,……被認為是潛在的、強大的相對貨幣"(English 2005,297),獲獎者擁有特殊標記,甚至發展到"贏家通吃",積聚了大量的經濟資本和象徵資本。重要的文學獎項已成為促使作者/作品神聖化的重要推動力。

六、結語

翻譯文學的地位並非與生俱來,而是文學場域內各種不同力量長時期不間斷的爭鬥、抗衡的結果,在場域的動態運作過程中逐漸建立起來。在這一過程中翻譯文學既遵循文學文化產品本身的生產邏輯前行,又擺脫不了經濟邏輯的束縛與制約,既需積聚不同權重的各種資本,又需增加資本總量,唯有如此才能促進翻譯文學的神聖化歷程。文學作品自身的語言文化資本是翻譯文學立足的必要條件,文內及文外副文本則為翻譯文本累積足夠的經濟資本與象徵資本立下汗馬功勞,而文本外各種相關要素構建的文化生態助推了翻譯文學的神聖化推程。

從這一翻譯社會學的視角審視翻譯文學的資本及其神聖化進程,可以讓我們更充

分地認識翻譯文學被認可的兩種邏輯的對話協商:商業的邏輯和藝術的邏輯,既看 到經濟層面無孔不入的利益驅動,也看到文學作品內在的文學性的堅守,文本、副文 本、文本外各個層面相關力量的博弈促成翻譯文學一步一步走向神聖化的祭壇。

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重構抗戰語境下的盟軍譯訓教育

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Abstract

Re-contextualizing Chinese Military Interpreter Education during World War II (by Jie Liu)

Chinese military interpreters or interpreting officers played an important role in the fight against Japanese aggression during WWII. This paper traces the historical developments of military interpreter education in the World War II context. Building upon Liu's contextual model for interpreter training, discussions revolve around key strands of education, including the curriculum, textbooks, and training methods. It is argued that despite some deficiencies and confusion between language teaching and interpreting training, the Chinese military interpreter training programs served the historical context and were a good example of large-scale curriculum-based institutional training in modern Chinese history. The wartime training practices actually marked the first developmental phase of China's translation and interpreting education in the 20th century.

一、引言

第二次世界大戰的中國戰場是世界反法西斯戰爭中不可或缺的組成部分,被譽爲世界反法西斯戰爭的"東方主戰場"。中國抗戰的偉大勝利既是全體中華兒女共同抗爭的結果,同時也離不開國際範圍內的道義支持與軍事援助。抗日戰爭時期由國民政府主導的軍事譯員訓練班是一項旨在配合援華盟軍對日作戰的創舉,亦是抗戰時期中國翻譯教育的一個縮影。1941-1945年間國民政府軍委會在昆明和重慶等地通過全國範圍內的徵調或招考陸續培養了四千餘名英語譯員。他們大多是來自各高等院校的大學生或是英語較好的歸國華僑,通過兩至三個月不等的軍事英語和通譯業務培訓後,分

配至中緬印(CBI)戰區的盟軍機關和戰爭前綫任"翻譯官"[1],爲抗戰勝利做出過不可磨滅的貢獻。

對於抗戰時期翻譯官及其工作描述,自上世紀九十年代以來已有衆多譯員發表回憶文章提及(如楊寶煌,1996;梅祖彥,2004;許淵沖,2011),相關論文或書籍也時有發表(如 Romanus and Sunderland 1953;嚴嘉瑞,2008;聞黎明,2010;羅天,2011;左平,2013),但筆者認爲目前大多數的研究主要以史料發掘和整理爲主,缺乏理論層面的探討,特別缺乏從語言學、翻譯學的理論視角來聚焦戰時軍事譯員培訓工作。本文擬從功能語境對翻譯教育實踐的操縱出發,來研究抗戰時期軍事譯員培訓工作。本文擬從功能語境對翻譯教育實踐的操縱出發,來研究抗戰時期軍事譯員訓練班(以下簡稱"譯訓班"),以新的視角來詮釋抗戰時期正面戰場上的英語譯員是怎樣培養造就的這一長期以來沒有得到學界足夠重視的課題,揭示影響戰爭中的語言教育的深層次社會文化因素,再現二十世紀中國翻譯教育史上的重要一頁,從歷時角度闡釋抗戰時期我國翻譯教育所取得的功績及其局限性,力求爲學界重讀二十世紀中國翻譯教育史提供一些新的文化哲思與理論探尋。

二、抗戰譯訓班的產生:從戰地服務到支援反攻

國民政府軍事委員會大規模成建制的徵調和培訓翻譯人員最早是從 1941 年秋天開始的,與中國空軍美國志願航空大隊(AVG)^[2] 進駐西南大後方援助對日作戰關係密切,同時也隨著抗戰局面的變化而不斷調整擴充,從而形成了一次全國性的軍事譯員教育培訓。筆者研究發現,譯訓班辦學培養目標實際上經歷過兩個階段——從第一階段的服務中美空軍爲主,到第二階段的全方位協助戰略反攻,故此劃分爲兩階段。

2.1 第一階段戰地服務團幹部譯訓班 (昆明) (1941年10月-1943年10月)

1941年8月,中國空軍美國志願航空大隊(AVG)在陳納德(Claire Lee Chennault)的帶領下宣告成立,並迅速入駐昆明,開始了在空中抗擊日軍的援華之旅。爲確保與美方的有效溝通,國民政府於1941年秋在昆明成立了戰地服務團,負責接待來華美軍(當時主要是"飛虎隊")及安排衣食住行等事宜,並以官方名義,在戰地服務團首次開辦了翻譯人員訓練班(對外亦稱"幹部訓練班")。其訓練目的是提供足量的英語翻譯人員,以確保軍委會與美方的有效溝通。該班班主任爲勵志社總幹事、戰地服務團團長黃仁霖上校,但他常駐重慶,因而實際負責人爲時任西南聯大教授吳澤霖,擔任副班主任,同時派該校外文系主任陳福田教授參與譯訓班工作。譯訓班地點設在昆明西站附近的昆華農校(即當時美軍第一招待所),第一期學員來自此時已經西遷後方的幾所國立大學(包括中央大學、浙江大學、武漢大學、四川大學和西南聯合大學),人數共計35人,於1941年10月7日開班,訓練時間爲期兩個月(閩黎明,2010,8)。據曾參加譯訓班第二期的許淵沖回憶,美國志願空軍第一大隊到昆明援助中國對日抗戰後,教育部號召全國各大學外文系高年級男學生服役一年,不服役的要開除學籍,服役期滿可算大學畢業(許淵沖,2011,214)。面對抗戰形勢的新變化,當時的西南聯大校長梅貽琦號召廣大學子投筆從戎,積極踴躍地參加軍隊通譯工作,以專業

知識與外語技能支援抗戰。根據當時國民政府教育部和軍委會出臺的徵調條例,西南聯大出臺了有關本校學生在受訓或服務期內補修課業辦法,規定充任譯員者工作一年後可回校復學,譯訓班所修課程考核過關者,可以抵換 24-32 個學分並免修所有大學期間的軍訓與體育課程(張愛蓉、郭建榮,1998,204)。

從目前掌握的史料看,戰地服務團昆明譯訓班開設的時間爲兩年左右,共辦七期,培訓學員共計 429 人。受訓學員以西南聯大爲最多,達 104 人,其次爲復旦大學和中央大學(《青年學生從軍手冊》,1944,1,45)。這一時期的譯訓班學員沒有嚴格的入學考試,而是採取了直接從公立高校在讀學生中徵調或抽調進入軍隊充任幹部的方式進行(故名"幹訓班"),對徵調學員所學專業也沒有特別要求,但規定符合應徵條件的應屆畢業生,不服徵調兩年兵役者,不發畢業文憑。僅從這一點可以看出,抗戰譯員徵調(即第一階段)是政府在戰爭形勢下的一種非常規應急措施,有一定的強制性。學員畢業分配統一由軍委會管理,主要去向是協助美國志願航空大隊(AVG)從事戰地服務。

太平洋戰爭爆發後,美國羅斯福政府進一步加大了對華援助的力度。1943年3月 "飛虎隊"擴編爲美國陸軍航空兵第十四航空隊,從而正式納入了美國軍方作戰體系當中。伴隨著美國空軍而來的是大量的美式武器、裝備、彈藥和醫療設備等進入中國戰區。在這樣的大背景下,翻譯人員需求量陡增,重慶國民政府因而又出臺了規模更大的譯員徵調和培訓計劃(即以下談到的"第二階段"),此次譯訓計劃改由軍委會外事局直接領導,培訓班先後在昆明、重慶等地舉辦,爲戰略反攻時期的世界反法西斯同盟(即"同盟國")之間的軍事合作提供了有力的語言服務保障和培養了數千名的軍事翻譯。歷史證明,從譯訓班走向中緬印戰場的"翻譯官"們,爲盟軍在防空、運輸、訓練中國軍隊和協同遠征軍作戰等方面發揮了重要作用(羅天,2011)。

2.2 第二階段外事局重慶、昆明譯訓班(1943年11月-1945年8月)

1942-1943 年間,隨著蘇軍在斯大林格勒保衛戰和盟軍在中途島海戰的勝利,世界反法西斯戰爭出現了重大轉折,反法西斯同盟的"正義之師"由戰略防禦進入了戰略反攻的新階段。1943 年 11 月 3 日,中美空軍混合大隊在廣西桂林正式宣告成立並開始作戰,至此中美聯合抗日的局面進一步形成並鞏固。由於當時大量的英美盟軍來華作戰,但當時國內的軍官大多不懂英語,而美軍聯絡官中也鮮有通漢語者,自然需要大量的軍事翻譯人員來配合。爲了有效應對與盟軍的軍事聯絡,國民政府軍委會和教育部又出臺了一個三千人的譯員訓練計劃。從 1943 年 10 月起陸續從全國各地以"徵調大學生服兵役"的形式,通過選拔考試,進入昆、渝兩地譯訓班。據不完全統計,第二階段昆明譯訓班又續辦了九期,重慶譯訓班辦了五期,每期受訓時間爲四到八週不等。與此同時,軍委會在廣西桂林設立譯員中轉站(Interpreters' Pool)[3],對從譯訓班畢業的"准譯員"們進行崗前實地培訓與崗位分配,做好奔赴戰地之前的武器使用技能準備。從 1943 年秋至 1945 年 8 月抗戰勝利,兩年間國民政府軍委會面向全國公私立高校在讀大學生和海外愛國歸僑培訓英語譯員[4]共計 2436 名(黃仁霖,2006,115)。

筆者通過研究發現,第二階段的譯訓計劃在組織運作上比第一階段有了明顯提 升。首先,領導機構改由軍委會外事局直接領導。與戰地服務團相比,政府外事部 門通常更能有效整合外語資源,更能把握翻譯工作的要求和人員培訓的難點,因而這 一時期的培訓在課程規劃、師資匹配和教學規範性等方面取得了顯著提升。同時學員 徵調範圍擴大到全國公私立高等院校在讀男生,應徵譯員的選材面得以進一步擴大, 就連部分外國在華創辦的教會學校學生也加入到譯訓大軍之中。特別值得一提的是, 1945 年初, 重慶譯訓班啓用了美籍顧問、教會大學出身的"中國通"畢範宇(Dr. Frank Wilson Price) [5]博士參與課堂教學和中國現代史上第一本英漢口譯教材的編寫。筆者 認爲,此舉彰顯了超越時代的前瞻性(詳見"3.2教學過程語境")。其次,學員需經過 嚴格的考試(包括筆試和口試)和體檢合格方能錄取。從目前掌握的檔案資料看,軍 委會外事局招考英語譯員的考試科目包括:國父遺教、國文、常識、英文(翻譯、會 話、作文)和口試(《雲南日報》,1943年8月2日,第1版)。從中不難看出,譯員 選拔工作對應徵者的思想政治水準、業務素質、百科知識、語言功底與表達等方面進 行全面考查。1943年10月18日頒布的《軍委會譯員訓練班徵調條例》要求應徵者除 需提交二寸半身相片四張外,還必須提交由在本地文武機關擔任少校以上的人員作爲 擔保人簽字的保證書一份,或由原校當局予以保證受訓期間如遇無故中途退學,除追 繳一切費用外並函告各學校當局開除該生學籍。由此可見,譯訓班辦學的嚴肅性和正 規性較前一階段有明顯躍升,同時也體現出政府公權力在教育體系內所扮演的"把關 人"角色。

外事局根據戰地用人要求,安排了以高校教授爲主(如從西南聯大、雲南大學、中央大學等高校抽調),外籍教師爲輔的師資隊伍,建立起了以軍事化管理爲特色和課程建設爲依託的一套較爲完整的訓練體系。培訓時間一般爲六週到三個月不等。上文談到,1943 年秋譯訓班改由外事局直接領導後,具體培訓事宜也隨之出現了新的變化。此時戰地服務團主任黃仁霖不再兼任昆明譯訓班班主任,改由西南聯大教授吳澤霖和教務長樊際昌共同負責。與此同時,從1943 年夏秋開始,軍委會外事局在重慶沙坪壩和北碚等處也辦起了爲期三個月的譯員訓練班,後於1945 年初整編歸入"中央訓練團譯訓班"(以下統稱"重慶譯訓班"),名義上依然由常駐重慶的黃仁霖擔任班主任,具體事務則交由外事局負責。重慶譯訓班師資力量頗爲雄厚,除了抽調高校教員,國民政府中不少高級譯員也應邀授課。他們與美籍顧問一道參與日常教學,課程規劃與訓練管理,取得了應有的訓練效果。尤其引起筆者關注的是,該譯訓班歷史性地編寫了一本英語口譯訓練教材(即《翻譯官必讀英語四十課》),並以教材爲依託開展翻譯技能和主題知識的系統口譯教學。這可以說爲中國現代口譯教育走向正規化吹響了第一聲"號角"。重慶中央訓練團譯訓班前後共招收五期學員,一直持續到1945年8月抗戰勝利後完成其歷史使命。

三、譯員培訓與語境:以抗戰譯訓班爲例

語境(Context)的概念最早出現在語言學研究領域,國內外語言學界各家各派都從各自不同角度和側面對語境的概念進行定義或對其組成要素進行界定,包括 Firth (1957)、Hymes (1977)、Kramsch (1993)、Halliday and Hasan (1993)、胡壯麟(2002)、王初明(2007)等。從上世紀七八十年代起,以昆廷•斯金納爲代表的"劍橋學派"就提出了用歷史語境主義(historical contextualism)取代文本中心論的方法來研究政治思想史。他主張把研究注意力從只關注經典文本(text)轉移到産生文本的歷史語境和思想家自己的語境(context)當中,並顯示出該作者在什麼狀態下創作出了這樣的文本和作品,進而找到其思想或作品與其所處歷史環境之間的關聯。這就是在學術界被稱爲思想史研究中的"斯金納革命"。這一研究範式的提出,在歷史研究領域可以說影響深遠(李宏圖,2005)。

口譯研究學者 Liu (2014) 是較早把現代語境的概念應用到口譯研究(特別是譯員培訓)當中的。在借鑒語言學和歷史學研究成果基礎上,結合口譯培訓的實際,提出了譯員培訓的語境模型,其中包括宏觀歷史語境、教學過程語境和微觀語言本體語境三個次級語境組成(見圖 1)。該語境模型認爲譯員培訓沒有統一固定的模式可循,成功的口譯培訓要與其所處的語言本體和教學語境相適應,亦與宏觀歷史語境相協調。譯員培訓從本質上講可以看作是一個受語境制約的教育實踐行爲(contextual matter)(Liu 2020/2014)。

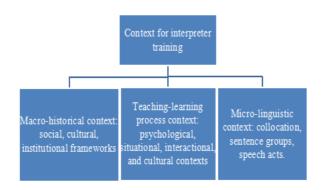


图 1: 譯員培訓的語境模型 (Liu 2014, 51)

筆者認爲該模型較全面地把握了譯員訓練的多個語境層面,立體地把譯訓客體放置在了"三位一體"的語境框架中進行考察。可以嘗試使用該模型的三大次級語境對抗戰譯訓班展開"由點及面"研究。但是有一點需要說明,鑒於該訓練班距今已有70餘年,目前仍健在的受訓譯員已不多,當年翻譯訓練所用有聲語言或文字材料已經基本難以獲得(除了下文談到的"翻譯官必讀英語四十課"),留在世上可考材料基本都是當年"翻譯官"們撰寫的回憶文章與訪談記錄,更多的是觸及譯員自身心路歷程的反思和感悟。因此筆者將該模型中的"微觀語言本體語境(micro-linguistic context)"擴充爲"受訓譯員本體語境(micro-interpreter context)"進行綜合考查。其中更重要的一

個原因是翻譯研究自上世紀七八十年代發生"文化轉向"以來,更多的關注點已經從翻譯文本轉換轉移到作爲翻譯行爲主體的譯者/譯員本身。具體到譯訓班這個研究對象,本文更關注受訓譯員自身的心理認知過程對譯訓行爲產生的作用與影響。綜上所述,筆者提出由以下三個語境層面構成的模型對譯訓班進行考察。



图 2: 抗戰譯訓班語境模型圖

3.1 宏觀歷史語境

歷史語境主義主張應在歷史的語境中考察文本的生成,對任何歷史事件或人物的考察都必須放置在其當時的語境和話語框架中,並在語境中尋找答案(張曬,2013)。1937年7月抗戰全面爆發後,中日民族矛盾上升爲中國社會的主要矛盾。1942年1月《聯合國家宣言》的發表標志著國際範圍內形成了以中、蘇、美、英四國爲主要代表的世界反法西斯同盟,進而爲同盟國之間打開了軍事交流與合作的大門。世界反法西斯同盟的形成,爲當時在經濟、軍事和國防力量上較日本明顯處於劣勢的中國爭取和利用外力抗擊侵略提供了堅強的後盾。具體說來,同盟國援華政策的實施,客觀上成爲了譯訓班開辦的直接原因。在中國國內,國共兩黨在抗日民族統一戰綫的旗幟下,亦實現了歷史性的第二次合作。從上文的論述中可見,譯訓班的人數和規模(從第一階段發展到第二階段)也是隨著抗戰宏觀形勢,特別是國際形勢的變化而不斷變化的。回望歷史,中國與世界其他反法西斯國家和民族之間,以及中國國內各民族各階級之間所形成的密不可分的"反法西斯"關係網,共同構成了抗戰譯訓班開辦的宏觀歷史語境。

3.2 教學過程語境

作爲"贊助人"的國民政府爲軍事譯員培養指定了專門負責機構(戰地服務團和軍委會外事局等)對培訓工作的時間、課程和內容都做了系統的安排。所有受訓譯員經考核畢業分發後,在服務期間均獲得一定級別的軍銜及相應的俸祿,這也是譯訓班能夠順利開辦的重要保證。具體到教學安排和訓練過程,昆明和重慶兩地各具特色,不盡相同。昆明譯訓班的學習生活緊湊而高效,與戰時軍營的生活步調和節奏幾乎同步。據軍委會昆明譯訓班第一期學員梅祖彥回憶,譯訓班每天上業務課 8 小時,其中語言訓練約占總時間的 40%,筆譯和口譯並重,第一期外籍常任教師爲 Mrs. Baker和華僑王老師,也有美軍軍官來上課。軍事知識約占 35%,講各種步兵兵器的結構和

功能,由已任職的譯員作教學示範,並去過步校和炮校觀摩教學過程。社會知識約占 15%,請過很多聯大教授和美國人來講中美文化傳統、社會習俗及國際形勢等。軍事 訓練約占 10%,包括早晚集合跑步、步兵操練,但沒有武器訓練(梅祖彥,2004)。

師資方面,昆明譯訓班有相當一部分是從西南聯大抽調而來。先後在譯訓班授課或做過專題講座的西南聯大教員包括蔡維潘、王榮、鮑覺明、楊業治、查良釗、沈昌煥、羅常培、聞一多、潘光旦等教授。教授們來自不同學科背景,講授的課程也不僅僅局限在語言、文學、翻譯領域,他們開設的課程還包括"社會建設","倫理建設","美軍概況"等等。值得一提的是,時任西南聯大中文系教授的聞一多應邀於1941年12月起在戰地服務團譯訓班講授中英互譯課程,他選用了英文版《共產黨宣言》作爲教材,讓學生翻譯其中的選段,還在課堂上公開宣揚毛澤東實爲中國抗戰之領袖(聞黎明、侯菊坤,1994,685)。這在國民政府官辦教育體制下實爲罕見——這也從一個側面反映出,在全民抗戰的宏觀歷史語境下,國共之間的黨派分爭暫時讓位於全民族最高利益(即民族解放),課程教學也在很大程度上放手給任課教師全權負責。

1943 年秋以後,軍委會昆明譯訓班的教育教學工作在外事局的領導下更趨常態化——應徵學員每期受訓六週,然後送至美軍基地學習武器常識兩週,即被委任爲"翻譯官",主要去向爲協助盟軍訓練中國部隊。第二階段譯訓班課程主要包括四大類:(1)英語技能類,包括英語會話與口語訓練,多由美方軍官負責講授,課堂主題圍繞美國的軍事禮節與紀律,國際政治與時事等展開。上正課完畢後,譯員訓練班的學員們常常和他們的教官舉行非正式的會議,討論軍事與政治,並提出有關美國以及抗戰形勢的種種問題。



[6]

图 3: 美軍哈立斯中尉正在向學員們說明美國陸軍中各軍階的符號

(2)技術類:現代戰爭中通訊聯絡工作極爲重要,因而譯員訓練班中受訓學員必

須熟練掌握相關技術,如如何運用戰地無綫電機發報和進行聯絡。圖 4 展現了一群受訓學員們正在學習如何運用一座手提無綫電。從已掌握的史料中我們不難發現,譯訓課程中實戰課程比例高,教育教學過程高度結合戰爭語境,具有極強的針對性和實踐性。

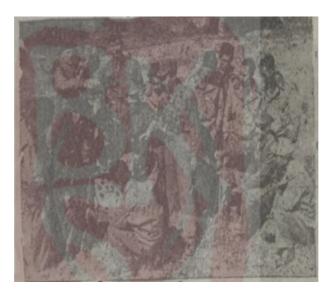


图 4. 教員正在指導學員們學習如何使用無綫電機

- (3) 體藝類:譯員訓練班負責當局十分注意學員們的體格和全面發展。體育訓練被列爲重要科目之一。譯訓班的體育教官們運用種種方法提高學員們對體育課的興趣,通過體格訓練及組織各類體育比賽來達到增強學員體能,錘煉心智的目標。訓練班的科目很多,歌詠的學習是學員們最感興趣的科目之一。學員們在訓練班中學習用英文演唱美國歌曲,這種歌曲既能幫助他們提升英語語感,也使他們更容易地和盟軍部隊打成一片,從而能更好地融入盟邦軍人弟兄的團體中。體藝類課程有助於提升部隊的士氣、凝聚力和戰鬥力(見圖 5 與圖 6)。
- (4)實地演習:野外演習是譯員訓練班的最後課程。學員們在經過各種訓練之後, 最後一關就是在野外實地學習如何應付實際作戰之種種情形(見圖7)。學員們在已經 熟悉武器之構造功能後,就由教官率領至野外作實彈射擊演習,使他們能夠更加熟悉 有關武器的一切,以便將來可以毫無困難地協助盟國軍官訓練中國軍隊。受訓之譯員 均系由大學中徵調者,對新武器之各項學識,頗能瞭解接受。一旦野外演習完畢後, 學員們即被委任爲翻譯官,協助美國或盟軍軍官教導中國軍隊最新式的作戰方法。

在重慶方面,譯訓計劃也有序展開。前面提到重慶譯訓班的師資力量強大,教師隊伍構成也更趨合理與多樣化。除了美籍顧問畢範宇博士,譯訓班教員中還有當過蔣介石翻譯的王錫鈞,一口地道牛津英語後在北京外國語學院任教的何永信博士,以及重慶國際廣播電臺的播音員彭樂善博士等,他們輪流到各個班級指導小組口語練習(楊寶煌,1996)。

課程設置根據實戰中協助訓練中國軍隊、日常軍事聯絡和國際交流需求爲基礎,

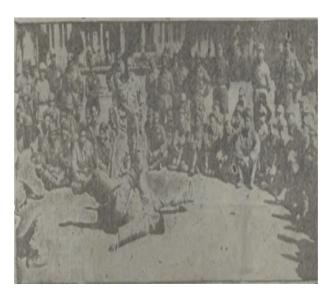


图 5: 學員們在露天進行角力比賽



图 6: 學員們在禮堂練習歌詠



图 7: 學員們在教官的帶領下進行野外射擊練習

力求在較短時間內突擊掌握所必需的英語語言知識和培養一定的外語交際能力。上文提到,重慶譯訓班歷史性地編寫了一本《翻譯官必讀英語四十課》(以下簡稱《四十課》)作爲譯訓班核心教材(見表 1),主要目標也是讓學生在軍事交際情景下熟悉相關英語詞匯和進行句型操練。在這本教材中,每一課由兩部分組成:(a)與話題相關的新的單詞和句子;(b)情景對話——應用第一部分學到的單詞模擬角色扮演(roleplay)。教師鼓勵學生記住這些情景對話,並把它們適用到不同的情景中。根據軍事禮儀要求,課堂上每位學員在回答教官提問時必須先說"Yes,Sir(是的,長官)"。《四十課》教學過程中要求學生大聲朗讀並背誦課本上的英文對話。爲了提升聽力和口語能力,學生在進入課文學習前先要認真聆聽教員,然後跟著重複。新的詞匯和短語通常與視覺材料、圖片、圖表或實物、現場觀察和經驗積累聯繫在一起。

表 1:《翻譯官必讀英語四十課》目錄 [7]

目錄

- 4.2.1 介紹, 間候, 軍銜(好的開端是成功的一半; 有志者, 事竟成。)
- 4.2.2 軍隊組織和管理
- 4.2.3 軍營,紀律,安全,禮儀
- 4.2.4 行軍和運輸,個人裝備
- 4.2.5 地理和地域
- 4.2.6 采購,勞工,契約,勞務
- 4.2.7 通訊——電報,電話,明信片,收音機,軍隊
- 4.2.8 醫療服務, 急救
- 4.2.9 住宿和營地服務
- 4.2.10 辦公室工作,生意事宜

- 4.2.11 軍事設施設備,武器軍火
- 4.2.12 與政府官員和地方領導的對話
- 4.2.13 中國餐館和飲食,社交娛樂
- 4.2.14 識別與偵察
- 4.2.15 金融, 匯率, 銀行業
- 4.2.16 航空和空戰
- 4.2.17 地圖和測繪
- 4.2.18 法律事務
- 4.2.19 汽車,機動設備
- 4.2.20 中日戰爭和世界大戰,通訊社,時事
- 4.2.21 美國歷史,政府,生活
- 4.2.22 修理
- 4.2.23 軍事情報,敵人,戰犯
- 4.2.24 中國歷史,政府,三民主義
- 4.2.25 工程師和炮兵
- 4.2.26 軍隊衛生,公共健康,個人衛生
- 4.2.27 海軍和海軍行動
- 4.2.28 前綫牛活, 遊擊戰
- 4.2.29 西方禮節,軍事禮儀
- 4.2.30 體育運動,運動,娛樂
- 4.2.31 軍事行動
- 4.2.32 中國習俗和社會生活
- 4.2.33 農業,工業和經濟發展
- 4.2.34 信件,檔,報告,翻譯工作
- 4.2.35 聯合國,外交,議會程式
- 4.2.36 (英語) 軍事縮略語
- 4.2.37 個性,人生哲理和理想
- 4.2.38 陸軍部隊,軍需,化學戰
- 4.2.39 軍事訓練,騎兵,氣象
- 4.2.40 攻克東京,一起走向勝利,自由與和平

從這本教材來看,筆者認爲該課程大體上屬一個基於軍事主題的專門用途英語(ESP)培訓班,其教學理念和方法屬從"二戰"一直到20世紀60年代都被廣泛運用在英語作爲外語教學(TEFL)的"聽說教學法"(audio-lingual approach)。該法深受結構主義語言學和行爲主義心理學影響,建立在語言的初級狀態是口語的假設之上,教學中課文學習或有意推延至學生很好地完成了聽說練習之後。各單元編寫主要先從圍繞語言形式的詞匯與句型操練開始,進而再轉入模擬語言交際的對話與角色扮演,教學按照教員課前擬定的公式化範本循章進行,整個課堂仿佛是一場經過精心策劃的"操練秀"(許國璋,2001/1986,vii)。在交際教學法於上世紀80年代成爲外語教學主

流之前,聽說法曾在世界許多國家和地區的外語課堂上應用。無獨有偶,該法最早起源於"二戰"期間美國軍隊內的外語教學活動,其最大的優勢在於它能在較短時間內讓學員掌握一整套的語言形式和迅速培養出一定的聽說能力,且外語實踐能力通常比語法翻譯法(grammar translation approach)培養出來的強。這一點放在當時的歷史語境下來分析,其意義不言而喻:教學要以最快速度服務於戰時語言溝通。可以說,這個課程成功解決了在戰爭期間對國際軍事交流的迫切需要,它起始於戰爭語境,也隨著戰爭形勢的發展而調整變化。從內容上看,《四十課》基本上分爲四類:(1)軍事知識的獲取;(2)個人專長和軍事技能;(3)語言和溝通技巧;(4)言外知識和目標語文化。第34課題爲《信件,檔,報告和翻譯工作》是唯一一個和翻譯技巧有關的單元。其餘課程主要集中在專門用途英語(ESP)和軍事術語的習得。口譯技巧習得沒有在課程中專門提及,而這一點是巴黎高翻學院(ESIT)和國際會議口譯員協會(AIIC)所推崇的口譯教學法的核心。如果按照現代的標準,這個訓練課程似乎不能稱爲真正意義上的口譯教學法的核心。如果按照現代的標準,這個訓練課程似乎不能稱爲真正意義上的口譯教學,也反映了當時公衆(包括學界)對翻譯的理解——雙語能力或被等同於口譯(或翻譯)能力,翻譯訓練被當做外語教學的一種特殊方式或手段。這一點與國際上(職業)翻譯教學從外語教學中脫胎發展歷程極爲類似。

儘管重慶譯訓課程視翻譯爲外語訓練手段,但同時它也採用了某些學習口譯技能技巧的方法。比如說,角色扮演(role-play)作爲一種教學手段在課上和課後練習中獲廣泛使用。在實踐中,鼓勵學生以2到4個人爲一小組,按照教材單元主題內容練習口譯,分別輪流扮演美國官員(A),中國官員或平民(B),以及口譯員(C),通過編情景對話來應用課程中學習過的短語,句型和單詞等。這一方法雖起源於語言教學傳統,但在現代職業口譯教學中仍以三角對話(three-cornered dialogue)的形式獲廣泛應用,並被認爲是主流口譯教學法的有機組成部分(Liu 2020/2014)。

此外,無論是昆明還是重慶,譯訓班課程設置中都涉及公民道德、愛國情操(三民主義教育)、禮儀、遵紀守法等內容,筆者認爲這些都可以看作是譯員倫理(interpreter ethics)教學的雛形。當年造訪譯訓班的國民政府要員級別甚高,包括蔣介石、陳誠、商震、何浩若等,他們或是在譯訓班發表訓話,號召學員服務軍隊與友邦,或是親自指導譯訓班領導團隊的組建等等,這些都明顯體現了宏觀歷史語境框架下意識形態對譯訓行爲的操控。如前文所言,譯員培訓不是在真空中進行的,語言、知識、技能等組成要素都服務於戰時同盟國軍事合作這一大前提,並在教學過程語境中逐一體現。

3.3 微觀譯員本體語境

還有一點筆者認爲對譯訓行爲和效果有直接影響的就是受訓譯員從入學到最後畢業分配整個過程的心理認知過程——在本文中被定義爲"受訓譯員本體語境"。上文提到,譯訓班的應徵對象主要是全國各高校在讀男生,年齡一般在 20-40 歲之間,並符合 1943 年 10 月《軍委會徵調條例》所要求的應徵者"身體健全,思想純正,英語嫻熟,儀態端方而能代表中國現代青年者。"

據許淵沖 (2011,214) 回憶,1941 年下半年"飛虎隊"入滇對日作戰之後,西南

聯大等高校的學生紛紛響應教育部號召參軍,但也有個別同學因爲受"好男不當兵,好鐵不打釘"的觀念影響,認爲給美軍當翻譯有失身份,寧願休學也不自願參軍。但絕大多數的同學一想到參軍抗日是報效國家,而且還能掙工資,同時也是鍛煉自己的好機會。這一時期的學生們對於加入"翻譯官"行伍整體上是充滿熱情的,特別對這些生活在飽受戰爭摧殘時期的大學生來說,參軍是他們爲國家和人民服務最直接的方式之一。譯訓班爲這些年輕的知識分子提供了一個平臺,使他們可以拿起外語的"武器"保衛國家,爲國服務。筆者在查閱近百篇戰時翻譯官所寫回憶文章後,發現其中談及投筆從戎的原因時,出現頻率最多的詞語包括"報效國家"、"打日本"、"當兵謀出路"等。這一方面體現了莘莘學子的愛國情懷與報國之志,另一方面也可以看出,戰時從軍爲戰亂時期的大學生們提供了一條不可多得的謀生出路。然而隨著戰爭形勢的轉變,特別是抗戰後期隨著美國對華經援力度的不斷增加,國民政府統治日益腐敗,國內大學生們對於還要不要從軍(包括參加譯訓班)開始有了不同的看法。1944 屆西南聯大畢業生彭國濤(2003,187)的想法可以說頗有代表性:

"當聽到宣佈四年級全體男生徵調當翻譯的時候,內心鬥爭很激烈,去還是不去?去的話,必然要中止學業,要參加國民黨軍隊。在我印象中,國民黨軍隊是極其腐敗、無能,在日軍面前累戰累敗。不去的話,又痛失了最後的抗戰機會。爲了抗日,我能貢獻一分力量也是理所當然,最後下定了投筆從戎的決心。"

第二階段譯訓班儘管需要通過考試選拔入伍,但是 1944 年後國民政府通過行政命令的方式給各主要高校硬性分配了從軍名額,從而進一步加大了徵調的強制性。一些學生從個人發展的角度考慮,對這次從軍參加譯訓不如以前那麼積極了,比如在西南聯大部分院系內部還產生過激烈的爭論。部分學生爲逃避徵調,甚至不惜採取各種自殘手段希望不通過體檢等。還有些人雖然進了譯訓班,可過沒幾天就跑了出來,後經再三勸說才返回(聞黎明,2010,15)。很明顯,與前一階段戰地服務團譯訓班相比,國內政治形勢對學生從軍的心理影響明顯加大,盲從心理在學生群體中開始減弱,他們或從前輩譯員中瞭解到軍中實際情況,開始對這種強制性徵調有了抵觸情緒。以西南聯合大學參加譯訓班人數爲例,筆者從雲南省檔案館藏西南聯大資料(案卷號:32-1-300)中發現,第一,二期參與人數還保持高位(分別爲 90 人和 255 人[8]),但從第三期開始人數陡然驟降,僅爲 5 人,第四至九期的參訓人數也再難有接近前兩期。應徵人數在 1944 年後出現明顯下降的事實也部分說明瞭學生譯員群體的積極性受挫。1944 年春從外事局昆明譯訓班畢業,被分配到駐滇美軍總部擔任譯員的梅祖彥(2004,11)是這樣描述他的譯員軍旅生涯的:

"做翻譯員工作的頭幾個月,心情十分複雜。一方面覺得自己參加了抗日隊 伍,達到了'爲國效勞'的目的,但看到了國民黨政府和軍隊的腐敗現象, 又覺得自己是'助紂爲虐',再則有些美國人員認爲我們是落後民族,對 中國人十分傲慢。自己常想怎樣才能使中國趕快富強起來,一不怕日本侵 略,二不求助於美國呢?當然在那時的條件下,一個單純青年學生是找不 到什麽答案的,只是增加了思想上的苦惱。"

這種鬥爭心理在較多的譯員回憶錄中都有體現。由此可見,在抗日救國理想與腐敗無能的政府和軍隊之間,當年的受訓譯員群體經歷過從滿腔熱情到內心仿徨與掙扎,再到失落無助的心理過程。

四、借古思今——歷史意義與結語

抗戰勝利至今已逾75年,還原歷史,筆者認爲儘管抗戰譯訓班在語言教學與翻譯教學上未做嚴格區分,但它在我國翻譯教育史上仍具有里程碑式的意義:首先,它是中國現代史上第一次以機構爲依託,以課程系統爲基礎,成建制的培養(專業)口筆譯人員的首次嘗試;[9]其次,課程教材的編寫以軍事聯絡員工作內容爲主綫,圍繞軍事工作場景分單元展開的方式,在一定程度上也可以說奠定了以主題爲主綫的現代口譯教材編寫模式。[10] 再次,譯訓班採用的中外教師聯合執教,外聘教授做專題講座或開設知識類課程的方式,在今天看來亦是先進的口筆譯教學理念。隨著20世紀下半葉口筆譯研究在全球衆多國家和地區的逐步推廣和深入,學界對於"翻譯和翻譯教學"的理解亦不斷加深,如今職業技能化教學理念已深入人心,從"外語教學"與"翻譯教學"的分道揚鑣,再到"教學翻譯"和"翻譯教學"的概念區分,翻譯教學作爲獨立學科的翻譯學組成部分已經在包括中國在內的國家得到廣泛認同並落地生根(穆雷,1999;劉和平,2005)。

其次,抗戰譯訓班的教育教學實踐再次證明瞭口筆譯專業的實踐性(skills-led)與專業化導向(professionally-oriented)特質,筆者稱之爲翻譯專業的"第一特性"。當時的培養目標很明確,就是要在儘量短的時間內造就出能夠勝任戰時翻譯工作的操作型人才,因而譯訓課程的設計有極強的針對性與實踐性,且緊密結合戰爭語境展開教學。英語聽說教學法(audio-lingual approach)的運用就是在這樣的戰爭環境下產生並取得成功的。儘管受時代認知的局限,抗戰譯訓班既沒在語言教學與翻譯教學上進行區分,也未能在考核與畢業等"出口"環節設置門檻,通常只能根據戰地用人需求靈活伸縮,但其技能應用型辦學思路與"學用結合"的教育教學理念恰恰抓住了翻譯作爲一門專業技能/交流工具的特性,值得學界回味和反思當下翻譯專業建設。再次,抗戰譯訓班的另一大啟示就是要重視語境(context)在譯員培訓方面所起到的重要作用。本文沿語境模型從三個次級語境層面展開,論述了宏觀歷史語境決定需要"培養什麼樣的人",教學過程語境決定"如何培養人",而譯員本體語境則影響"人能培養成什麼樣"等三方互動層面的作用。三個次級語境相輔相成,共同作用於譯員培訓全過程。

現今的中國早已不是那個七十多年前飽經戰亂、國貧民弱的國家。中國文化已從 "入超"走向"出超",宏觀歷史語境的巨變帶來是翻譯人才的培養理念與實踐的巨大 改變——從當年國民政府"應急"的被動接招到如今中華文化通過翻譯主動"走出去",從《英語四十課》爲主的"外譯中",到現今各式各樣的"中譯外"爲主導的課程與實踐——都無不再次說明瞭譯員培訓是一個受語境因素制約的教育實踐行爲。

本文通過對當年譯訓教育的語境重構,還原了抗戰譯訓的教育過程,爲解答抗戰

期間中美軍隊中的英語譯員是如何培養造就的這一論題提供了新的理論視角與歷史哲思。本文同時也揭示了在譯員培訓過程中,除了語言操作平臺之外的其他要素。時至今日,儘管戰爭中的翻譯工作常被學界提及,但是的確很少有專門談及戰爭中的譯員培訓的文章。歐洲翻譯研究學者 Rosendo 與 Persand(2016,28)在 Linguistica Antverpiensia 翻譯研究主題論文集中還提到"儘管在討論戰爭/衝突地區的語言議題時,口譯人員顯然扮演著重要角色。但我們依然對於如何培訓這些口譯員知之甚少……事實上到目前爲止,大多數在這些地區工作的譯員都沒有經過專門培訓,軍事譯訓課程仍然寥寥無幾。"本文願以歷史爲鏡,通過對二戰期間中國的軍事譯員教育發展的歷史梳理,爲譯學界,史學界和教育界填補這條"缺失的鏈接"做出一些有益的探索。

注釋

- [1] "翻譯官"的稱謂在本文源至英語 Interpreting officer 一詞,特指 1941-1945 年抗 戰期間通過國民政府主辦的譯員訓練班培訓並分配上崗,在正面戰場上的盟軍機 關與中國軍隊內從事英語口譯(也包括部分筆譯工作)的軍事輔助人員。
- [2] AVG(American Volunteer Group)即美國志願航空大隊的英文縮寫,由美國陸軍航空隊退役軍官、中國航空委員會顧問陳納德少將領導組建。AVG 其後發展成爲在對日空戰中發揮巨大作用的"飛虎隊"。
- [3] 據某位抗戰老兵回憶,1944年春國民政府在廣西桂林的美軍基地內設立譯員中轉站(地點設在桂林南郊李家村)並在此臨時舉辦過"譯訓班",直屬軍委會外事局,主要對從重慶派來的准翻譯官們進行軍事知識與武器技能的培訓。學員在美國軍人的指導下,直接通過英語來學習美式武器的使用方法,爲奔赴前線做上崗前的軍事技能準備。所以從嚴格意義上講,桂林譯訓班不屬語言翻譯培訓,但可以看作是重慶譯訓班的某種延伸。
- [4] 對於培養譯員的數量,各方統計數據不完全相同,一般估計在 3000 至 4000 人不等。也有調查文章認爲,整個抗戰期間全國範圍內徵調譯員總數高達約 5000 人 (楊敏,2011,76)。
- [5] 畢範宇(1895-1974年),美國傳教士,漢學家,耶魯大學博士,孫中山《三民主義》的英譯者,抗戰時期曾做過蔣介石的顧問。
- [6] 圖 3 至圖 6 均來源於《譯員訓練班巡禮》,《聯合畫報》1945 年 3 月 16 日,第 123 期,第 3 版。
- [7] 《翻譯官必讀英語四十課》(又名《譯員手冊》),廣西桂林市檔案館民國檔案。桂林:廣西自治區桂林市檔案館藏,053-臨152-10-3之二。
- [8] 有一種觀點認爲,第二期受訓人數較多是國民政府強制徵調 1944 屆畢業生入伍 協助二次赴緬作戰的遠征軍所致(左平,2013)。
- [9] 國內翻譯學界一般認爲,中國的現代口譯教育起始於 1979 年北京外國語學院設立的聯合國譯員訓練班 (The UN Training Programme for Translators and Interpreters)。而筆者的研究表明,抗戰譯訓班早其約四十年。

[10] 上世紀 80 年代,我國高校口譯教學開始起步,當時的教材編寫理念主要圍繞主題/專題展開,期間穿插講解口譯技巧(見吳冰,1999)。90 年代中期以後,口譯教育理念開始與國際接軌,以技能爲核心的教學理念逐步占據主流地位。

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宋淇翻譯思想和翻譯活動述評

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Abstract

A Study of Stephen Soong's Translation Thoughts and Activities (by Bo Li and Meilong Liu) Stephen Soong (Chinese: 宋漢, Pinyin: Sòng Qí) was a literary critic, translator, "redologist", poet and editor. As one of the literati who moved from the Chinese mainland to Hong Kong, Soong arrived in 1949 and dedicated himself to literature, translation and cross-cultural exchanges. However, his contribution to the field of translation studies in the Hong Kong context has been understudied. The paper aims to fill this gap. We review Stephen Soong's translation career, summarize his translation achievements, and describe his translation-related activities. He coordinated the American book translations program funded by USIS and cofounded the translation journal Renditions. He also initiated the Hong Kong Translation Society and later served as the President of the Society. He translated literary works and held translation forums to promote translation studies in Hong Kong. Finally, the paper makes a summary of and reflection on his thoughts on translation.

一、宋淇生平簡述

宋淇(1919年-1996年),原名宋奇,又名宋悌芬(Stephen Soong),筆名林以亮、余懷、唐文冰、歐陽竟、飛騰、楊晉等,浙江吳興人。其父為我國現代著名藏書家、戲劇家宋春舫。宋淇曾就讀燕京大學西洋文學系、光華大學英文系,1940年獲得燕京大學西語系榮譽學士,畢業即在母校任助教。珍珠港事變後在上海法租界領導話劇活動,曾編寫舞臺劇《皆大歡喜》。1949年移居香港,先後任美國新聞處書刊編譯部主任(1951-1952),電影懋業公司製片部主任,邵氏公司編審委員會主任,曾編

《南北和》等電影劇本。1968 年起在香港中文大學專任校長特別助理,兼任高級翻譯文憑課程講師,於 1971 年創辦翻譯研究中心並任主任。他還是香港翻譯學會發起人之一,並先後擔任秘書(1971-1974)、副會長(1974-1976)和會長(1976-1980)職務。他還曾創辦《文林》雜誌,並於 1973 年與高克毅(筆名喬志高,英文名 George Kao)創辦了學術期刊《譯叢》(Renditions),主持出版《譯叢》中譯英半年刊,致力於譯介中國古代和現當代文學,於 1975 到 1982 年期間擔任主編。其發表作品中譯著主要有《自由與文化》(合譯)、《攻心記》、《興仁嶺重臨記》,編譯作品包括《美國詩選》、《美國文學批評選》、《美國現代七大小說家》,專門論述翻譯的著作有《林以亮論翻譯》(1974)、《紅樓夢西遊記:細評〈紅樓夢〉新英譯》(1976)、《文學與翻譯》(1984),其他作品包括《前言與後語》(1968)、《中國古典小說論集》(1975)、《林以亮詩話》(1976)、《四海集》(1986)、《更上一層樓》(1987)等書,論文散見於臺港各大報刊雜誌。人常稱其為"翻譯先生"(Mr. Translation),並為國際紅樓夢研討會之香港區代表(林以亮,1987)。

作為一位卓有成就的文學批評家、翻譯家、紅學家和詩人,宋淇在文學和文化領域建樹頗多,在二十世紀中國文學史特別是香港文學史上占據獨特的地位。但長期以來,他的名字多與好友張愛玲、"張學"研究,或者吳興華的詩歌創作等相聯。尤其是在宋淇之子宋以朗於2014年出版《宋淇傳奇》之後,宋淇的名聲似乎更大了,但他在學界的成就並未得到普遍的認可。尤其是他在翻譯方面的研究和貢獻,知之者甚少。筆者在各大中文數據庫對宋淇相關文獻進行檢索,發現關於宋淇翻譯思想或活動的文獻較為鮮見,個別文獻和研究或對宋淇的翻譯思想進行了局部的分析,或在相關研究中對宋淇的翻譯思想或翻譯活動有所提及,但當前尚未有研究對宋淇的翻譯思想和翻譯活動進行深入和全面的論述和總結。

宋淇對翻譯方面的貢獻與目前對其翻譯思想和翻譯活動的研究並不相稱,鑒於此,本文擬對其在翻譯方面的貢獻加以整理和評述。本文首先對宋淇譯介生涯進行綜述,分時間段簡述了其發表的譯著和譯論,並梳理宋淇與翻譯相關的組織和編輯工作,主要圍繞其在香港美國新聞處所做工作以及創辦和主編《譯叢》期刊、發起創辦翻譯學會和組織翻譯學會研討會等方面展開,最後對其翻譯思想進行較為全面的總結和反思。通過筆者梳理發現,宋淇的譯著主要發表於1968年之前,宋淇的譯論則主要發表於1968年進入香港中文大學工作之後。因而下文擬以1968年為分界,分時間段闡述宋淇的譯介生涯。

二、宋淇譯介生涯簡述

2.1 宋淇譯著、譯論及翻譯相關活動(1968年之前)

宋淇發表的作品種類較多,包括譯著、翻譯評論、詩歌評論、文學批評、紅學研究等著作,本文主要介紹宋淇發表的與翻譯相關的作品。

宋淇於 1949 年赴港,當時正值第二次世界大戰後,美蘇兩大政治軍事霸權對抗

的冷戰格局逐漸形成。中華人民共和國成立,國民黨退守臺灣,兩地的翻譯與文學均受到嚴格的意識形態管制,相對而言,香港的政治環境較為自由,因而成為美蘇冷戰文化和政治的角力場(宋子江,2018,94)。雙方都竭力擴大勢力,削弱對方勢力,同時在思想與文化方面展開競爭,美方特別著力於塑造自身為"知識的前導,民主的先鋒,自由世界的領袖"(單德興,2013,120)。美國政府於1952年在香港設立今日世界出版社(亦稱今日世界社),開始逐漸展開所謂"文化冷戰工作"(趙稀方,2006,96)。此機構隸屬於香港美國新聞處(United States Information Service in Hong Kong,USIS-HK)),即美國在香港活動最重要的機構,"肩負著宣傳心理戰等重要使命",被列入美國"國家計畫"(單德興,2013,120)。

今日世界出版社在美新處內部稱為書刊編輯部,業務包括發行《今日世界》期刊及《今日世界叢書》的出版與發行,歷屆主持人為宋淇、李如桐、戴天、余也魯、胡菊人、董橋、岑逸飛等。此刊創刊名為《今日美國》(1949-1952),1952年更名為《今日世界》,至1980年12月終刊,一共發行598期,1950、1960年代每期發行十幾萬份,一年累計發行量可達200—300萬份,在大陸以外的華人世界擁有巨大影響力(翟韜,2016)。宋淇最早發表的兩篇討論翻譯的文章,即1952年分別在此刊第三期和第七期發表的《論翻譯之難》與《論翻譯之重要》。另外,張愛玲的《秧歌》與《赤地之戀》,也是最早於《今日世界》連載。

在1949年移居香港後,宋淇曾擔任香港美國新聞處書刊編譯部主任(1951-1952)。在任內,他和文化部主任麥卡錫"合作整頓了毫無生氣的譯書部"(張愛玲、宋淇、宋鄺文美,2010,5),為了請到一流的翻譯家,他"大事提高稿費五、六倍",他先後請到"夏濟安、夏志清、徐誠斌、湯新楣、張愛玲等名家"(宋以朗,2014,60)。單德興(2013)指出,"林以亮的見識與人脈為此翻譯系列奠定良好的基礎"(123)。他指出,自民國以來的文學翻譯,陣容如此強大的翻譯團隊是絕無僅有的,可稱為翻譯界的"夢幻隊伍"(133)。在今日世界出版社任職時間最長的李如桐指出,林以亮的功勞很大;張同也指出,林以亮扮演了重要角色,他和香港的張愛玲、姚克,臺灣的夏濟安等人都熟,通過他的關係介紹他們加入翻譯中來(133)。[1]

宋淇在二十世紀六十年代為今日世界出版社編譯的文集包括《美國詩選》(1961)和《美國文學批評選》(1961),及其參與翻譯的文集《美國現代七大小說家》(1967)。雖然在美國新聞處書刊編譯部只工作了一年,但他在任內做了大量工作,如遴選譯者等工作為今日世界出版社之後大量譯作的出版都奠定了基礎,比如遴選《老人與海》的譯者張愛玲。通過這一工作機會,他和夫人鄺文美與張愛玲相識並結為好友(張愛玲、宋淇、宋鄺文美,2010,5)。另外,鄺文美從1951年起就在美國新聞處做翻譯。從1955年起,她在美國新聞處任行政助理,直到1971年。在此期間他們二人與美國新聞處的關係比較緊密。

需要指出的是,在這些名家為今日世界出版社進行翻譯、編纂等工作時,都有 "個人的政治立場,未必完全接受美國官方的意識形態"。美方在利益無損的情況下, 也尊重華裔員工個人的政治立場(單德興,2013,133)。董橋指出,編輯們負責改 稿,美方不管日常事務,封面設計也由編輯們自己找人。劉紹銘說,身為譯者的他, 自主性很高(單德興,2013,126)。這一點還可以從宋淇編譯的《美國詩選》的詩歌選擇上看出。宋子江(2018)認為,在《美國詩選》中沒有明顯以政治為主題的詩作,這與宋淇新古典主義詩學中去政治化的意識形態有關(106)。宋淇較為全面地呈現了美國詩歌經典,並未以現代為標榜,因而之後在港臺和大陸多次重印,受到了翻譯家王佐良的高度肯定(宋子江,2018,115)。

2.2 宋淇譯著、譯論及翻譯相關活動(1968年之後)

宋淇專門論述翻譯問題的著作和文章主要發表於進入香港中文大學工作之後,他在這一時間出版的專門討論翻譯的著作有《林以亮論翻譯》(1974)《紅樓夢西遊記:細評〈紅樓夢〉新英譯》(1976)《文學與翻譯》(1984)。宋淇討論翻譯問題的文章眾多,筆者根據現有資料搜集,剔除重複發表的文章,宋淇所有論述翻譯共計文章 45篇,並對這些文章進行了梳理。[2]

1968 年起宋淇進人香港中文大學專任校長特別助理,在中文大學校外進修部主持高級翻譯文憑課程(Liu, 2001, 115),於 1971 年創辦翻譯研究中心並任主任。1973年,宋淇與高克毅創辦了學術期刊《譯叢》(Renditions),主持出版《譯叢》中譯英半年刊,致力於譯介中國古代和現當代文學藝術,為海內外學界所熟知並促進了中外文化交流。查閱《譯叢》(Renditions) 1973 起的編輯頁發現,宋淇於 1975 到 1982 年期間擔任《譯叢》主編:從 1973 創刊到 1975 年的春季刊,宋淇的名字出現在編輯委員會(Editorial Committee)之中,從 1975 年秋季刊起,宋淇開始擔任執行主編(Executive Editor),直到 1982 年結束。從 1983 到 1984 年,宋淇的角色變為主編(Editor)。於 1976 年起,《譯叢》期刊推出《譯叢叢書》(Renditions Books)[3],其中,由宋淇擔任主編出版的《譯叢叢書》包括中國經典詩詞編譯選集《〈無樂之歌〉——中國詞研究》(Song without Music: Chinese Tz'u Poetry,1980)、《山上的樹:中國新詩選》(Trees on the Mountain: An Anthology of New Chinese Writing,1984)、《知音集:中國詩與詩學》專號(A Brotherhood in Song: Chinese Poetry and Poetics,1985),以及由蒲萊特(Gerald Bullett)所譯的《范成大四時田園雜興》——《豐年五季》(Five Seasons of a Golden Year: A Chinese Pastoral,1980)等[4]。

在這一時期,除上述翻譯相關活動之外,宋淇和余也魯、查良鏞、孫述憲、馬蒙、黃兆傑、賴恬昌等七人於 1971 年署名發起成立香港翻譯學會(Liu, 2001, 63)。翻譯學會成立之初,宋淇先後擔任秘書(1971-1974)、副會長(1974-1976)和會長(1976-1980),組織和協調翻譯學會的相關活動,最初三年的工作主要包括組織翻譯研討會、舉辦午餐例會專題演講、組織《譯訊》出版。這些工作為日後的發展打下了良好的基礎。之後的六年裡,學會相關工作還包括出版專著,協助翻譯人員的訓練工作(Liu, 2001, 68)。針對香港地區的翻譯問題,在成立之初的 1971 到 1981 年,香港翻譯學會分別於 1972 年、1973 年、1976 年、1980 年和 1981 年組織翻譯研討會。宋淇後人還設立了 "宋淇翻譯研究論文紀念獎" [5],以獎勵海內外華人學者從事具有原創性的翻譯研究。

綜上,宋淇在譯作、譯論、翻譯書刊編輯、翻譯教學和翻譯研究等方面都有所建

樹,他竭力提升翻譯水準,推動香港地區翻譯事業的發展,促進中外文化的交流。下 文重點分析並總結宋淇的翻譯思想,對於其具體譯作的分析將另文展開。

三、宋淇的翻譯思想

宋淇探討翻譯問題的文章散見於各種期刊、文集及譯作的序跋等處,涉及翻譯的方方面面,筆者根據現有資料進行整理並對其翻譯思想進行了分類,主要包括翻譯的原則、翻譯的方法、譯者的條件和主體性、可譯性與不可譯性、翻譯的作用和重要性、翻譯教學與研究等六個方面。

3.1 翻譯的原則

宋淇關於文學翻譯的論述尤多。他認為文學作品的翻譯應當遵循一定的原則,可以總結如下。

(1)翻譯的最高權威和唯一依據是原作

宋淇將原作與翻譯者的關係比喻為樂譜與演奏者或指揮家,譯者同演奏者和指揮家一樣,其任務"只不過盡他們的能力加以解釋"。他提出,文學作品翻譯的最高權威是"原作"(林以亮,1984,108),因而,譯者不能根據自己的喜好和主觀的判斷對原作進行增刪或修改。譯者的主體性如果發揮過度,則會偏離原作,應盡量避免(林以亮,1987,124)。另外,宋淇還提出,在翻譯文學作品時,譯者需要具備三種態度:忠貞的品質、縱覽全域的氣派,以及謙虛的態度(林以亮,1974,102)。筆者認為,第一和第三種態度與此處以原作為權威的原則一致,即譯者須尊重原作的權威,而第二種態度則屬於具體的翻譯方法。

(2) 譯者須傳達意旨、境界、風格、神韻和氣魄

宋淇認為,文學翻譯者的責任不僅在於傳達原作的意旨,還要"顧及意旨背後的境界,作者使用文字的風格,可以意會而不可言傳的神韻、氣魄等抽象概念"(林以亮,1984,108)。這一觀點與中國傳統美學中的神韻美相契合,體現了他對中國傳統文學藝術的偏愛。中國傳統的文字、繪畫、書法、音樂等都講究神韻美。中國藝術之神韻美,與中國傳統的美學和哲學思想密不可分。譯者在翻譯時,須傳達原作的意義,在不違背原作的基礎上傳達原作的神髓。

(3)譯作須合乎目的語(到達的語言)的語法和表達習慣,達到原文傳達的效果 宋淇和一同為美國新聞處工作的編輯和譯者相同,都堅持相對歸化的翻譯原則, 他認為,譯作須合乎目的語(到達的語言)的語法,若"到達的語言"是中文,"譯文必 須合乎中文的語法,才能使譯者看得懂、欣賞並且吸收原作的精華"(林以亮,1984, 110)。他堅決反對使用西化的中文,認為這種翻譯方法喪失了中文的獨立性,"在不 知不覺之中破壞了純正的中文,後患無窮"(林以亮,1984,110)。他說,譯者應當 嘗試"自己化身為原作者,設身處地假定原作者生在中國,如果用中文來寫作,他應 該怎樣寫法"(林以亮,1984,122)。

3.2 翻譯的方法

關於宋淇所提出的具體的翻譯方法,可以歸納為以下幾點。

(1) 譯文應不完全照字面、字句結構翻譯,不可只依賴詞典

這一點與前述翻譯原則相吻合。譯文要想符合目的語(到達的語言)的語法和表達習慣,譯者應在翻譯時發揮主體性和創造性,按照需要調整字句,以符合目的語的表達習慣。

他在批評《愛瑪》的譯本時指出,查詢英漢詞典來翻譯是捷徑,但翻譯沒有捷徑可走。在翻譯時,最好整章、整頁進行翻譯,不可拘泥於詞典解釋和字詞。"翻譯應以整句,甚至整節為單位,不應以字和詞為單位,必須先把原文消化、分析、甚至拆開,然後再融合起來。有時顛倒次序,以求合乎中國語法,務必跳出字詞的框框"(宋津,1991,141)。

(2) 直接翻譯行不通或不易於讀者理解時可藉助註解等手段

他在評論涉及文化意象的翻譯時提到,雖然翻譯小說加注解可能打斷讀者一氣呵成的趣味,但是為了達到翻譯的目的,也只好藉助註解的方式(林以亮,1974,95)。他自己在翻譯《攻心記》時就在適當的地方採用了加括弧和按語的方式,以協助一般讀者理解譯文(林以亮,1981)。請見下例:

Brutal descriptions of erotic scenes alternated with whole pages discussions on Husserl, Carnap, and other contemporary philosophers. (Milosz, 1981, 3-4)

一會兒是大膽的色情描寫,低下接著就是成頁討論胡塞爾(近代德國哲學家,現象學之創始者)、卡那潑(近代維也納學派哲學家,認為哲學中形而上學等均不足為憑,唯有邏輯最可憑信)和其他現代哲學家(從以上所舉二人,可以看出現代哲學之傾向之一就是否定心或精神之重要,而在枝節或技術上斤斤計較,結果哲學非但不能代替宗教,反而連一點心靈上的安慰都無法供給)的長篇大論的議論。(米洛茲,1956,11-12)

(3)到達語中缺少的詞彙(包括人名等)可直接譯出涵義

《攻心記》的譯序中宋淇提到,在翻譯的過程中,由於原作中有些特殊名詞中文中沒有對應的詞彙,只能按照詞彙的意義直接翻譯,"因為音譯(即使加上注解)毫無意義可言,其中如'萬事靈'和'口是心非學'即是"(林以亮,1981)。

再如,宋淇在《〈海上花〉的英譯本》中提到,張愛玲在翻譯中文人名時,基於之前的翻譯經驗,將外國讀者受不了的中國姓名"三字經"根據名字的意義來翻譯,如將趙樸齊譯為 Simplicity,將洪善卿譯為 Benevolence。宋淇對這種譯法欣然讚同,認為這種譯法更容易使英語讀者接受。他同時提到霍克思對《紅樓夢》人名也採取了類似譯法,如將丫環平兒譯為 Patience,紫鵑譯為 Nightingale 等(林以亮,1987,78)。

(4) 英譯中時"四字真言"可恰當運用

宋淇認為,中國文言中的"四字真言"若"用得恰到好處"(林以亮,1984,116),可以達到比較好的效果,應該在白話文中保存。他說的"四字真言",就是中文近乎文言的四字詞,並不一定是成語。由於從小受到傳統的中國文化教育,他對中國語言文

字極為看重: "我們一定要把母語鍾煉成為最富於表現力、字彙豐富、活潑生動的語言,使我們身為子女的人都覺得驕傲"(林以亮,1974,126)。與白話文相比,文言文更能體現中國傳統文化的含蓄內斂和優雅深刻。由此可見宋淇對中國傳統語言和文化的重視。

3.3 譯者的條件和主體性

来淇在《翻譯的理論與實踐》中通過總結林語堂和莎弗萊(Theodore H. Savory)的觀點,認為一個翻譯者所應具有的條件有三個:(一)對原作的把握;(二)對本國文字的操縱能力;(三)經驗加上豐富的想像力。並指出,對於翻譯詩歌而言,想像力是最重要的品質,但對於其他文學作品的翻譯,則無須這樣嚴格要求(林以亮,1969,70)。

在《文學作品的翻譯》一文中,宋淇又對此加以補充,認為除了語言方面的能力之外,譯者還應具備三個條件:一、常識(common sense),二、判斷力(sense),三、敏感(sensibility)(林以亮,1974,102)。在文章中他指出,這三個條件其實是比較微妙的。筆者將這三個條件和宋淇在《翻譯的理論與實踐》所總結的三個條件總結歸類如下:(一)對原作的把握;(二)對兩種語言的操縱能力和敏感度;(三)經驗;(四)常識和判斷力;(五)豐富的想像力。

關於譯者的主體性,即主觀能動性,宋淇雖然沒有明確提出這個概念,但在他的 譯論中,不時出現關於發揮譯者主體性的表述。如他指出,翻譯時需發揮"譯者的判 斷力和創造力來選擇,甚至創造一種特殊的文體與傳達原作的精神和風格"(林以亮, 1969,88)。

關於譯者主體性的發揮,他在各種譯論中列舉過很多失敗的譯例。比如他曾批評章理翻譯《源氏物語》時主觀性強, "將書中描述的繁文縟節刪去不說,原作暗中交代或沒有交代的地方,他卻大加發揮,添寫了不少章節,實犯翻譯的大忌,不足為法。"而豐子愷的譯文"半文半白……和歌不是譯為五絕,就是謅成七言詩兩句,不中不和"(林以亮,1987,124)。

綜上,宋淇強調對原作的把握是第一位的,即對原作要有謙虛和忠誠的態度,在 此基礎上,通過自身的語言能力、經驗、判斷力、想像力、創造力等綜合作用的發 揮,才可能譯出較為滿意的作品。

3.4 可譯性與不可譯性

宋淇認為, "嚴格說來,翻譯是不可能的"(林以亮,1969,79)。但他同時又說,文學作品是可以翻譯的,不但是可以翻譯的,而且可以翻譯得好,可以翻譯得合乎中文的語法(林以亮,1984,112)。這看似矛盾的觀點其實並不矛盾。因為兩種觀點的依據側重點不同,他所說的翻譯不可能指的是除了字面上的意義之外,翻譯還涉及至少兩種文化、傳統和感情的成份,以及其他的聯想和意義,這些往往是無法翻譯的(林以亮,1974,117)。宋淇指出,也許一種語言在另一種語言中很多詞彙或用法找不到完全對應的說法,但"只要肯多花點心思,至少可以找到相當接近的表達方

式"(林以亮,1984,110)。

此外他認為,所謂"直譯"和"意譯"之爭並無意義可言。不管"直譯"和"意譯"的成份分別有多少,好的翻譯總是可以達成,但必須合乎譯入語的語法和表達習慣。因為語言文字不是死板的,而是靈活的,因而成功的翻譯總是可以達成(林以亮,1969,80)。

3.5 翻譯的作用及重要性

翻譯的重要性和翻譯對社會所起的作用,也是宋淇在論述翻譯的文章中反復強調的話題:"'賽先生'和'德先生'固不必說",五四運動"其本身為一個完全受翻譯影響的運動,也是無可否認的事實"(林以亮,1974,98)。而五四前後的翻譯活動,"其對中國文化所產生的影響之深且巨,也可以說史無前例"(唐文冰,1952b,23)。新文化運動和五四運動前後的譯介活動為中國社會帶來了巨大變化。宋淇生活的時代深受這些變化影響,社會動蕩、各種意識形態衝突,他非常關注中國的翻譯問題,尤其是在南遷香港之後,他就和翻譯事業結下了不解之緣。

關於翻譯的作用,他認為,翻譯首先是訓練思想最好的工具。因為在翻譯的過程中,譯者需要盡力找尋相對的,比較最能表達原來意義的字眼。"在找尋這最合適的字眼時的一番比較,分析,和掂稱分兩的工作就是一個最嚴格的科學訓練"(唐文冰,1952b,22)。他指出,只有通過翻譯,才能真正徹底地瞭解原作。同時認為,翻譯最重要的功用是促進文化的交流和社會的進步和現代化,是促進世界各國文化交流最好的媒介(唐文冰,1952b,23)。

他痛心於當時社會對翻譯的輕視,並指出,"到現在為止,翻譯仍沒有發展成為一種專門的學問。社會方面也沒有認識到翻譯的重要和給予翻譯以及從事翻譯工作者應得的地位及尊重。有很多有志於此道者每每感覺到不知從何處入手之苦"(宋淇,1969,3)。他認為,第一流的翻譯家就是最好的國民外交家,他們的功績絲毫不在駐外大使之下(林以亮,1987,124)。在《現代譯壇的新方向》中,宋淇指出,"翻譯家的地位越來越重要,成為親善大使,對促進國家和民族之間的溝通,厥功至偉"(林以亮,1984,173)。他在文中對傅雷、楊絳、林文月等對中國翻譯事業做出突出貢獻的翻譯家大加讚賞;但同時指出,社會對翻譯仍舊不夠重視,缺乏全盤計畫,世界經典名著的譯本陣容不完整。"五十年來,一般讀者始終無緣見到世界文學的全貌。我們的荷馬、維吉爾,我們的但丁、喬叟、密爾頓的譯本在什麼地方?"(林以亮,1984,176)。

基於這樣的思想和想要改變現狀的理想,宋淇一生都孜孜不倦地為香港地區的翻譯事業和中外文化的交流而努力。他同當時許多心懷救亡圖存的仁人志士一樣,認為翻譯事業的進步能夠促進國家的興盛、文明的延續和文化的溝通。

3.6 翻譯教學與研究

宋淇非常關注翻譯的教育問題,並身體力行地努力開創香港地區的翻譯專業和學位課程。香港中文大學翻譯系成立於 1972 年,是亞洲院校最早成立的翻譯系,成立

之初只提供副修課程。^[6]陳德鴻在訪談中談到 1981 年左右的情景:"當時宋淇在香港特別開創了一個兩年的翻譯兼讀課程。那時候沒有翻譯的學士學位,雙語研究的學位也沒有……我是第二屆的學生,同學裡有何偉傑等人,接下來還辦了幾屆後來香港就開始有翻譯學士課程了"(單德興,2015,178)。而後,香港中文大學於 1984 年設立亞洲第一個翻譯學授課型兼讀制碩士學位,1994 年設立翻譯專業學士學位。^[7]因而可以說,宋淇開創了香港地區乃至中國翻譯學士課程的先河。而反觀中國大陸,2006 年才開始有三所高校設置翻譯本科專業(馬會娟,2017,104)。

關於翻譯教學,宋淇認為,應當從中學開始教授翻譯課程,因為這也是人文教育的一部分,屬於通才教育。他在文章中提到,"如果學生在中學時,對翻譯已經打好了根底,就可以免讀這一年基本課程,而把這時間多讀高深翻譯課程,畢業時變得更有經驗、更有可能成為專門人才"(林以亮,1974,149)。

他在文中詳細說明當時翻譯課程不受重視的問題,主要包括師資、教材兩方面, 並提供了實施翻譯教育的以下幾個方法:

第一,翻譯課程不妨在中四開始,因為到了中四時,學生對中文和英文已經有了基本的認識,中一時未免太早了一點。

第二,覓得適當的師資。他們必須受過專門訓練,而且能自立門戶。

第三, 準備好合平中學應用的教材。

第四,最後選幾所中文中學和英文中學試辦翻譯課程兩年。(林以亮,1974,150-151) 我們可以從宋淇這些對於翻譯教育的觀點看到其超前性和開創性。宋淇將翻譯課程視 為通識課程,認為學習翻譯同學習生物學等類似,可以增加中學生的常識(林以亮, 1974,149)。他基於香港的雙語現狀,提倡於中四開始教授翻譯課程,並需基於良 好的師資和教材,而不是盲目從中一就開始教授翻譯。這個觀點到現在來看仍是超前 的,據筆者查閱香港中學文憑科目得知,目前香港中學仍未設置翻譯課程。[8]

由此可見,除譯作、譯論之外,宋淇在翻譯書刊編輯、翻譯教學與研究、翻譯理論探討方面都頗有建樹,他始終不遺餘力地提升翻譯教學和研究水平,以開創性的舉動推動了香港地區翻譯事業的發展,為中國的翻譯教育和翻譯事業的推進曾做出突出貢獻。

四、結論

宋淇曾為香港地區的文化交流、文學和翻譯事業做出重要貢獻:其在美國新聞處的翻譯組織工作為推動美國文化和文學的宣傳發揮了關鍵作用;他發起成立香港翻譯學會並組織翻譯學會研討會,創辦和主編《譯叢》期刊,為中國文學和文藝走出國門發揮了不可磨滅的作用。本文首先對宋淇譯介生涯進行綜述,較為全面地呈現了其翻譯思想和翻譯相關活動的全貌。在當時香港地區較為自由的政治環境下,宋淇將國家、民族和個人命運同翻譯事業相結合,從翻譯理論、翻譯實踐、翻譯組織活動到翻譯教學和研究,在整個翻譯領域都有所建樹,開創了中國翻譯史上的多個先河。他致力於中外文化溝通和文藝交流的實踐工作,展現了對於翻譯事業的熱忱和香港南來文

人的家國情懷。

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注釋

- [1] 關於這一情況,宋淇後來回憶: "在任內我大事提高稿費五、六倍,戔戔之數永遠請不動好手。找到合適的書後,我先後請到夏濟安、夏志清、徐誠斌主教(那時還沒有去義大利攻讀神學)、湯新楣等名家助陣"(張愛玲、宋淇、宋鄺文美,2010,5)。
- [2] 具體信息請見附錄二。
- [3] 關於宋淇和高克毅二人合作編輯《譯叢叢書》的詳情,宋淇在《文學與翻譯》一書的《〈豐年五季〉的意外收穫》一文中層這樣寫道:我將以上的想法寫信詳告駐在美國的高克毅,他同我合力負責《譯叢叢書》的策劃和編輯,一向事事細商(林以亮,1984,128)。
- [4] 此書於 1982 年獲得美國大學出版社協會的優良製作與設計獎,並在美國大學出版社年會中展出。
- [5] http://cuhk.edu.hk/rct/ts/soong_awards.html
- [6] http://traserver.tra.cuhk.edu.hk/en/about.php?id=19
- [7] http://traserver.tra.cuhk.edu.hk/en/about.php?id=19
- [8] https://www.hkeaa.edu.hk/tc/hkdse/assessment/subject_information/

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附錄一:宋淇譯著總結

年份	題目	編譯者	出版社	英文書名	作者	備註
1954	《自由與文化》(翻譯)	林以亮	香港:人生出版社	Freedom and Culture	John Dewey	〈譯者的話〉林 以亮,頁 1-13;與 婁貽哲合譯
1956	《 <i>攻心記</i> 》(翻譯)	余懷	香港:火炬編譯社	The Captive Mind	Czesław Miłosz	Czesław Miłosz 獲諾貝爾文學獎 之後,1981 年《 <i>攻</i> 心記》由臺北皇 冠出版社再版, 譯文與火炬編譯 社 1956 年譯本相 較有所改動
1957	《 <i>與仁領重臨</i> 記》(翻譯)	林以亮		Brideshead revisited: the sacred and profane memories of captain Charles Ryder	Evelyn Waugh	第三章發表於 1957年4月《文 學雜誌》第二卷 第二期,後作為 附錄放在1968年 出版的《 <i>前言與</i> 後語》
1961	《 <i>美國詩選</i> 》 (編譯)	林以亮	香港 :今 日世界 出版社	Anthology of American Poetry		〈序〉,頁 1-6; 林以亮、余光中、 邢光祖、梁實秋、 夏菁譯
1961	《美國文學批評選》(編譯)	林以亮	香港:今 日世界 出版社	Anthology of American Literary Criticism		〈序〉 拜1-4;夏濟安 第1-4;夏濟文 漢實秋、陳文 思果、余 東京 東京 東京 東京 東京 東京 東京 東京 東京 東京
1967	《 <i>美國現代七</i> 大小說家》 (翻譯)	William Van O'Connor	香港 :今 日世界 出版社	Seven Modern American Novelists		林以亮、於梨華、 張愛玲、葉珊譯

附錄二:宋淇譯論總結

題目	著者名	著作名	年份及出版社	備註
論翻譯之難	唐文冰	《 <i>今日世界</i> 》第 三期 1952/4/15	1952 美國新聞處	18-19 (與 《 <i>林以亮</i> <i>佚文集</i> 》中 的同名文 章相比有 刪節)
論翻譯之重要	唐文冰	《 <i>今日世界</i> 》第 七期 1952/6/15		22-23
譯者的話	林以亮	《自由與文化》	1954 香港:人生出 版社	1-13
宋淇序	宋淇		1969	3-8
翻譯的理論與實踐	林以亮	《翻譯縱橫談》	香港辰衝圖書 公司	67-102
編者的話	宋淇	《翻譯十講》	1969 香港辰衝圖書 公司	1-6
Notes on Translating Poetry	Stephen C.Soong	Renditions 《譯叢》	1973	36-44 (中文版本為《譯詩散論》,問兆祥譯,載于《 <i>林以亮詩話</i> 》)
序(喬志高) 翻譯的理論與實踐 評《傲慢與偏見》的中譯本 顏色的翻譯 文學作品的翻譯 翻譯絕唱 翻譯與社會發展 《戰地春夢》的新譯本 翻譯教學應從什麼階段開始 《紅樓夢》與鴉片煙———個 翻譯上的問題 跋	林以亮	《林以亮論翻譯》	1974 臺北:新潮出 版社	《顧之學 一翻之 一一 《翻譯》 一一 一一 一一 一一 一一 一一 一一 一一 一一 一一 一一 一一 一一

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附錄二:宋淇譯論總結(續)

題目	著者名	著作名	年份	備註
Confessions of a Translation Critic	T. C. Lai	The Art and Profession of Translation	1975 The Hong Kong Translation Society	193-208
自序 喜見紅樓夢新英譯 紅與綠 版本·雙關語·猴 冷笑·稱呼和譯名 口吻 疏忽遺漏 誤譯 寶玉四時即事詩二譯之商権 千錘百煉的譯作	宋淇	《紅樓夢西遊 記:細評〈紅樓 夢〉新英譯》	1976 臺北:臺灣聯 經出版社	
譯詩散論	林以亮	《林以亮詩話》	1976 臺北:洪範書 店有限公司	即〈Notes on Translating Poetry〉中 譯
Two Types of Misinterpretation —Some Poems of <i>Red Chamber Dream</i>	宋淇	Renditions 《譯叢》	1977	
層出不窮的翻譯之道	林以亮	《昨日今日》	1981 臺北:皇冠出 版社	133-140
翻譯的理論與實踐 顏色的翻譯	林以亮	《翻譯論集》編者為劉靖之	1981 香港:三聯書 店有限公司	83-111 213-217
譯序	林以亮	《攻心記》	1981 臺北:皇冠出 版社	譯 序: 15-24
文學作品譯法舉隅 現代譯壇的新方向	林以亮	《翻譯叢論》編者為宋淇	1983 香港:中文大 學出版社	51-66 151-158

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附錄二:宋淇譯論總結(續)

題目	著者名	著作名	年份	備註
喬志高序				
翻譯的理論與實踐				
評《傲慢與偏見》的中譯本				
文學作品的翻譯				
《戰地春夢》的新譯本			1984	
文學作品的譯法舉隅	林以亮	《文學與翻譯》	臺北:皇冠出	
《豐年五季》的意外收穫			版社	
拜倫《唐璜》獻詞四節三譯的				
商権	-			
現代譯壇的新方向	-			
後記				
 	朴川亭		1986	林以亮主
曲高和眾	林以亮	《四海集》	臺北:皇冠出 版社	編
			1987	
《海上花》的英譯本	林以亮	 《 <i>更上一層樓</i> 》	臺北:九歌出	林以亮
翻譯和國民外交			版社	
			1991	125 147
為珍·奧斯丁叫屈——談改譯	宋淇	《翻譯新論集》	香港:商務印	135-147 編者為劉
和抄譯	小 浜		書館(香港)	端 石 <i>河</i> 動 靖之
			有限公司	-/1/
談談詩和譯詩的方法——讀				93-101
《古歌試譯》後				75-101
論翻譯之難	林以亮	林以亮 《 林以亮佚文 集》	2001 香港:皇冠出 版社	102-112
曲高和眾				317-336
翻譯·幽默林·語堂				354-357
夏志清譯白先勇的《謫仙記》	1			377-379
	1			

課堂討論中漢詩英譯的方方面面

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Chinese Poetry in Classroom." Translation Quarterly 100: 59-68.

Abstract

Aspects of Discussing the English Translation of Classical Chinese Poetry in Classroom (by Xiaolong Qiu)

Translating classic Chinese poems into English is an important part of introducing Chinese culture to the world. The effort has made headway in recent years, but it is a complicated, multifaceted project, involving a number of interrelated aspects. The present paper evolves around one of the primary aspects, i.e. how to be creatively faithful in rendering classic Chinese poems into readable, contemporary English rather than to muddle along with the so-called poetic form translation at the expense of the meaning in the original text as pursued by some translators, which is not helpful to cultural exchange and mutual understanding in this global age. The discussion also explores a possible integration of the two linguistic sensibilities with an enlarged horizon of cultural understanding through translation.

因爲疫情,我最近在網上爲廣西大學的學生講了一門漢詩英譯課。詩歌翻譯課不好上,特別需要師生間一起進行的細讀和互動,缺乏面對面的交流,授網課時擔心會事倍功半。不過,學生們都十分積極地參與課堂討論,對詩歌翻譯提出了種種自己的觀點和見解,有不少對我其實頗具啓發。

漢詩英譯是需涉及到許多不同方面的復雜工程,不同方面中還可分出不同層面。像美國詩人龐德在那篇題爲"意象主義者幾個不"(裘小龍,1986,152-156)的宣言中所做的那樣,我們第一堂課要探討的就是:在漢詩英譯中,哪些方面是我們能做得到、也在一定程度上能做得好的,哪些是做不到的、或者說是很難做得好的?說到底,在翻譯中國古典詩歌的時候,負責任的翻譯者應該知道自己要做什麼,能做什麼,不能做什麼,再努力去做什麼。

英國著名作家 E. M. Foster 寫過一本《小說面面談》(Aspects of The Novel)。漢詩英

譯也不妨作面面談,這樣或能談得透一些,做得好一些。在詩歌翻譯時,我們首先要做、也能做的一個方面,是要把原詩說了什麼再現到譯詩中去。毋庸置疑,詩歌不僅僅在於說什麼,也在於怎樣說。這裏比較復雜,涉及到譬如中國傳統詩論中所講的意境、神韵、境界、情趣等等。詩無達詁,也涉及到作爲讀者/譯者對原詩說了什麼的不同理解和闡釋。因此先稍稍界定一下,這裏要探討的是:怎樣把人們一般所接受的原詩意義內容,忠實、全面、感性地在譯詩中傳達出來。

關於詩歌翻譯,無論有什麼理論、原則、主張,"信"不可或缺。皮之不存,毛將 焉附。十餘年前,陸谷孫先生爲我編譯的中國古典詩歌翻譯集子寫過一篇序,其中說 到,"譯文最大的特點是直白,忠實於原文,力戒藻繪發揮連'蠟炬成灰淚始幹'一句 中的'灰'字也照樣譯做'ashes'。大家知道蠟燭燃盡成燭油(wax)而並不化作灰燼,裘 譯雖悖生活原貌,却以'灰'字的各種凄慘聯想盡現原詩的情貌,不由得你不接受這種 譯法。五味雖甘,寧先稻黍,應當說把原詩的本體意象如實傳達,對外國讀者是尤爲 對路的譯法,深受中國古詩意象激發靈感的 Ezra Pound 等大家也說過類似的話。"(裘 小龍,2003,2)陸先生亦是同樣的意思,與此同時,也又涉及到詩歌翻譯中的又一 層面,即在不同的語言中會有不同的聯想意義和字面意義,或可以說是到了目標文本 中,也要去盡力融合不同詩歌語言中的感性。顯然,漢詩英譯中還有許多其他方面, 需要我們一面面、一步步去探索。

只是,就漢詩英譯翻譯而言,忠實於原文的意義還有感性却是說起來容易做起來 難的事,因爲這同時也牽涉到許多其它的方方面面。中英這兩種語言的不同,文化的 不同,詩歌傳統的不同,更爲譯者帶來了許多困難和障礙。

先從最淺顯、也是最基本的一個層面說起。中國古典詩歌的形式獨特,語言簡潔凝練,却意味深長,耐人尋繹。一行詩通常只由五或七字組成,一首詩也就四行或八行。在國內漢詩英譯界中,這些年占主流的是"詩體翻譯",即一行對一行譯,行末押韵。不過詩體翻譯這一概念其實混淆不清。既然說詩體,就應該是與漢詩格律相對應的詩體,但中國古典詩詞講平仄,英語中沒有平仄的概念,不可能把漢語中的"音樂性"或"音韵美"在英語中對應。有譯者另闢蹊徑,用英詩中按重輕音音節排列的音步格律(foot)來對應,雖說不少詩體譯者在這樣做時,似乎既不顧、也不數音步。他們僅僅是機械地押韵,仿佛只要一"韵"到底,四行或八行,就成了詩體翻譯。這難免貽笑大方,也多少有自欺欺人之嫌。

再進一步說,舉英詩中最常見的抑揚格五音步 (iambic pentameter) 爲例,我們能不能用抑揚格五音步,把原詩五言或七言的意義內容不增不刪、一丁點兒都不打折扣地這樣"詩體"翻譯過來?一個英語單詞可能會有三到四個音節,一音步由不同輕重音節組合而成,五音步一行一般也就只有五六個英語單詞(還要考慮到不具意義的冠詞,在英語裏也得作爲音節算進去)。在翻譯時,或許會有個別一兩行,碰巧凑成抑揚格五音步,甚至還勉强押上了韵,但就整首詩來說,這樣的可能性幾乎絕無僅有。於是就出現了種種問題和弊病。其實,早在1948年,呂叔湘先生就在他編選的《英華集》(後改名爲《中詩英譯比錄》)中就作了精闢的概括:"以詩體譯詩之弊,約有三端。一日趁韵……二日顛倒詞語以求協律……三日增刪及更易原詩意義……前兩種

病,中外惡詩所同有,初無間于創作與翻譯。第三種病,則以詩體譯詩尤易犯之,雖高手如 Giles 亦所不免。"(呂叔湘,1980,9-10)

詩體翻譯同樣還有一個歷時性的問題。像抑揚格音步這樣的詩歌格律(versification),現當代英美詩人中已很少有人還在這樣寫了,至少再也不是詩壇主流。押韵一般只出現在兒歌或打油詩中。如果我們的翻譯家是在十九世紀從事漢詩英譯的工作,倒也情有可原,可到了二十一世紀,爲什麼還一定要逆流而上,發思古之幽情,用今天很少人在讀的"詩體"來譯呢?著名英國批評家利維斯(F.R.Leavis)就一再强調詩要使用"活生生的語言"(living language),這與我們五四時期的詩人要寫白話詩是一樣的道理。當然,詩體翻譯家們有他們自己的理論,最具代表性的或許是許淵沖先生的"三美論":詩體翻譯要"意美、音美、形美"。

這裏還有要注意的一點是,英語詩體的音韵格律遠不是那麼容易掌握的。美國漢學家司麗竹(Julie Sullivan)在一篇討論漢詩英譯的文章中說,"當譯者(幾乎總是一個非母語使用者)用英語的音韵格律來譯詩,譯文中的意義不得不被扭曲,常常是面目全非,離譜得讓人都無法辨讀。結果無可避免地成了打油詩之類的玩意兒。"(Sullivan 2021)情况也確實如此,如果譯者真能嫻熟地運用英語詩體,把原詩的內容在譯詩中明白無誤地再現,自也無可厚非,但真能做到嗎?摩娜·凡丹(Mona Van Dunn),美國第一個桂冠女詩人,也是新形式主義流派的領軍人物,曾對我說過,格律體在英美詩歌界現在鮮有人寫了,非母語詩人一定要勉强,難免畫虎不成反類犬。她說的是寫詩,詩體譯詩其實更難,因爲譯者必須要忠于原文,一味要凑韵或協律,把原詩的意義改得"面目全非",這是不能原諒的。

也難怪,這些年來的詩體翻譯帶來了一個費解的現象,漢詩英譯集子在國內出版的不少,在國外的書店中却始終不見踪影。像有些評論者所說的,成了關起門來"自娛自樂"的游戲。我們翻譯中國古典詩歌是爲了不懂中文的的讀者,結果却還是走不出去。因此,是不是要在國內的一些詩體翻譯論述與實踐中尋找原因——是不是這些翻譯如此偏離、扭曲了原詩的意義內容,成了人們都讀不下去的文字?

爲了這堂課充分展開討論,我們用 PPT 貼上一首中文原詩,下面再附上一首嚴重 丟失、背叛了原詩意蘊的英譯。這部分多取例於許淵沖先生的譯作。許先生在國內年 輕學生中擁有不少擁躉,都相當熟悉他的"意美、音美、形美"的翻譯詩論和實踐。 他高齡,依然筆耕不綴,一本接一本地出詩歌翻譯集子,精神十分可嘉。不過,按照 新批評派的觀點,我們却只能就文本論文本,尤其是考慮到這些年漢詩英譯所遭遇的 瓶頸。

通過對許先生的譯文文本的細讀,我們再附上這首詩的不同譯文,作爲課堂討論本供大家逐字逐句推敲、比較,進一步研究我們是否能采取不同的翻譯策略,把原詩的意義內容盡可能地在翻譯中再現出來。其實,我們在翻譯時能做的也相當不少。

下面就是我們這樣在網課課堂上討論的幾個例子。

楓橋夜泊 (張繼)

月落烏啼霜滿天,江楓漁火對愁眠。 姑蘇城外寒山寺,夜半鐘聲到客船。

Mooring by Maple Bridge at Night (許譯)

At moonset cry the crows, streaking the frosty sky; Dimly lit fishing boats 'neath maples sadly lie. Beyond the city wall, from Temple of Cold Hill Bells break the ship-borne roamer's dream and midnight still. (許淵沖, 2001, 329)

在許譯的第一行中,streaking 作爲及物動詞的意思是"留下條紋",作爲不及物動詞是"奔駛";那麼,"烏啼"又怎能在有霜的夜空"留下條紋"?匪夷所思。要數音步的話,其實已破格了,還不如把 streaking 改成 against。"江楓漁火對愁眠"的意境居然成了"燭光暗淡的漁船悲哀地泊在楓樹下";"悲哀"不是"愁",而"眠"的意思莫名其妙地失踪了。第三行,"寒山"一般都譯成"cold mountains",許譯成"cold hill",僅僅是爲了與 still 凑韵,而 still 在這裏意思也不對。到最後一行,"鐘聲打斷了船上漂泊者的夢,還有午夜寂靜"。一首七絕四行,每行都錯得離譜。當然,許先生會說他所做的這一切都是爲了"音美、形美",因而比張繼的原詩更"意美"。

Mooring by the Maple Bridge at Night (課堂討論本)

The moon setting, the crow cawing, the frost spreading out against the sky, the maple trees standing along the bank, the fisherman's light moving across the river, who is there, worried even in sleep?

By the Cold Mountain Temple out of Gusu City, a sampan comes in the midnight bells.

(Qiu Xiaolong 2006, 83)

在課堂討論本中,爲了充分表達原詩的意義,原詩的前兩行在英文中分拆成四行半,但移用中國古詩獨特的意象處理手法,用分詞結構把不同的意象放在一起,其間不用任何連接詞,讓讀者自己走入這樣的組合所建構的意境(也可以說是意象叠加成的境界),接著讓 who 開始的一行半引出 "對愁眠"的主句。既然無法在另一種語言中找到詩歌形式上的完全對應,那麼在詩的意義、感性呈現上,我們還是可以做些什麼的。至少也要讓原詩中說什麼,在譯詩中也大體上不增不减地說什麼。爲此,增加了譯詩的行數,改用跨行的安排(enjambment),這同時也是爲了讓譯詩讀起來有英文詩的感性與韵味。在這段後隔開一行,凸顯時空的移動,把鐘聲與客船帶入了夜半的書面。

贈別(杜牧)

娉娉裊裊十三餘,豆蔻梢頭二月初。 春風十里揚州路,卷上珠簾總不如。

At Parting (許譯)

Not yet fourteen, she's fair and slender, Like early budding flower tender. [Though] Yangzhou Road's beyond compare, Pearly screens uprolled, none's so fair. (許淵沖, 2001, 527)

杜牧在前兩行中使用了賦比興中的"興"。在美國詩人龐德(Ezra Pound)看來,這種意象的使用正是西方詩人要向中國古典詩人學的。尤其是他稱作的"意象叠加",即把一個意象與另一個意象、或一個意象與一個陳述放在一起,中間不使用 as 或 like 等連接詞,讓讀者自己進入詩的境界,獲得更豐富、更多義的審美再造經驗。他自己也因此寫出了意象派詩歌中最著名的一首代表作,"地鐵車站":

"In a Station of the Metro" (Ezra Pound)

The apparition of these faces in the crowd:

Petals on a wet, black bough.

"地鐵車站"

人群中這些臉龐的隱現:

濕漉漉、黑黝黝的樹枝上的花瓣。(裘小龍,1986,85)

這裏,龐德詩中陳述叠加意象的次序與杜牧詩中都是一樣的。他從中國古典詩歌的翻譯中學到、運用了這一感性技巧,爲二十世紀初的西方意象主義詩歌劃出了新的地平綫。許先生却在"娉娉裊裊十三餘"與"豆蔻梢頭二月初"之間,强作解人地加了 like,頓時化神奇爲烏有。

至于呂先生所說的"增删及更易原詩意義"在許譯中更是處處可見。一般說來,詩歌中的意象越具體越好,可模糊的 budding flower 不是"豆蔻",也沒有點出時間。tender 只是爲了與 slender 硬凑韵。第三、四行純屬瞎譯,根本不是杜牧所說的意思。倒譯過來,"雖然揚州路無法比擬,/珠簾卷起了,沒有這樣美好的。"從語法上說,none 是代詞,指代前面提到的名詞,而前面只有 Pearly screens。

Parting (課堂討論本)

Slender, supple, she's just thirteen, the tip of a cardamom bud in early spring. Miles and miles along Yangzhou Road, the spring wind keeps flapping up one pearl-woven curtain after another, behind which no one matches her. (Qiu Xiaolong 2006, 121)

課堂討論本的譯詩追求是對原詩感性的忠實,把前面兩行的意象叠加直截了當地移進譯詩,僅僅是因爲農曆二月難以在英文中直譯,改譯成了"早春"。考慮到英文讀者的接受,譯詩也力爭呈現用英文寫成的現代詩歌感性。在英文中,一行一斷的句式讀起來太機械、單調,改成跨行(enjambment),增添延續的感性。這樣既不受限於行數,也能不打折扣地把杜牧筆下的每一個字都翻譯出來,在不同語言的音樂感中舒展開去:"揚州路上,一里接著一里,/春風不停卷起一幅/又一幅珠織的簾子,/簾子後,沒人像她那麼美麗。"

望月懷遠 (張九齡)

海上生明月,天涯共此時。

情人怨遙夜,竟夕起相思。

滅燭憐光滿,披衣覺露滋。

不堪盈手贈,還寢夢佳期。

Looking at the Moon and Longing for One far away (許譯)

Over the sea grows the moon bright;

We gaze on it far, far apart.

Lovers complain of long, long night;

They rise and long for the dear heart.

Candles blown out, fuller is light;

My coat put on, I'm moist with dew.

As I can't hand you moonbeams white,

I go to bed to dream of you. (許淵沖, 2001, 40)

張九齡的起首兩行是名句,可在許譯中"共此時"不見了,而"We gaze on it far, far apart",成了人與月亮之間的距離。這裏的"we (我們)"與第三、四行中的"lovers (情人們)以及"they (他們)"顯然是不同的人。抒情詩多用第一人稱,但在許先生的譯詩中莫名其妙地轉爲第三人稱復數,不解。第六行,"衣服披上了,我身體被露水打濕,同樣違背常識,應該是"衣服被露水打濕了"。第七行的"moonbeams white (月光白)"白得奇峰突起,毫無根據,恐怕又是爲了凑韵,硬刷"白"了。

Thinking of the Man Far Away in the Moonlight (課堂討論本)

The moon rising above the sea we share, far, far away as you are finding yourself. Sad, sleepless, in the long night, in separation, I think of you. The moon so touchingly bright, extinguishing the candle, stepping out, I find the clothes I've just put on wet with dew. Unable to send you a handful of the moonlight, I go back into the room, perhaps able to catch a dream of our reunion. (裘小龍, 2003,7)

在課堂討論本中,原詩的前兩行在翻譯時分拆成了三行,也改成了主從復合句。 爲了把情人相隔天涯却"共此時"的意境盡可能充分地移譯到目標文本中,這裏想方 設法把原詩中組成部分的次序打亂,采用不同的句式、句法、調整詞序,解構了再建 構:"我們共享著海上升起的/明月,儘管這一刻你/相距得如此遙遠。"下面兩行還是 譯成兩行,却成了一個帶前置形容詞與介詞短語的獨立句,"悲傷,無眠,長夜漫漫,/在分離中,我想念你",在音韵處理上則加了 s 與 in 的頭韵。出于同樣的考慮,下面 幾行中也采取較靈活的處理,用英語中的分詞、形容詞短語結構來引出句式的變化。 畢竟,翻譯詩中也要體現英語詩歌的感性音韵——在忠于原詩意義、感性的前提下。

自君之出矣(張九齡)

自君之出矣,不復理殘機。 思君如滿月,夜夜減清輝

Since My Lord from Me Parted (許譯)

Since my lord from me parted, I've left unused my loom. The moon wanes, broken-hearted To see my growing gloom. (許淵沖, 2001, 43)

張九齡這首詩的中心意象是明月,末兩行尤其優美而貼切,在修辭學上也可以說是延伸的比喻:不僅僅是明月,還是因爲"思君"而憔悴、失色的月亮。像這樣構思精妙的意象,老老實實直譯到英語中就行了,但許譯是: "看到我越來越深的憂鬱,/月缺了,心碎了。" "憂鬱"或許不能說是無中生有,但讓月亮看到我這樣而心碎,實屬畫蛇添足;而 broken-hearted 在英語中系陳詞濫調,在詩中忌用。最糟的是,譯詩偏偏丟掉了原詩的核心: "思君",且不要說 "夜夜"了。

Since You Left Home (課堂討論本)

The half-woven cloth has hung untouched on the loom since you left home.

Missing you Lam

Missing you, I am like the fair moon

waning, night after night. (裘小龍, 2003, 3)

課堂討論本基本上是直譯,但對"殘機"作了些創造性闡釋:如果織機壞了,詩中的說話者自然不會去織,于是處理成了機上的"殘織",只是她無心再織下去。爲了凸現意象,第一行是長句,下面的詩行越來越短,在音韵節奏上有機地反襯原詩中滿月"减輕輝"的意蘊,有點像 E.E.Cummings "形體詩" (concrete poetry), 跨行的句式也試圖折射出纏綿不斷却漸漸低落的情感。

黃鶴樓送孟浩然之廣陵 (李白)

故人西辭黃鶴樓,烟花三月下揚州。 孤帆遠影碧空盡,唯見長江天際流

Seeing Meng Haoran off at Yellow Crane Tower (許譯)

My friend has left the west where the Yellow Crane towers For River Town veiled in green willow and red flowers. His lessening sail is lost in the boundless blue sky, Where I see but the endless River rolling by. (許淵沖, 2001, 143)

許譯的第一行中,towers 是動詞,這樣一來,left the west where the Yellow Crane towers 難道是"離開黃鶴聳立的西方"?第二行中,"三月"消失了,"揚州"成了"江城","紅花"只是爲了凑韵,大紅大綠,少說也是破壞了原詩的色彩感,成了"蒙著綠柳、紅花的面紗的江城"?第三行中 lessening sail 是"孤帆"?第四行中 Where 引出的是修飾上面 sky 的從句,是"天空中我見到不盡的長江流過"?許先生的英文應該不至於差到這個地步,或許,還是因爲給詩體翻譯誤了。只是再"音美、形美",也不能把李白的天空也誤了。

Farewell to Men Haoran leaving for Guangling (課堂討論本)

Leaving the Yellow Crane Pavilion,
you set out to the east,
to Yangzhou, the mist covering
the water, the flowers making
a blaze of March colors
against a single sail
fading into the blue, distant skies...
Only waves of the Yangtze River
come in sight, rolling toward the horizon. (Qiu Xiaolong 2007, 45)

關於李白這首詩的譯文本,課堂討論中具體談了幾個問題:詩中的"西辭"其實 是東去"揚州",不能譯錯方向,但肯定不是"黃鶴聳立的西方";詩中一些專用名詞 不妨實譯,"揚州"一詞在這裏有特定內涵,譯成(River Town)不妥;"烟花三月"這四字在譯文中分拆成三行譯,用了兩個分詞結構,是爲了要把原詩潜在、可能的含義都譯出來,自然也要把"三月"譯出(這裏說的是陰曆三月,如譯成陽曆四月,在英語中可能會有延伸聯想);最後兩行另起一段列,表示詩人久久伫立,悵望友人的遠去,有一個時間流逝的過程。漢詩英譯,有時還真需要把原詩意義內容的不同組成部分解構了,搬到另外一個空間形式中,重新建構起來。

靜夜思(李白)

床前明月光,疑是地上霜。 舉頭望明月,低頭思故鄉。

Thoughts on a Tranquil Night (許譯)

Before my bed a pool of light—
Can it be hoar-frost on the ground?
Looking up, I find the moon bright;
Bowing, in homesickness I'm drowned. (許淵沖, 2001, 141)

美國漢學家 Julie Sullivan 在批評許的這首譯詩時指出,"詩裏其實沒人被月光淹死了 (drowned)"。這有點尖刻,許其實是說詩人淹沒在鄉愁中,不過,確實用詞誇張過度,破壞了原詩自然渾成的感性意境;至於她說 Bowing 是給人做恭打揖,還真有這歧義,完全可以換一個字來譯,這與燕卜遜所講的詩歌含混意義(ambiguity)毫無關係。話說回來,drowned一字對許先生是別無選擇,他必須要趁韵。

Night Thought (課堂討論本)

The bright moonlight in front of the bed appears like frost on the ground. I look up at the fair moon, and lowering my head,
I think of home (Qiu Xiaolong 2007, 43)

"靜夜思"被論者譽爲"妙絕古今",語言質樸清新,渾然而成,所謂通篇"無意於 工而無不工者"。譯詩只需、也只能這樣自然、明瞭地再現原詩的意境,忠實地把每 一個字譯出即可。譯詩中大量使用了單音節詞,也是要呈現一種白話似的節奏感,與 詩的意義內容與感性構成有機對應。

通過在課堂上對這些譯詩的討論,大家進一步看到,漢詩英譯是一門復雜、多方面的工程。在翻譯的過程中,忠實於原詩的意義內容,是我們首先要去努力做的一個方面,雖然要這樣做並不容易。自然,還有許多方面,我們同時也要注意到。西方現當代哲學中有一種相對主義的論點,即什麼都只能是相對的。這對於詩歌翻譯來說或許也是如此。詩無違點,詩歌的意義本來就是在讀者、譯者的閱讀、闡釋的過程中產

生的,不可能有最終的翻譯,譯詩也因此會出現無窮的可能性。不過,在美國當代分析哲學家 Richard Rorty 看來,再怎麼相對,還是有些人們一般都接受的標準。(Rorty 1989)因此,在翻譯中忠於原詩——人們大多數認可的原詩意義內容與感性——還是可能的,也是必須的。

可在現實中,却有許多因素不讓我們去這樣做,尤其是在課堂上討論的這些漢詩 英譯實踐中。

其中的一個因素,恐怕還得歸咎於國內一些詩體翻譯家的理論和實踐。從一個角度去看,或許是因爲不同的譯者對漢詩英譯的策略有不同的選擇、取捨,這可以理解,但如果要這樣偏執地堅持追求形式、音韵上的對應,明知其不可爲而爲之,結果犧牲了"信";從另一角度去看,一些譯者可能是沒有功力把原詩的意義內容譯出,只能瞎譯一氣,拉幾片似是而非的理論大旗,來遮蓋不忍卒讀的翻譯。這樣一來,自欺欺人,嚴重誤導國內外的讀者,讓人們讀到的中國古典詩歌難以想像地失真走樣,毫無文學水準的作品,也讓一些年輕譯者誤以爲這是一種可以接受、也值得追求的翻譯中國古典詩歌的方式。這與向世界介紹中國古典文學的目標背道而馳,對我們講中國故事,讓中國文學走出去的努力顯然是不利的。

當然,怎樣忠實於原詩的意義內容,只是漢詩英譯面面談這門課程中所談的一個方面,還有不少其它的方面要繼續談。

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Images of National Politics: English Translation and Reception of Yan Lianke's Fiction

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Abstract

This article combines translation and image to explore the paratextual and textual mediation in the English translation of political issues underpinning Yan Lianke's fiction Wei Renmin Fuwu 為人民服務 (2005) and its English translation, Serve the People!. By examining the constructed images of national politics in the English translation of Yan's Serve the People!, this article aims to demonstrate how the lingering stereotypes towards Communist China enter into the textual and paratextual representation of Chinese politics. It argues that the projection of the political images of China within Western literary criticism, the paratexts and the translated text of Yan's Serve the People! coherently shows a tendency to frame Chinese communist politics as problematic and oppressive with a selective focus on political censorship, corruption and repression.

1. Introduction

Translation of politics constitutes an important vantage point for looking at the interaction between translation and image since the transfer of politics through translation across geopolitical borders unavoidably includes the representations of political images. The act of translation is not innocent but "located in a specific sociocultural and ideological setting" (Munday 2006, 195). The selection of works for translation, the actual translation process and the reception of translations are constrained by images of the other (Soenen 1992; Kuran-Burçoğlu 2000). With regard to these images, including political images of the other, translation ine-

vitably engages in a partial representation, which may tone down, highlight or even change certain national political aspects in the source texts, ending up replicating and reinforcing the established images or even stereotypes of their national politics in the target culture.

This mutual influence between image and translation of politics provides a starting point for this article to explore the representations of Communist China in the translation and reception of contemporary Chinese literature in the West. For this aim, the present study will take Yan Lianke's *Wei Ren Min Fu Wu* 為人民服務 (2005) and its English translation *Serve the People!* (2007) as an illustrative case study. It will explore how the social-political issues addressed in the source text are treated by the paratexts and the English translation, with the purpose of revealing the lingering presence of the predominated images of "Threatening China" and "Uncivilized China" in the textual and paratextual projection of China's political images in the West.

The rational to choose the translation *Serve the People!* for the present study is three-fold. Firstly, it is a watershed translation that has witnessed the recognition of Yan Lianke in the international literary field, which provides fertile ground for a translation and reception study. As early as 1993, Yan's fiction *Yaogou de Ritou* 瑤溝的日頭 (*Sun of Yaogou*, 1990) was translated into English by Bob Riggle and published in the literary magazine *Chinese Literature*. However, it has largely been neglected in the West. Yan had been invisible in the international literary field until 2007, when the English translation *Serve the People!* was published and received considerable attention in the Western scholarship. Ever since 2007, eight more fictional works have been translated into English by August 2021. Moreover, Yan was awarded a variety of international literary prizes such as the Franz Kafka prize (2014) and the Newman Prize for Chinese Literature (2020), and was shortlisted for the Independent Foreign Fiction Prize (2012) and the Man Booker International Prize (2013, 2016).

Secondly, *Serve the People!* is particularly striking in terms of its political subject matter, which allows an in-depth examination of the interactions between translation and political images. This fiction is often read as a politicized satire of Chairman Mao's ideals, focusing on narrating the torrid affair between a communist cadet Wu Dawang and a military commander's young wife Liu Lian during the Cultural Revolution (1966–1976). The politicized satire is epitomized by Wu's absurd understanding and practice of Mao's motto or the communist party's core principle "Serve the People", that is, as the commander's wife belongs to the People, satisfying her sexual desire equally means serving the People. The satire also manifests itself when the two protagonists achieve sexual euphoria by smashing Mao's icons and *Little Red Book*.

Thirdly, the critical reception of *Serve the People!* in the Western and Chinese scholarship are disparate with regard to the political matters. According to the search results from CNKI, the most comprehensive database of Chinese journals, Chinese scholars tend to shy away from this fiction. By contrast, Western literary criticism pays much attention to its politically sensi-

tive concerns. Considering the fact that few articles have been written by native American or British literary criticis, Western literary criticism here refers to articles written in English and issued by American or British institutions. According to Liu (2007, 1), the fiction "parodies the Mao Zedong cult during the Cultural Revolution". In a similar vein, Ha Jin (2008, 30) interprets it as "vilifying Chairman Mao, the People's Liberation Army, and the revolution". Wang (2016, 52) reveals that the fiction parodies Chairman Mao's slogan of "Serve the People", thus "deconstruct[ing] completely its authenticity and forcefully tear[ing] off the hypocritical veil of certain authorities". Moreover, Western literary criticism foregrounds the tight censorship on the fiction. For example, Leung (2011, 78) reveals that the fiction was banned by the Central Propaganda Department as soon as it was released. Similarly, Ha (2008, 30) points outs that, even Yan had deleted "more than 40000 of the original 90000 words" via self-censorship, it was still futile in the publishing context under close surveillance. This inclination towards a political reading of the fiction in the West raises the question whether the constructed political images in the translation and paratexts are congruent with the Western reception of the fiction.

2. Image, Politics and Translation

The concepts of image and politics have rich connotations, so they need to be clarified before exploring the interrelationship among image, politics and translation. Image, for the present study, is taken to be a "mental silhouette of the other" (Beller 2007, 4) and a "discursive representation [...] of a person, group, ethnicity or 'nation" (Leerssen 2007, 342). In this sense, the concept of image encompasses two layers of connotations. First, image is a mode of idea, attitudes, or perception of the other. Second, image is a representation that presents the characteristics of other peoples and countries. For the concept of politics, the present study interprets it as a space of tensions between the ruling party and its citizens in aspects of the way of governing and their power relations, based on the understanding of politics as "a space of oppositions between systems and individuals, hierarchy and equality, police and emancipation" (Evans and Fernández 2018, 2).

Research on the image and translation of politics has attracted much attention in translation studies. Scholars frequently examine the images of politics that shape the translations of political events or conflicts reported in newspapers. For instance, Schäffner and Bassnett (2010) have edited a volume in which several researchers demonstrate that the translation of political discourse has important connections to political views of the media outlets and the target readership. By examining the ways in which the Arab uprising is translated across different news reports, Nader (2018) observes that the translators' treatment of political concepts usually complies with the political positions of the publication, for example the lukewarm attitudes towards the Pan-Arab ideology. However, there are also cases that translators do not always confine themselves to the socio-political values of their times and choose to articulate

alternative political worldviews in translation (Tymoczko 2009; Carcelén-Estrada 2018).

Instead of focusing on the influence of political ideas on the translation, some scholars give priority to the important role of translation in the construction of political reality or nations. For example, Dimitriu (2016) probes into how translation strategies, prefaces of translations and translation selections of source texts negotiate the ethnic clichés for the political and diplomatic benefits of Romania at different times. Similarly, Pięta (2018, 377) displays how the selective translation of Polish literature creates conflicting images of Communist Poland from "a threat to the Portuguese regime and a token of amorality" to "a martyred victimized country, and model of Catholicism, patriotism and heroism" in para-fascist Portugal. Dubbati and Abudayeh (2018) also spell out how the translator as a Palestinian refugee and a Nasserist utilizes paratexts of the Arabic translation to frame Palestinians as victims in Israeli occupation and heroes in resisting such an occupation.

With respect to the English translation of contemporary Chinese literature in the West, scholars tend to explore what literary works are selected for translation and how the ideological intervention is enacted in the translation to cater to a particular political agenda of the target culture. By analyzing the fiction listed in a bibliography, Edwards (2013, 269–273) reveals that the predilection for Chinese fiction with the theme of "political dissidence" results from "the Western world's deep-seated antipathy towards 'communist states", which in turn serves to reinforce the fixed images of "the horrors of Communism". In a similar vein, Bruno (2012, 262, 265) analyzes how translation selection can be determined by political values via investigating the publishing list of the English translations of contemporary Chinese poetry from 1980 to 2012. Meng (2018) delves into the translation choice of Chinese autobiographical genre, namely "writing Red China", for English translation by taking into account the selling points of these works, which are suggestive of the target readers' expectation of Chinese literary works in terms of the insiders' viewpoint towards crucial historical events in China.

There is also scholarship on the interaction between political images and the introductions and prefaces of the translations of Chinese literature. Taking the translators' preface for Yu Hua's novel *Brothers* and several book reviews on this novel published by *The New York Times* on May 4, 2008 as a case study, Wang (2012, 575) demonstrates that the reception of contemporary Chinese literature is susceptible to the Western Cold War mentality in the belief that "Chinese history is characterized by injustice hegemony and scandal". Likewise, focusing on the titles, introductions and prefaces of translation anthologies of contemporary Chinese literature, Chan (2015, 50) finds that contemporary Chinese literature is inclined to be read as "a testimony to political upheavals" of China. Lee (2015) turns to the examination of the covers and book jackets accompanying the English translations of novels by several contemporary Chinese writers such as Yan Lianke, Mo Yan and Su Tong. By so doing, Lee (2015, 263) shows that the paratextual representation of a "dystopia" China as "deeply mired in totalitarian rule" is mainly circumscribed by the changing power relation between the Communist China and

the West in the cultural politics.

Furthermore, an array of scholars carries out a comparative analysis of Chinese literary works and their translated texts to reveal how translations are intermingled with politics. For example, Li (2010, 402) investigates the translation shifts in the English translation of Eileen Chang's fiction *Jinsuo Ji*, in particular the tendency to "offer more possibilities for female transgression" in the translation, which is attributed to the gender politics in America in the 1960s when sexual norms were constantly challenged following the civil rights movement. Similarly, Xiao and Zheng (2015) examine the English translation of China's political history narrated in Mo Yan's novel *Big Breasts and Wide Hips* in combination with meta-texts such as translator's interviews and readers' response. In this way, they reveal the mutual effect of the expectation of the target market in terms of Chinese writers' radical criticism of Communist regime and the translation mediations.

The above discussions about the concept of images, politics, and research on images and translation of politics demonstrate an in-depth understanding of the interconnections among images, politics and translation across different socio-political contexts. Moreover, they show the potential of case studies in revealing the role of translation in constructing and/or filtering national political images at particular times in history in order to serve and/or resist the fixed stereotypes.

In this context, based on the aforementioned understanding of the concept of images and politics, the present study aims to explore the ways in which images of politics enter the English translation and paratextual packaging of Yan Lianke's *Serve the People!* and the impact the translated texts and paratexts have on the perception of Chinese national politics. Before conducting a detailed textual and paratextual analysis, the next section will sketch out a brief historical review of Western views towards China's politics to contextualize the case study.

3. A Historical Overview of Western Images of Communist China

As translation is a politically situated activity, we will provide a panoramic view of the political and cultural attitude in the West towards Communist China, with a view to finding the major factors that influence the English translation of Yan's fiction. In this respect, it should be noted that the term West in the present study is used to refer to America and Britain tout court and does not indicate a monolithic Western world that holds undifferentiated attitudes towards communist China. However, given America has played the dominant role in the representation of the Orient and China since the mid-twentieth century (Said 1979; Mackerras 1989), we, for expository convenience, will give priority to the American socio-political circumstances when

reflecting on the Western perception of Communist China.

Since the establishment of the communist People's Republic of China in 1949, the sympathies towards China during the Sino-Japanese War have been replaced by relatively negative views about China in the West (Mackerras 1989; Klein 2003; Schweiger 2007; Turner 2016). From 1949 onwards, China has mainly been represented as "Communist 'other" filled with "inhuman practices" and "political oppression" (Schweiger 2007, 129; Cao 2014, 113).

During the period of 1949 and 1972, China was perceived by the West as "a 'Red' communist ally of the Soviet Union at the periphery of the civilized world, and as a threat to US national security" (Turner 2016, 95). Such representations cannot be separated from the history and the culture of Cold War when the Washington adopted a policy of containment against the Soviet Union and its satellite countries, including Communist China, due to the President Harry S. Truman's political commitment to "a democratic-capitalist ideology" (Turner 2016, 98; Klein 2003, 22; Mackerras 1989, 175–183). In other words, politics in terms of "the Cold War split between the 'free world' and the 'international communism" plays a dominant role in steering the Western interpretation of China during this period (Mackerras 1989, 191). The reemergence of "Threatening China" should be seen in the context that Communist China unexpectedly defeated America in the Korean War (1950-1953), which made China as a threat to American political system (Klein 2003, 37). As for the prevalence of the image of "Uncivilized China", it not only resulted from the devastating consequences of the Great Leap Forward (1958–1962), the Famine (1959–1961) and the Cultural Revolution (1966–1976) in China, but, more importantly, was forged by the middlebrow intellectuals' dominant discourses that silenced the sympathetic narratives of China in the West, which were still integral to "the geopolitics of the Cold War" (Turner 2016, 102–108; Klein 2003, 10).

However, the depictions of "Red China", "Uncivilized China" and "Threatening China" were downplayed in the West in the 1970s and 1980s during which China showed a hostility to the Soviet Union and implemented the modernization policy aimed at liberalizing its market, and China's policies were regarded by the West as showing signs of assimilating democratic and capitalist value (Schweiger 2007, 130; Turner 2016, 108–126). Consequently, China was imagined as a "modern, progressive and capitalist" country (Turner 2016, 124). Nevertheless, the idea of "Uncivilized" China resurfaced and was reinforced in the West with the suppression of the student protests in Beijing's Tiananmen Square (1989) by the Chinese government, as that suppression was interpreted as violating the "core values of democracy and capitalism" (ibid., 129). Moreover, recent years have witnessed the resurrection of "Threatening China" with the economic rise of China. In this respect, it should be noted that the increasing material power is not the exclusive reason for the resurgence of "Threatening China". In fact, as Turner argues, the different political and economic development model in terms of the conflict between "state-led development" of China and "free market forces and private property ownership" of the West is the main reason (ibid., 135).

The above historical examination indicates that the persistent conflict between communist and democratic-capitalist ideologies, and different modes of development have laid the foundation for the perception of Communist China in the West in terms of the predominated images of "Threatening China" and "Uncivilized China" since 1949. As an important site where the representation of a foreign nation takes place, translation and its paratexts are inextricably bound up with the historical and political environments and the intellectual trends of the source and target cultures. Taking this as a starting point, the following sections aim to demonstrate that the textual and paratextual construction of a corrupted and repressed China by the English translation of politics depicted in Yan's *Serve the People!* fits into the stereotyped coding of Communist China.

4. Paratexts and Image Formation

Paratexts in translation are defined as "presentational materials accompanying translated texts" (Tahir-Gürçağlar 2002, 44). Mediating between a text and its readers, paratexts have the potential to influence the reception of the text among potential readers (Batchelor 2018, 142). A paratexual approach to translation studies pays attention to the influential roles of paratexts in framing the images of source cultures (Alvstad 2012; Maher 2016), images of authors (Linn 2003; Summers 2013) and images of source literary works (Bianchi and Nannoni 2011; Ziemann 2019). This section attempts to reveal how the paratexts surrounding the English translation of Yan's *Serve the People!*, in particular its front cover, back cover, blurbs, and introduction, represent the subject matter of politics in the fiction in tune with discursive cultural images of China's politics.

The front cover of *Serve the People!* features red army hat in the center of the cover and its back cover is predominantly red in color, which evokes the image of Communism. However, this image is interpreted in a negative way in the blurb on the back cover, which underscores the problematic aspect of China's politics in terms of "official corruption, leadership hypocrisy and the insanity of the Cultural Revolution". Such fixation on the negative political dimension tends to guide readers to view the fiction as a political critique of the Chinese communist party and its revolutionary ideologies.

Moreover, the blurb highlights the state censorship on the fiction. Specifically, the line "BANNED IN CHINA" is presented in bold, large and capitalized character and centered at the top of the back cover, which easily grabs readers' attention to the forbidden nature of the fiction. In addition, the blurb accentuates the intolerance of "propaganda ministers" towards "depiction of the People's Liberation Army during the Cultural Revolution" when recounting the reason for banning the fiction. In this way, the blurb constructs the image of China as a country replete with censorship and oppression without sufficient freedom.

In a similar vein, the introduction pivots readers' orientation towards the troubled histo-

rical event and the repressive censorship in China. According to the introduction, three out of six literary works introduced are sensitive and banned, which entices English readers to view Yan Lianke as a dissident writer who mocks "military heroes", "the Mao cult" and "a blood-contamination scandal in Henan". Moreover, the image of Yan as a victim of the punishments imposed by the government is also brought to the fore. The expressions and descriptions like the punishment of being "forced to write self-criticisms for four months" and "asked to leave his non-combat position of Senior Colonel in the PLA [People's Liberation Army]", the "death punishment", "the propaganda department" and "edict" recur in the introduction. They lead to consolidating the theme of totalitarian censorship since they recall the stereotypes of China in terms of "the barbarity of its system of punishment" and the clichés of "a bad government, describable only in 'terms of tyranny, oppression, and injustice" (Mackerras 1989, 57, 45).

In sum, the paratexts show a proclivity for an overtly political reading of the fiction, with frequent references to the sensitive historical upheaval, harsh state censorship and vulnerability of the author. In other words, the fiction is promoted in the English-speaking world for its audacious exposure of controversial sociopolitical issues under communist despotism rather than its aesthetic value. Such paratextual presentation of the fiction resonates with Lovell's (2006, 32, 33) finding that the West tends to read Chinese literature "for its political rather than its literary content", in particular "dissident" politics. In this context, displaying "banned in China" on the cover of translated Chinese literature becomes an effective device to attract target readers (Lovell 2006, 34; Rovira-Esteva 2016, 197). Therefore, it can be argued that the paratexts of the English translation of Yan's *Serve the People!* reaffirm the general perception of China's politics in the Western receiving culture.

5. Representing Political Corruption

Corruption in China is frequently featured as ubiquitous in the West (Jones 2001, 194–196; Kinkley 2007, 2). However, how the images of a corrupted China are constructed and/or transmitted through translation across borders has seldom been revealed. To address such a gap, this section will demonstrate that the English translation of Chinese literary works contributes to at least partly the prevailing perception of the widespread corrupted China in the West. This argument is made based on the analysis of the salient differences between the source text (ST) and the target text (TT) in terms of the overt or subtle depictions of corruption in Yan's *Serve the People!*. For the present study, corruption refers to the social level of government officials in their dishonest behavior or abuse of political power that serve their private interest, including privilege and bribery, as will be demonstrated in the following two examples.

Example 1

ST: 要你提幹後把我女兒娥子的戶口辦到城裡去,要娥子跟上你過上好日子。(Yan 2005, 54)

BT (Back Translation): "And once you get promoted as an official, you can get an urban registration permit for my daughter Ezi, so she can come and live the good life with you."

TT: "And once you're an official, you can get an urban registration permit for my daughter – Ezi – so she can come and live the good life in the city with you."

This was every peasant's dream: to leave the uncertain, never-ending toil of farming for the comforts of the city and a state-allocated job.

(Lovell 2007, 66–67)

Example 1 is taken from the talk of Wu Dawang's father-in-law Zhao to Wu Dawang, in which Zhao asked Wu to join the army and work hard to get promotion so as to acquire an urban registration permit for his daughter. The source text does not elaborate on the socio-political background with regard to the urban registration and the city life. However, the underlined part of the translation adds further information to contextualize the source text, which not only makes a reference to the sharp contrast between "the uncertain, never- ending toil of farming" life in the rural areas and "the comforts of the city and a state-allocated job", but also interprets "leaving the rural areas for the city" as every Chinese peasant's dream. In other words, the translation explicates the socio-political context in terms of the segregation of the urban and rural life, foregrounding the considerable inequality between the urban and rural life and the miserable living condition in the rural areas in China. Moreover, the translation also highlights the greater privilege and benefits enjoyed by Chinese officers since those who got promotion in the army could obtain an opportunity to have an easy and comfortable city life with secured jobs.

However, it should be noted that even Chinese readers who have not experienced this historical period have meager knowledge of the urban registration permit, let alone its linkage to the state-allocated jobs. From this perspective, it is palpable that the Chinese readers are not expected to be familiar with this background information in the source text. In other words, this background information is arguably not important in the source context. By contrast, the target readers are presented with this background in detail, which suggests that this socio-political background is considered as necessary and important by the translator for readers' understanding of the source text. Such an emphasis on this background is likely to be related to the translator, as she is well informed of the "urban welfare and job security" in China before the 1990s (Lovell 2019). However, by inserting this background information in the translation, the translator, in fact, contributes to the exposure of the controversial particularity of Chinese socio-political reality to English readers, especially with regard to the extreme inequality between the officials/urban citizens and the masses/peasants and to the government's rigorous control over rural-to-urban migration and social resources.

Example 2

ST: 吳大旺不知道首長們為啥老死不相往來,不知道他們的家屬,為啥兒近 朱者赤,也由此及彼地不相往來。也許,這就是首長院裡鄰里的複雜和隱秘 所在,是軍營大院中套著的首長小院的神秘而深刻的某種含義。(Yan 2005, 28)

BT: Wu Dawang didn't know why the senior officers maintained such splendid out-of-hours isolation. Wu Dawang didn't know why their relatives, who stayed near vermilion got stained red, also didn't get in touch with each other. Perhaps that's where the complexity and mystery lie in the neighborhood in the officers' compound. Perhaps some mysterious explanation lurked deep within the officers' compound or within the larger enclosure of the barracks itself.

TT: Wu Dawang didn't know why they maintained such splendid out-of-hours isolation. Perhaps they were afraid that fraternizing in private might foster corruption. Perhaps some mysterious explanation lurked deep within the officers' compound or within the larger enclosure of the barracks itself. (Lovell 2007, 35)

The context for the Example 2 is that, although the senior officers' residences are in the same compound, the officers never visited each other after office time. Such kind of self-isolation is also followed by the officers' family members, which the source text describes as "近朱者赤" [one who stays near vermilion get stained red]. The phrase "近朱者赤" is a Chinese proverb, which carries the implication that a physical environment can exert an enormous influence upon one's growth. In this sense, the source text indicates that influenced by officers, their families follow suit without paying any visits to their neighbors either.

Moreover, the source text depicts Wu's wonder why both the officers and their families isolated themselves from their neighbors. Compared with the source text, the translation omits Wu's confusion about the self-isolation of the officers' families. By so doing, the translation directs readers' attention only to the senior officers' abnormal few interactions with their neighbors.

In addition, the source text illustrates that Wu attributes the self-isolation to "the complexity and mystery" not only in the neighborhood in the officers' compound but also in the larger enclosure of the barracks itself. It is not hard to find that Wu's speculation is rather vague in the source text. Such vagueness is largely determined by Wu's identity and personality. As a cook for the Division commander, it is unlikely for Wu to figure out what is going on with those senior officers. Moreover, Wu disciplines himself not to say anything that he should not say and not to mind others' business in his daily life. Hence it is impossible for Wu to comment directly on the private affairs of those senior officers. However, the translation changes Wu's vague speculation into an affirmative answer by explicitly pointing to the senior officers' fear

of being embroiled in a mode of corruption that might be caused by close personal relationship. In this way, the translation turns Wu from a cautious and inexperienced soldier into an outspoken and seasoned one. Furthermore, the translation weaves a connection between senior officers and corruption, channeling English readers' attention into the corruption in the Chinese political systems.

It is also noteworthy that the translation changes two possible speculations in the source text into one. That is, the vague speculation in terms of "the complexity and mystery lie in the neighborhood in the officers' compound" is deleted while "the complexity and mystery lie in the larger enclosure of the barracks itself" is retained in the translation. In fact, the two speculations in the source text are repetitive both in content and in syntactic structure to some extent. However, such a repetition makes sense instead of being redundant. As discussed above, it is natural for Wu as an inexperienced and low-ranking soldier to speculate about many possible reasons to account for the self-isolation of the senior officers and their families. This repetition, which is employed deliberately in the source text, may constitute what the translator considers to be "uncomfortable and inelegant" to English readers due to different English and Chinese literary conventions (Lovell 2009, xliv-xlv). Consequently, the translator simplifies it in the translation. However, compared with the deleted part of "the neighborhood", the retained part "the enclosure of the barracks itself" is more likely to draw readers' attention to negative political factors. In this regard, it is evident that the translation puts more emphasis on the political motivations for the abnormal self-isolation than the usual interpersonal relations as neighbors.

The close comparative textual analysis of the source text and target text in the above examples suggests that the translation tends to highlight the Chinese officials' privileges and abuse of power through omission, addition, explication and specification to construct an image of a corrupted China. As demonstrated in Example 2, the translation tends to distort the meaning in the source text via omitting some crucial information while providing additional explanations to serve the purpose of emphasizing the possible corruption hidden among senior officers in the Chinese army. In sum, the perception of a corrupted China dominant in the West finds its way into the translation which in turn reinforces such a stereotypical perception of China.

6. Representing Political Repression

Political repression in China is widely disseminated in the West. In British television documentaries produced from 1980 to 2000, the "absurdity" and "dire consequences" of Great Leap Forward and the Cultural Revolution are highlighted in the West to project Chairman Mao as "a tyrant" or "an Orient despot" and these social reform campaigns as "acts of villainy" (Cao 2014, 116, 119, 128). Moreover, the economic reform led by Deng Xiaoping is represented as "flawed" reform that lacks "political liberalisation" (ibid., 133). In addition, the

victimized images of student protests in the 1989 Tiananmen event are created and emphasized to foreground the "tyranny" of the Chinese Communist Party (ibid., 137). In preeminent American newspapers *The New York Times* and *The Washington Post* released in the last two decades after 1989, the Tiananmen crackdown is invoked as a "news icon" to symbolize "Communist dictatorship" in the early 1990s, exemplify "China's human rights abuse" in the late 1990s and evoke Americans' memory of "China's repression" in the 2000s (Lee, Li and Lee 2011, 335). In the area of China studies, the Western knowledge manifested in the Western exploration of Chinese film, politics, history and governance, tends to frame communist China as a "despotic, totalitarian, and pre-modern state" where Chinese people are deprived of agency (Vukovich 2012, 34). Enmeshed within such a discursive constellation of a repressed, undemocratic, tyrannical, totalitarian and despotic communist politics, this section contends that the English translation of Yan's *Serve the People!* is impacted by this discourse and shows a tendency to bring forth ubiquitous political propaganda in China.

Example 3

ST: 不該問的不問,不該聽的不聽,不該說的不說,這是他的<u>職責</u> [.....]。 (Yan 2005, 149)

BT: Don't ask what you shouldn't ask, don't listen to what you shouldn't listen to, don't say what you shouldn't say, this was his duty [...].

TT: Thanks to his slavish devotion to duty – Don't Ask What You Shouldn't Ask, Don't Listen To What You Shouldn't Listen to, Don't Say What You Shouldn't Say [...]. (Lovell 2007, 164–165)

In the source context, Wu Dawang had an affair with the Commander's wife Liu Lian. Wu observed the rules of thumb in the army, as underlined in the source text when Liu lied to her husband to hide their affair. In this context, the description of Wu's obedience to these rules (duty) in the source text serves as an implicit ridicule of Wu's hypocrisy. On the contrary, the translation explicitly satirizes Wu's behavior by rendering it as "his slavish devotion to duty", which foregrounds Wu's slavish mentality. Moreover, the translation capitalizes the rules of thumb, turning them from informal guidelines into officially enacted principles. In this way, the translation presents to readers the political propaganda in China. Since the two translation alterations occur in the same sentence, they work together to frame Wu's slavish mentality as a result of the repressive Chinese army principles, thereby evoking English readers' aversions to the Chinese political propaganda in the army. By so doing, the translation consolidates its construction of the image of China characterized by repressive military life.

Example 4

ST: 原來整潔的黑板報上,醒目地寫著一行粗野而火熱赤誠的文字—— 操你媽

<u>呀</u>,我不想離開這座軍營啊! 還有被封的宿舍屋門的封條上,有士兵用紅色鋼筆寫了幾句順口溜—— 大海航行靠舵手,舵手聽命細水流;水流往東我往東,軍人的命運更自由。(Yan 2005, 185)

BT: Across the <u>notice-board</u>, someone had <u>written a striking line in a coarse and honest way – 'Fuck you all. I do not want to leave the barracks!' On the paper strips used to seal off the vacated dormitories, some soldiers had written a few lines of <u>doggerel</u> in red pen: 'Our Helmsman guides us over the seas, sailing where the currents please; when the sea goes east so do we, as free as the wind and rain.'</u>

TT: Across the notice-board that in happier days had been the mouthpiece of discipline and orthodoxy, someone had scrawled 'Fuck you all'. On the paper strips used to seal off the vacated dormitories, someone else had scribbled a few lines of mournfully ironic doggerel in red pen: 'Our Helmsman guides us over the seas, sailing where the currents please; when the sea goes east so do we, as free as the wind and rain.' (Lovell 2007, 196)

In Example 4, the Machine Gunners in the Division were dispatched and wrote lines on the paper strips and the notice-board to express their mixed feelings of reluctance and obedience for leaving the barracks because of the demobilization. According to the source text, these soldiers do not show any tendency to disobey the division commanders' orders, as helmsmen do not sail against tides currents and wind. Compared with the source text, the translation adds the clause "that in happier days had been the mouthpiece of discipline and orthodoxy" to explain "the notice-board", reducing the broad and general concept of "notice-board" to a narrower concept. Interpreting the notice-board as a prominent channel for discipline and orthodoxy, the translation seems to convey a message for the target readers that Chinese political doctrines or rules are constantly delivered through the notice-board to manipulate soldiers' mind for the benefit of the Chinese government to control the army. In this regard, the translation has highlighted the pervasiveness of political propaganda in Chinese army.

Furthermore, the translation shows little interest in the emotion of reluctance by omitting "written in a [...] honest way – I do not want to leave the barracks" but highlights soldiers' annoyance or grievance by retaining the vulgar slang "fuck you all". Moreover, the translated text runs counter to the source semantic meaning by adding negative phrase "mournfully ironic" to describe "doggerel". With the addition, the translation not only shows the extreme sadness of the soldiers when they were ordered to be dispatched but also demonstrates their unsatisfactory feelings and resistance against the orders by writing "ironic" doggerel. By displaying the soldiers' helpless and woeful reactions to the orders through adding "mournfully ironic" to modify doggerel, the translation reveals that the Chinese army is a repressive place

where the soldiers do not have the privilege of deciding their own fates and are vulnerable to the political policies issued by the Chinese government. With these translation alterations, the image of China characterized by repressive political system is brought to the fore in the translation.

These two examples provide solid evidence that the English translation of Yan's fiction tends to construct an image of politically repressive China by aggrandizing these perceptions of extensive political propaganda through ideological textual alterations. With a recourse to strategies of addition, capitalization, concretization and distortion, the translations are inclined to dig out some familiar elements to readers and interpret them in their desired direction, which is in line with the common and prevalent perceptions of Communist China. In the case like Example 4, the translation resorts to some distortions from the source text for the purpose of foregrounding an image of China's politics that is characterized by political brainwashing. In a word, as a result of the reinterpretation of the source texts, the English translation of Yan's fiction becomes fodder for consolidating the negative image of China plagued with political repression in the West.

7. Conclusion

This article draws on insights from the mutual influence between image and translation of politics to explore what specific images of politics of People's Republic of China are represented through the paratexts and the English translation *Serve the People!*. Moreover, it also examines the specific ways in which the target political ideologies flow into this transnational representation.

The case study demonstrates two major recurring themes embedded in the Western literary criticism and the paratextual packaging: (1) an emphasis on the state censorship that suppresses Yan's freedom of expression and the publication of his works and (2) projecting Yan's fiction as a vehement critique of Chinese Communist government and its policies. Moreover, it also reveals two prominent tendencies in the translation modifications: exaggerating the political corruption and repression covertly expressed in the novel and attributing it to Communist politics. Specifically, various strategies are practiced in the translation which brings to the fore the unequal access between the ordinary citizens and the government officers to comfortable life. In addition, they also ascribe unscrupulous and arbitrary use of power to the governing body and depict ordinary people as subservient and weak victims who are deformed by repressive political rhetoric.

This article argues that these translation trends are largely congruent with the overall critical reception of *Serve the People!* in the Western literary criticism and the packaging of the fiction in the paratextual materials. In addition, the nuanced analysis of the translation demonstrates the connection between the recurring motifs of political repression and corruption

highlighted in the translation in relation to the established stereotypes with regard to the despotic and undemocratic Communist China. Although the case of Yan's fiction is representative and heuristic, more case studies of English translation of Chinese literature in different cultural and historical contexts are needed in future studies to further shed light on the interactions between translation and the image of China.

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Collaboration and the Modern Chinese-language Self-translator

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Abstract

This article examines how Chinese-language self-translators have worked with co-translators and collaborators over the last century. The first study of its kind, it surveys a vast terrain, including mainland China and Taiwan, and places further afield. From the analysis of bibliographical sources, published works and their paratexts, letters, and written testimonies, this article details first the complex theoretical and methodological issues to be negotiated when researching these phenomena. It then explores the marked prevalence of collaborative authorship in the self-translation of literary texts in Chinese, noting the visibility or disclosure of the collaborators' work in each instance and across periods generally, giving also an account of their motivations. It explores in depth the case of the Chinese writer, self-translator and Nobel laureate Gao Xingjian, finding that Gao's work challenges a number of received ideas about author-translator collaboration, such as the assumption that the author's involvement necessarily restricts the translator's freedom. By discussing how diverse cases exhibit the various modes of writing in which different parties engage during translation and revision, and how such types of collaboration are disclosed or effaced in the published work, this article seeks to establish clear theoretical terms for the study of collaboration and co-translation in instances of self-translation.

1. Introduction

If one were to conduct a topographical survey of the recently-emerged field of self-translation studies it would resemble an early-colonial era map of the world; some continents would be coloured by European occupation while others only recently sketched, and vast territories on the map would be empty. Volumes have been devoted to the known hotspots of self-translation in Europe, especially the Iberian Peninsula (Dasilva 2009; Gallén et al. 2011; Gallén and Ruiz Casanova 2018; Manterola 2014), Italy (Rubio Árquez and D'Antuono 2012) and France (Hokenson and Munson 2007; Kippur 2015; Puccini 2015). Initial surveys have been made of Eastern Europe and the former Russian empire (Foscolo and Smorag-Goldberg 2019), Canada (Van Bolderen 2014), and Latin America (Bujaldón de Esteves et al. 2019). Yet no published research in any language has accounted for self-translation across different Chinese-speaking environments, and research on the phenomenon in China is partial in its treatment. It is fair to say that when it comes to self-translation into and out of Chinese, we have only scratched the surface. [1]

In recent years, translation studies scholars have called for less "Eurocentric" approaches (Chan 2004; Cheung 2005; Cheung 2009; Hermans 2006; Hung and Wakabayashi 2005; Ricci and van der Putten 2011; Rose 2000; Susam-Sarajeva 2002; Susam-Sarajeva 2017; Tymoczko 2007; Wakabayashi and Kothari 2009). Yet the notion of Eurocentrism itself has come under scrutiny as a homogenizing term that ignores cultural difference within Europe and the inequalities that indenture the poor to cultural and political elites (Cronin 1995, 85–86; Delabastita 2011, 154; Flynn and van Doorslaer 2011, 116). The instrumentalizing of Eurocentrism has also been critiqued by Nam Fung Chang (2015), who finds the attitudes of some anti-Eurocentric Western translation scholars to be patronizing and contradictory, or to suffer from cultural misrecognition, despite their attempts to speak for those they believe to be oppressed by Western translation theory. Our aim is not to take sides in this debate but to draw attention to a translation zone that resists any attempt to pit an imagined East against a notional West, where Chinese-language authors regularly work with collaborators to produce versions of their work for a foreign readership.

This group of self-translators includes mainland Han Chinese, members of ethnic minorities, and members of historic or newer ethnic Chinese communities overseas; they may be cosmopolitan multilinguals or transnational first-generations. In this article we explore cases of author-translator collaboration in which the author's role extends beyond that of an advisor or consultant; rather, in collaborative self-translation the author assumes the function of a translator and is an integral party to the genesis of the translation.

We offer this overview of a neglected topic in recognition of Martha Cheung's assertion that "if Translation Studies is to break out of the cognitive boundaries set by Eurocentric views, or Sinocentric views, or, for that matter, any ossified views, what is needed is not just a new mindset but more material for study and for comparison" (2005, 39). As we bring

such new material to international attention we investigate, firstly, the complex theoretical and methodological issues that arise in research of such phenomena; secondly, the prevalence of collaborative authorship in the self-translation of literary texts in Chinese; and, thirdly, the disclosure and the visibility of these collaborations.

The diversity of collaborations involving Chinese self-translators offers us, furthermore, the ability to delineate clearly the different roles and functions of co-translator and collaborator, and therefore to clarify certain ambiguities in the theoretical descriptions of collaborative self-translation to date. We concentrate on self-translators from mainland China and Taiwan, and in the period since the founding of the Republic of China. Space dictates that we leave Chinese-speaking self-translators from Hong Kong, Singapore, Malaysia and the rest of Southeast Asia, not to mention émigré writers, for another occasion. However, we explore in depth the case of one émigré Chinese-language writer, self-translator and Nobel laureate, Gao Xingjian 高行健. The nature of Gao's collaborations, we argue, indicate the potential for research in this field, when they challenge a number of received ideas about author-translator collaboration current in translation studies.

2. Definitions, methodology, research questions

Collaborative self-translation has sometimes been considered a borderline case of selftranslation, with uncertainty as to where allograph translation with authorial collaboration ends and authorial self-translation with collaboration begins (AUTOTRAD 2007, 95). Rainier Grutman cautioned: "Whether teamwork of that sort should also be considered self-translation, is a worthwhile but complex question" (2013, 203n2). The conjugation of collaboration and selftranslation once appeared to be a contradiction in terms because it seemed to claim translation for the one and the many, simultaneously. Yet more recently, translation research has responded to literary scholarship that reveals the high prevalence of collaborative writing that is routinely attributed to a single author, literary research that has debunked the Romantic ideal of authorship as solitary genius (eg. Stillinger 1991). Translators too were held accountable to this myth of singular genius; they were expected to aspire to such "authority" by mastering the author's text and imbuing its translation with its singular authenticity or "spirit" (Cordingley and Frigau Manning 2017a). Yet a wide range of translations and self-translations once attributed to a single person have been revealed to be collaborative endeavours (Cordingley and Frigau Manning 2017b; Hersant 2020a; Jansen and Wegener 2013). The myth of authorship as inspired genius has had such a tenacious hold on our preconceptions of self-translation because this practice was believed to be the province of a particularly rare class of literary genius, the likes of Samuel Beckett and Vladimir Nabokov, who created brilliant works in not one but two languages. In recent decades, however, research into the wider phenomenon of self-translation has shown it to be prevalent in Europe from the Middle Ages and far less rare

than once believed (Hokenson and Munson 2007). The "self" in self-translation should not, therefore, necessarily imply a model of singular authorship. In fact, many self-translators are no different from other authors and translators; they seek out other writers, translators, and editors during their writing; they call on spouses, friends, and family for practical, editorial, creative, and intellectual support.

Dasilva (2016, 25) separates out allograph translation with collaboration from the author from his definition of "semi-self-translation" (*semiautotraducción*), which is defined by a single "fundamental criterion", the author's recognition of their responsibility for the translation as declared in the work's paratexts (epitexts and peritexts). If such information were reliable this may be a valid strategy, however Dasilva (2011; 2016) shows also that such representation of self-translation is often inaccurate, with variable degrees of opacity. Indeed, authors and publishers regularly give a false image of a self-translation's collaborative authorship (Anokhina 2019, 99–101; Manterola 2013, 63; Manterola 2017). Some of the most prominent of self-translators, such as Beckett, Eco, Eliot, Nabokov, and Ungaretti, have each been shown to work collaboratively, and collaboration is common in self-translators of the region believed to be the most active in terms of self-translation today, the Iberian peninsula (Manterola 2017). Manterola concludes her survey of collaborative self-translation by affirming that there are as many potential configurations of collaboration as there are combinations of individuals participating, although texts almost always move from the regional language towards the dominant Spanish or Portuguese.

The Chinese context, however, is vastly different, involving a language with the largest number of L1 speakers in the world and a large diasporic population, but which is typically the source language in self-translation. In this study, we select a number of Chinese-language cases to illustrate the complexity of practices across these contexts over the last century. We focus on the visibility of the collaborations that we discuss, and adapt Dasilva's (2011; 2016) concepts of the relative "opacity" or "transparency" of self-translation, the degree to which it is disclosed as such in the paratexts. We apply these terms to refer to the disclosure of the collaboration, to its opacity, its transparency. We also disambiguate theoretical discussion by applying the terms co-translator and collaborator along the lines suggested by Cordingley and Frigau Manning (2017a); we offer many examples of each, arguing that a co-translator is a selfidentifying translator who is recognised as having this role by the parties to the translation. A collaborator, on the other hand, belongs to a broader category, and is one whose decisions and work impact the production of the translated text; authors, (co-)translators, translation revisers, proof readers, editors may all be collaborators to a project, each with differently defined roles. This definition prioritizes the intentions and motivations of each party, the nature of their task, and the collective understanding of how the work is shared. It allows, nonetheless, for cases of misunderstanding, when one person's comprehension of their work or role differs from how it is perceived by others.

This study takes a historical approach. The methodology began by comparing the small body of research on self-translation in Chinese published in European languages with the larger body of research in Chinese. Major discrepancies in the recognition of self-translation involving the Chinese language between Chinese and non-Chinese language research were discovered. Extensive bibliographical research was made to discover instances when the author and translator of a published work is one and the same. Chinese was found to be the source language in the vast majority of cases. If this was anticipated, it is surprising to discover that collaboration is quite prevalent – more, it appears, than is disclosed in published self-translation between European languages. Unable to quantify this intuition, research into the phenomenon was extended by reviewing prefaces and notes to published self-translations, published letters or commentaries by self-translators, editors or their acquaintances. If the opinions in these sources is by nature biased, reflecting their author's point of view, they nonetheless allow one to gauge the intentions and motivations of authors and their collaborators, and thus to define the nature of the collaboration, and the roles assumed by each. Where manuscripts, typescripts, corrected proofs, or electronic files arising from such collaborations have survived, this evidence may be used to corroborate or falsify personal testimony. However, care needs to be taken because, as genetic research has shown – and as discussed below – this evidence can also give a distorted image of the creative process when, for instance, the person holding the pen is relaying the words of another (Hersant 2017; Hersant 2020b). Furthermore, historians and archival scientists have long recognised that interpreting archival evidence necessarily introduces subjective bias as the researcher builds narratives around the relationships between documents, their authors, and the parties they evoke (Ketelaar 2012). Exploring these questions will be crucial to future research into the self-translating practices of individual authors who write in Chinese, particularly in an era of collaborative writing technologies that archive phases of the creative process and the participation of each person. This article is the first attempt to offer a broad context for such research.

We offer this study of collaborative translatorship in the hope of stimulating new avenues of research into Chinese-language self-translation in general, for there is a fundamental need for translation studies to address this blind spot. The *Bibliography on Self-translation* (Gentes et al. 2020), the most up-to-date listing of published research on self-translation used by translation studies scholars, contains just over 50 entries for published research on self-translation in Chinese and 3 PhD theses, less than 3% of the approximately 1800 entries.^[2] The CNKI database, the most comprehensive database of research articles published in Chinese, yields 208 articles on the subject, to which can be added 6 monographs, 14 PhD theses and 14 articles from the Airiti database and Taiwan Citation Index, which identify relevant work published in Taiwan. Only 23 of these titles have been communicated by researchers to the editor of the collaborative *Bibliography on Self-translation*. Chinese-language self-translation studies research has made no impact upon any general discussion of self-translation published

in English-language handbook or encyclopaedia entries on self-translation (eg. Anselmi 2012; Cordingley 2018; Grutman 2009; Grutman and Van Bolderen 2014; Montini 2012). In terms of research not in Chinese, although on occasion Eileen Chang (Zhang Ailing 張愛玲) has been mentioned in passing within general discussions of self-translation, and while numerous articles have discussed individual Chinese-language self-translators, there has been no attempt to account for the phenomenon across the Chinese-language or within any one Chinese-speaking region or community — and certainly not from the perspective of how self-translators collaborate with others. Researchers in mainstream translation studies have passed over Lau's (1995) entry in the *Encyclopaedia of Translation: Chinese-English / English-Chinese Translation*; this is a missed opportunity, for not only is it one of the earliest analyses of self-translation published in English but it focuses on Chinese-language self-translators.

If Chinese-language research in self-translation regularly refers to the debates of the international community, the opposite is not the case. The Bibliography on Self-translation includes work on 9 Chinese-language self-translators as the primary subject of the research only. Consulting research published in Chinese using the CNKI database, Airiti database and Taiwan Citation Index, this number grows to 19. Further self-translators are cited in general accounts of self-translation, although discussion of collaboration in cases of self-translation is rare across the board, even if work on Eileen Chang often notes that her English texts were revised by C.T. Hsia. Indeed in both Chinese and non-Chinese-language research, over a third of research titles are devoted Chang, the author of fiction, prose essays and scripts who came to prominence in Shanghai's turbulent 1940s and moved to the United States. Yet current research, in all languages, does not accurately reflect the number and variety of self-translation practices in China and Chinese-speaking societies, in its diasporic and emigrant contexts, or how it might play a role for contemporary globalized authors who write in Chinese. Without claiming to be comprehensive, we hope to stimulate future research by selecting the following examples of author-translator collaboration and collaborative self-translation that attest to the variety of practices over the past century.

3. Republican-era self-translators

The history of literary self-translation in China is at least as old as modern Chinese literature, which is generally dated from the founding of the Republic of China (1912-1949). Compared to later periods, we find that collaboration in self-translation in this period is less likely to be formally recognised. Interestingly, we find more examples of this among self-translation between Chinese and Russian or Japanese than between Chinese and the languages of Continental Europe, a fact that merits further scrutiny.

Lu Xun 魯迅, regarded in the People's Republic of China (PRC) as the father of modern vernacular Chinese literature, produced translations that are well-known and much studied

(Lundberg 1989). Predominantly of Soviet and Eastern European literature, they were mostly relay translations via Japanese. Much less well-known are Lu Xun's two self-translations into Japanese. Not rediscovered until the late 1970s, "Kong Yiji" 孔之己 (Kong Yiji) (1922) and "Tu he mao" 兔和貓 (The Rabbits and the Cat) (1923) were published in a Beijing-based Japanese-language newspaper. In a diary entry from December 1922, Lu Xun notes "translated my own story into Japanese" (戈寶權, 1979, 141). The stories are opaque self-translations: they were credited to a pseudonym more often associated with Lu Xun's brother, Zhou Zuoren 周作人 (戈寶權, 1979, 145). According to the recollections of Shimizu Yasuzō 清水安三, Lu Xun orally translated while Shimizu wrote the translation down. In this instance, there is no record of any further role Shimizu Yasuzō played in the production of the target language text. Yet, as we will soon discover, the job of transcribing an aural translation can involve a degree of reformulating that surpasses the usual redacting of an amanuensis.

The case of Lu Xun is representative of a discernible trend in this period: though Chinese authors regularly self-translated, they often were not recognised alongside their co-translators on the cover, title page or in the paratexts of works published outside China. A typical example is one of China's most successful literary exports from the period, the venerated comic author Lao She 老舍, among the leading literary authors of the mid-century. He taught at SOAS University of London from 1924 to 1929 and spoke and wrote English proficiently. We have not found him formally credited as a self-translator in any of his English-language texts, but it is nevertheless clear that he was deeply involved in the creation of several during his US sojourn (1946-1949).

The genesis of Lao She's *The Yellow Storm* is a particularly romanesque tale of an author's active – albeit opaque – participation in an allograph translation of his work. He wrote this ambitious trilogy in Chinese as Sishi Tongtang 四世同堂 (Four Generations Under One *Roof*), though initially only the first two volumes were published; the first 12 chapters of the third volume were published in the review Xiaoshuo yuekan 小說月刊 from May 1950 to January 1951 (Bady 1974, 304), leaving 13 chapters unpublished. Lao She then talked through the complete manuscript with Ida Pruitt, who was fluent in Mandarin but not literate in Chinese. The resulting text, The Yellow Storm, was an abridgement of Four Generations, since Lao She apparently deemed the trilogy too long for an American readership—but also a collaboration, since Pruitt's contribution to shaping the text was considerable (So 2017, 580-582). The English edition of *The Yellow Storm* contained abridgements of all three parts of the trilogy, including the 13 chapters that had not been published in Chinese (some 20% of the total manuscript). These chapters, however, were never published in Chinese because Lao She's manuscript was lost. Then, in 1982, a new Chinese edition of Four Translations included a Chinese translation of the last 13 chapters based on *The Yellow Storm*, while translators of a "complete" 2017 edition consulted Pruitt's translation manuscript (found at Harvard) to reintroduce other deleted materials. A similar if less complicated fate awaited the unpublished

Chinese manuscript of *The Drum Singers*, which was lost in its entirety and back-translated from the English. As a consequence, "Lao She's collaborative approach to working with his translators [...] and the absence of a complete Sinitic-language manuscript for either text [*The Drum Singers and The Yellow Storm*] have forced scholars to treat the English language translation as the most authoritative version of these novels" (Iwasaki 2015, 122).

While the author is not credited in editions of Pruitt's translations, Pruitt recorded his involvement:

He would come every evening at seven o'clock and we would work until ten...Our method of work was unusual. Lao Sheh would read to me in Chinese and I would type in English. He knew more English than he would own to. As I typed I said what I was typing. Often he would challenge or correct me. Knotty points we discussed. (qu. in Iwasaki 2015, 131).

Here, Lao She is evidently performing a degree of mental self-translation that relied upon and modified the writing and verbalizing of the translator, who could not read the original. He in turn articulated some of his own self-translation which was committed to paper by his collaborator. An active partner to the translation process in real-time, Lao She engaged with and sometimes challenged the translator's decisions, which tended to the literal and direct in the first instance. In a letter to his agent, Lao She worried that Pruitt "would, for example, insist to keep the Chinese flavour as much as she can which makes her sometimes write broken English" (qu. in Iwasaki 2015, 131).

The situation contains elements that Hersant (2017) has shown to be common to authortranslator collaboration: firstly, that authors often become involved out of fear that their work will be misrepresented or otherwise betrayed, and, secondly, that the person holding the pen is not always the only one doing the translating. Furthermore, Lao She's comments together with his active participation in the revision of the translation (as witnessed by the manuscripts at Harvard) reveal an element of what Anselmi defines as "editorial self-translation", that is, "translations resulting from a process of revision or supervision or retranslation on the part of the authors prompted by their dissatisfaction with the existing translations" (2012, 61). But this would tell only part of the story, for Lao She was intimately involved in the composition of the translation from the outset, as Pruitt's account above confirms: the process began with him reading each word aloud, shaping each word with his own voice, giving it intonation and stress, and providing a reading performance that in turn influenced the translator's appreciation of the text's poetic and semantic patterning, which he subsequently commented upon. His objections to Pruitt's attempts "to keep the Chinese flavor" show him guiding his translator towards a fluent, domesticated translation. This case is instructive in that it tests the limits of what may be termed "collaborative self-translation", for despite only minimal evidence of Lao She's handwriting on the manuscript, testimonies of both translator and author reveal him to be a co-translator of his own work.

For Chinese Communists in the 1930s, Russian was perhaps the most important foreign language, and the most prominent case of self-translation between those two languages may be that of Xiao San 蕭三 (pen name of Xiao Kesen 蕭克森), also an instance of an opaque collaboration. Xiao, who spoke several foreign languages, also used for his Russian publications the pen name Emi San (in homage to Emile Zola). While studying in Moscow at the Communist University of the Toilers of the East, Xiao began to translate his own poetry into Russian, which was published in various journals and collections, sometimes after alterations were made by his friend Aleksandr Ilyich Romm, brother of the famous filmmaker Mikhail Romm (張旭, 2011, 122–131). Xiao is credited as self-translator on numerous occasions, but not when Romm or other Soviet poets are named as the translator. Biographies and memoirs of Xiao's life explain that he would read out loud his Chinese text to Romm and offer a rough translation into Russian, which the native speaker would then rewrite. In such instances it is most likely that Xiao is an unacknowledged co-translator of his own work, for the Russian texts would have been always based on Xiao's own Russian drafts or oral translations, since he spoke fluent Russian and they likely did not speak Chinese.

Curiously, when Xiao's collected poems were prepared by a major Chinese press, they discovered some twenty poems in Russian translation for which no original could be found. In what is perhaps the first documented case of a self-translator appearing blithely unconcerned about the authorship of his "original", or perhaps because this man of state was too busy to ever maintain a record of his own poems, when Xiao was asked to provide Chinese versions for these poems, he simply asked his bilingual secretary to produce them. A few of these may be consulted in Xiao's *Collected Works* (McGuire 2017, 189).

Many writers of the Republican period practised self-translation occasionally, such as Lu Xun, Dai Wangshu 戴望舒, Ling Shu-hua 凌叔華 and Hsiung Shih-I (Xiong Shiyi) 熊式一, or intensively, like Lin Yutang 林語堂 and Eileen Chang (Zhang Ailing). Chang was among the most popular authors of her day and in recent years her reputation has grown in China and abroad. A writer of fiction, prose essays and film scripts, Chang made her reputation in the tempestuous climate of 1940s Shanghai before she emigrated to the United States. Her practice was complex, and for several of her works she generated multiple versions in Chinese and English, resulting not only in major discrepancies but also in substantial uncertainty about which texts should be considered originals, since she constantly "re-evaluates and recontextualises her own works by expanding and even undermining her original formulations" (Li 2006, 99). Not generally considered to be a collaborative self-translator, some of her translations (e.g. "Jin suo ji" 金鎖記 [The Golden Cangue]) were heavily edited by C.T. Hsia (Hsia Chih-tsing, Xia Zhiqing 夏志清). Chang's case is also instructive for delineating the sometimes blurry lines between translatorship, co-translatorship, and other forms of collaboration in the writing process. Because Hsia was not a self-identifying translator but one who understood his role to be that of an editor, and even though his editing did in certain instances require acts of translation, he was performing the function of an editor and anthologist, and so was a "collaborator" to the translation process without being a co-translator. Thus, in the case of Chang, it is not unusual that she and not her collaborator is the recognised translator.

If it is common not to acknowledge the Chinese self-translator's involvement in publications outside China during this period, within China the Anglophone T'ien Hsia Monthly, which ran in Shanghai from 1935 to 1941, was pioneering for its recognition and promotion of local self-translators. Among the earliest literary self-translations from Chinese into English is the three stories published in its April to May 1937 editions by Ling Shuhua (Ling Hsu Hua). Two of these ("A Poet Goes Mad" and "What's the Point of It") credit the collaboration of Julian Bell, Virginia Woolf's nephew, then residing in Wuhan, while the third ("Writing a Letter") credits only the author. These translations occur between Ling Shuhua's translations of other authors and her best-known English work, Ancient Melodies, during the course of which "fiction was transformed into autobiography and the fictional characters became extra-textual real people" (Hong 2009, 85), changing third-person to first-person texts. This provokes Hong to suggest that perhaps even then "autobiography [was] the stereotyped genre for a third-world woman to reach the global print market" (87). Other authors who published self-translations in T'ien Hsia include the playwright Yao Ke 姚克 (credited as Yao Hsin-nung 姚莘農) and, collaborative self-translation is recognised when the poems of Zau Sinmey (Shao Xunmei 部 洵美) are credited with his name alongside that of the well-known British translator Harold Acton.

4. Self-translators of the PRC

While the early PRC, often known as the "Seventeen Years" (from establishment in 1949 to the beginning of the Cultural Revolution in 1966) partook of a "socialist cosmopolitanism" which provided state sponsorship of literary translation both into and out of Chinese (Volland 2017), self-translation in this period seems to have been rare indeed. Needless to say, the Cultural Revolution put an end to all but the most ideological literary translation until the late 1970s. Since the end of the Cultural Revolution, the practice of self-translation has to some extent recovered in the PRC, although the cases of foreign-based self-translators are more numerous and prominent. The practice has remained marginal in the PRC, especially when compared to the Republican Era, to Hong Kong or Taiwan, or to Chinese-language writers further afield. Future research will no doubt uncover more examples of collaborative self-translation. Nevertheless, while the Republican authors were deeply concerned with questions of translation, and many of them practised self-translation to a lesser or greater degree, the seven decades of the PRC seem thus far to have produced few comparable projects.

Still, PRC minority authors represent one source of self-translations. Authors in large but non-Han literary languages within China such as Tibetan, Uyghur, and Mongolian, are over-

whelmingly bilingual, often at a high level. Since official patronage and career progression can be enlarged by writing in Chinese, and since readership in Chinese is much wider than in any non-Han language, Chinese is often the preferred medium of literary expression for non-Han minority authors (Maconi 2008, 182). This has also led to numerous instances of self-translation. Most prominent of these is perhaps the contemporary Tibetan author Pema Tseden 萬瑪才旦, who is also well-known as a filmmaker. Contrary to the examples of contributions by Republican Chinese authors being elided from collaborations in works published outside China, minority authors in the PRC may be more likely to be credited by their Western collaborators when the latter are motivated to improve the recognition of minorities abroad and advance their rights and socio-economic conditions at home. Indeed, there is the long tradition of anthropological collaboration in self-translation that underpins a lot of translation of ethnic minority literatures in China, now also coalescing under a "mother tongue" designation (Bender 2017, 946–951). This occurs into Chinese, when speakers of minority languages work together with Chinese scholars/translators on Chinese language versions of native texts, or into other languages, when non-Chinese anthropologists collaborate with minority authors and self-translators. One salient example from this rich tradition involves the Yi poet Aku Wuwu 阿庫烏霧. A member of the Nuosu (Yi) ethnic minority, Aku lives in the Liangshan ("Cool Mountains") region of Southwestern Sichuan, and is an advocate of "mother tongue" poetry; he has sought to bypass Chinese and translate his Yi language work directly into English, collaborating with American Sinologist Mark Bender (Bender 2005). His political affirmation of this ethnic identity was developed recently through a project of indigenous poetics, the collaboration with the Nuosu elder Jjivot Zopqu to write down the oral (and partially written) traditional Nuosu text, The Book of Origins (Bender and Aku Wuwu 2019). If Aku sometimes appears as a collaborator with Bender ("translated by Mark Bender, with Aku Wuwu"), in this publication, as in a number of others, the text is promoted as a co-translation with the author ("translated by Aku Wuwu and Mark Bender"). The transparency of their collaboration advances the goals of their project, for the translator brings the credibility of his position and affiliation with a reputable institution of research and teaching (he is a full Professor at Ohio State University), and the author is naturally assumed to have a unique access to the complexities of his source text, authorizing the translation.

5. Self-translators in Taiwan

Modern Taiwanese literature emerged during the Japanese colonial period (1895-1945). While several authors produced Chinese versions of their own Japanese works during and after the colonial period, we have not discovered instances of authors co-translating their own works. Documented cases of self-translators working collaboratively are more visible after 1949, when the Chinese Republican government relocated from Mainland China to Taiwan,

bringing with it the greater part of the educated, cosmopolitan cultural elite. Several of those who were to become the most prominent authors from Taiwan were children when relocated with their families. Having received cosmopolitan educations, many subsequently also moved abroad or to Hong Kong, or sojourned there before returning to Taiwan. One such author was Pai Hsien-yung (Bai Xianyong 白先勇). Pai spent three decades at the University of California Santa Barbara, and a number of his works are set in the United States. He might therefore also reasonably be classed as a Chinese American self-translator, but, given that his reception has overwhelmingly been as a Taiwanese author, and since his best-known work, *Taipei People*, is set among Taipei's post-war Republican elite, we include his work here.

Fluent in English, Pai co-translated a volume of his short fiction between 1976 and 1981 with his UC Santa Barbara colleague Patia Yasin, a collaboration that is rendered highly transparent in the paratexts. Issued as *Wandering in the Garden, Waking from the Dream: Tales of Taipei Characters*, and published in the USA in 1982, these stories were then "carefully redacted; isolated words and phrases [were] revised" ("Preface" 2000, x) for a 2000 Hong Kong bilingual edition entitled, like the 1971 expanded Chinese collection, *Taipei People*. In her translator's note, "A Word from the Co-Translator", Yasin expresses deference towards the author, likening her own role to that of a performing artist: "as far as I was concerned, Pai Hsien-yung was the composer and I was whatever musicians or singers each of his pieces called for" (Yasin 2000, xxviii). The editor, George Kao, on the other hand wrote of his role that it was one of mediation:

to steer the precious cargo that is the heart of the story between the Scylla and Charybdis of disparate accents and imageries, to help achieve a tone and a texture of language at once natural and precise, intelligible in English and faithful to the original, that will move the reader when the original Chinese does and not cause him to laugh in the wrong place. This means ameliorating an occasional verbal gaucherie and eliminating incongruities that might produce the wrong effect, whether these resulted from over-fidelity to the Chinese text or too free a helping of the riches of the polyglot American tongue. (Kao 2000, xxii)

If the co-translator Yasin projects her self-image as a faithful interpreter directed by the author, here the editor Kao presents his role as that of guaranteeing linguistic and cultural fluency for the target audience. The reedition of the work serves to consecrate its importance, justifying the extra space accorded to the translator and editor to communicate to the reader their role and hand in the writing (less remarkable is way they position themselves as subordinate to the author).

Pai also separately produced a single story in English "Hong Kong 1960", which he subsequently self-translated into Chinese. Like Chang, to whom he is often considered a stylistic heir, Pai thus belongs to the very restricted class of Chinese-language bidirectional self-translators. Their projects nonetheless offer a salient point of comparison in terms of illustra-

Chang remained more resolutely individual during the process of translation, Pai integrated a co-translator into his own self-translation process; and though the translations of each involved editorial intervention, in Chang's case C. T. Hsia took a more active role. With another Taiwanese author who resided in the U.S.A., Yü Li-Hua 於梨華, Hsia acted as a co-translator and he is credited as such, transparently. Hsia's case illustrates that just as authors engage different modes of writing when exercising different functions in the collaboration (author, translator, reviser, proof-reader), the reality of the editor's work and how they understand their role should determine their classification in the collaboration as a co-translator or not. Having said that, just as is the case with the author, whose translating is often the occasion for a degree of rewriting, designating the editor's exact role can become more complex when there is slippage between their modes of engagement with the text.

The penchant in recent works for collaboration to be rendered transparent (evident in the paratexts) reflects the contemporary trend for promoting the involvement of the author with the expectation that the translation will be more marketable because it will be perceived as more authentic. If there might be a temptation on the part of the publisher to efface the translator entirely and pass the work off as a new "original", the formalisation of translators' contracts and the concomitant delineation of translators' responsibilities discourages such erasure.

6. Gao Xingjian: challenging orthodoxies in author-translator collaboration

The Chinese writer, self-translator and Nobel laureate Gao Xingjian, self-exiled in France since the 1980s and a French citizen since 1988, once said in an interview: "I loathe Chinese who write like westerners – including grammatically! You'd think you were reading bad translations..." (Bretonnière 1993, 136; our translation). [3] Gao's early theatre has often been said to introduce a European, absurdist style into Chinese, yet he nonetheless rejects the emulation of a "Western" literary style or syntax in Chinese. The point underscores the substantive differences between Chinese and European languages, which render choices about translation even more complicated than when translating between European languages. Bridging this wider separation of cultures and languages has motivated many collaborations between a Chinese author and a European-language translator. Future research in this domain may determine if the increased distance between Chinese and European (or other) languages and cultures encourages greater freedom or risk taking by the collaborators. This would challenge the view that the author's involvement inherently restricts the translator, a view regularly affirmed, from one of the earliest examinations of author-translator collaboration – "In accepting active interference from the author, the translator reduces his own freedom and the potential for his own reading of

the source text" (Vanderschelden 1998, 28) – to one of the most recent – "In author-translation collaborations, the translator's freedom to make decisions is much more limited than usual" (Manterola 2017, 191). For now, we offer one such example, a collaborative self-translation between Chinese and European languages that has the potential to disrupt the assumptions of translation research that is premised upon translation between European languages.

Gao has written plays, novels, poems and essays in French and Chinese. His known self-translations include four plays written first in French and self-translated into Chinese: Au bord de la vie (1993) / Sheng si jie 生死界 (2001), Le Somnambule (1995) / Yeyoushen 夜遊神 (2001), Quatre quatuors pour un week-end (1998) / Zhoumo sichongzou 周末四重奏 (1996), and Le Quêteur de la mort (2004) / Kouwen siwang 印問死亡 (2004). In 1989 Gao and Michèle Guyot co-translated from Chinese his play La Fuite, although his own participation is not recognised in the peritexts when it was published in 1992. On the other hand, Gao's most intensive collaboration has been highly transparent, namely his work with the French translator Noël Dutrait, who translated with his wife, Liliane, for many years before her passing in 2010. Their collaborative translations include the celebrated novels La Montagne de l'Âme (1995) and Livre d'un homme seul (2001), the volume of short stories Une Canne à pêche pour mon grand-père (1997) and non-fiction works Pour une autre esthétique (2004), Le Témoignage de la littérature (2004), and La Raison d'être de la littérature (2008). Together they also translated three plays published in a single volume Le Quêteur de la mort, L'Autre rive et La Neige en août (2004).

The working method of Gao and the Dutraits has been discussed in the preface and/or translator's note to the published work (eg. Gao 2016); it has been explored in numerous interviews with author or translator/s; and each has written on the subject in separate publications. They worked as a trio: Noël Dutrait, a Sinologist with a stronger command of Chinese, would make a first rough draft that was as faithful as possible to the source text; Gao would be invited to read Noël's draft, which he would revise, making suggestions, which Noël would integrate, adapt or reject; then Liliane, who had experience as a professional copy editor of French, would revise the text for fluency and natural expression. Their work reflected Gao's attitude to self-translation, which he once described when commenting on the self-translation into Chinese of his own theatre:

But for a new version in Chinese, what I do is an invention. I want no trace of the translation to remain, as if it were an original: it is a new creation. The Chinese version is a rewriting of the same play. In no way is it a translation. (Gallo 2018; our translation) [4]

For Gao self-translation should be creative rewriting, which leads him to encourage the translators with whom he works to take liberties they would not normally allow themselves. He is typically not credited as a co-translator of the French translations, rather he assumes the role of a reviser within the process. Yet Noël Dutrait has made it clear that Gao has been an integral

partner in the creative process:

As always with Gao Xingjian, the translation took place by means of a constant back and forth of various suggested versions. In the first instance, the author assures the translator of his absolute faith [in the translator], *pushing him to dare to depart from the original text and be linguistically inventive*. Then he annotates the translation, suggesting this or that correction. This climate of trust between author and translator allows the translator to enjoy the real pleasure of writing in the knowledge that the author will always find a solution, one that is often better than the translator's own.^[5] (Dutrait 2011, 8; our translation and emphasis)

Dutrait's comments align with the sentiments that Gao has expressed about his creative attitude to self-translation and the freedom he encourages in his own translators. The down-side of this for Dutrait is that taking such risks left him feeling exposed to accusations, from Sinologists in particular, of committing errors or distorting the original (Gentes 2017, 409). This anxiety would presumably be assuaged somewhat when Gao's attitude is publicised in the book's peritexts, or when Dutrait explains their working method in a translator's note, as in the 2011 *Œuvre complète* of Gao's poetry. If Gao was not acknowledged in some early collaborations, this contribution of a Nobel laureate is now celebrated. Indeed, when the author commands significant cultural and symbolic capital, publishers today are more likely to acknowledge their participation, often publishing the translation with the common epithet "revised by the author", or even allocating space for collaborators and co-translators to recount the process and render the collaboration transparent (as seen with Pai). This contrasts with the dominant mode of contemporary publishing, which regularly downplays, even occludes, a work's status as translated.

Unlike cases of authorial surveillance of the translator, the Gao-Dutrait collaboration is founded upon a relationship of mutual trust and respect. The author licences the translator/s to continue their writing project in another language within a relationship that resembles what the Cuban writer Guillermo Cabrera-Infante termed his "closelaboration" with Suzanne Jill Levine (1991, 47), a practice that exemplifies "mediated self-translation, or of four-handed translation, in which the final text sometimes appears as the joint work of the author and his or her translator" (Hersant 2017, 95). Many French translations of Gao's works have come to have the status of second originals. For instance, his intimate relationship to the genesis of the French version of *Lingshan* [Soul Mountain] helped justify relay translations into Greek, Spanish or Brazilian Portuguese from the French *La Montagne de l'Âme* rather than from the Chinese original. In fact, Gao himself encouraged the French version of his works to be used as the source text when an accurate translation from Chinese could not be guaranteed (Dutrait 2011). Little research exists into such mediated self-translation by Chinese-language writers, and it is surprising that the self-translation practice of China's most recent Nobel Prize winning author has received so little scholarly attention in China. [6] Certainly, Gao's encouragement

of his translators to take risks and transgress the constraints of allograph translation challenges received views that an author's involvement limits the translator's imaginary.

In the quotation above, Dutrait affirms that knowing that Gao will revise his translation, but being encouraged to follow his own intuition, liberates him "to enjoy the real pleasure of writing". This idyllic vision is nonetheless somewhat clouded by the translator's comment that he "know[s] that the author will always find a solution, one that is often better than [his] own". On such an account of collaboration, whatever freedoms the translator may enjoy in the moment of creation, the author will get the final word. This echoes Gao's belief that the second version is no translation but "an original [...] a new creation" (quoted above), which implies that a newly-authored solution holds priority over a conventional translation, and the author over the translator. The capacity for authors to assert their authority, all the while proclaiming the originality of the translation (because it is more than a translation), reinforces the image and discourse of the translator's subservience, which underscores how situations of author-translator collaboration can jeopardise the "translator creativity" or "translation as rewriting" regularly celebrated in current translation theory. And if, in the case of Gao and the Dutraits, this is less sinister or controlling than we have just made it seem, research into author-translator collaboration has shown that some translators are more effective in defending their own interpretations while others are more easily persuaded by the author (see Castro et al. 2017; Cordingley and Frigau Manning 2017; Hersant 2020a). Indeed, the psychological mechanisms of affiliation, friendship and loyalty are highly complex, and personal testimonies should always be viewed with a critical eye. Researchers can become more confident of their conclusions when such evidence is supported with close textual comparison of source and target texts, and if possible a study of the translation's genesis to help discern the role of each party during its composition.

its adaptation, fragmenting and reworking the bilingual text for recomposition in HyperCard, HTML, and live performance. One recent analysis of this collaboration categorised the piece as a hybrid modernist text that shows "Cayley's approach to programming was profoundly influenced by his understanding of parallelism in classical Chinese poetry and by Poundian modernism, which was itself shaped by Pound's reading, or misreading, of classical Chinese texts" (Edmond 2019, 95). Furthermore, this electronic work, a transparent and truly global collaboration, contained images produced by John Cayley and none other than Gao Xingjian. Gao's role in this collaborative self-translation is defined by his visual art practice, which can nonetheless be considered a creative and intersemiotic translation of Yang and Cayley's work. The final electronic text, with its algorithms that self-perpetuate the poem, render it impossible to say whether Chinese, English or machine code provides the source text; rather the poem is continuously reborn in translation, with each intervention by the medium autonomously and incrementally affecting each collaborator's contribution.

7. Conclusions

This essay represents a first pass at a promising subject. We have scanned the globe for Chinese-language self-translation, grouping authors by their historical period or geographic limits, ascertaining trends in collaboration and its disclosure. As the first survey of the field, its lacunae and limitations are many. It is likely, for instance, that pre-20th century self-translation pairings with Latin, Vietnamese, Korean, Japanese, Manchu, or Mongolian have escaped our attention. ^[7] We have concentrated on literary translation only, and have therefore excluded other forms of self-translation that are likely to reveal instances of collaboration (eg. children's literature or theatre and film subtitling). The very extensive practice of self-translation by Chinese academics (Chan 2016) merits further attention, for it is often conducted in collaboration, even if for many reasons – not the least of which are the author's desire for professional advance and pressures generated by the institution – the work of co-translators and collaborators is often uncredited or simply thanked (sometimes vaguely) in the acknowledgments.

Remarkably, in every one of the periods or regions studied we encounter relatively high instances of co-translatorship and collaboration in self-translation. In looking for reasons for this, it is noteworthy that in terms of self-translator biography we are speaking mostly of those who are originally from China or Chinese-speaking regions. They seek to make their work accessible either because they have migrated (eg. Chang, Pai) or because they live in multilingual or multi-ethnic societies outside of Mainland China (eg. Gao). The most obvious non-Han group are those writing in minority languages such as Tibetan and translating into Chinese for the purpose of reaching a wider audience in the PRC and the broader Chinese world. The other direction—of Western, Russian, Japanese, or Southeast Asian authors translating *into* Chinese—seems rare, therefore future discoveries in this domain and information about the

nature of any collaborations will be worth pursuing.

In terms of visibility we find that in the Republican period the self-translator's contribution to the translation is frequently not recognized in published translations outside China. We have documented cases of "opaque" collaborations in the language pairs of Chinese-Russian and Chinese-Japanese; future research may resolve whether or not this phenomenon is indeed more prevalent than in the English language pairing, or between European languages in general, and what historical factors account for this. In collaborative self-translation from Chinese into European languages since the 1980s we find that authorial co-translation is typically recognised in the paratexts, reflecting the high value accorded today to the perceived "authenticity" that the author adds to the translation. Furthermore, in Western societies, factors such as the emergence of "migrant literature", public policies of multiculturalism (which aim to accommodate pluralism and cultural difference), not to mention interest in hybrid, transnational or globalised identities has each contributed to an environment that welcomes and valorizes the participation of the Chinese-language author in the translation of their work.

Gao Xingjian has affirmed that one of the reasons that compelled his creative approach to self-translation is the great difference between the languages and cultures of China and France (Gallo 2018). This insight resonates with the motivation frequently expressed by selftranslators working in Chinese, namely their desire to collaborate with a native speaker to ensure the fluidity of their work in the target language – which might otherwise be termed its domestication. This is notable given that due to migration and English-learning by Chinese speakers across the world the body of Chinese-foreign (especially English) bilinguals is very large. Yet the evidence suggests that the prevalence of collaborative self-translation in Chineselanguage self-translation arises not from a relative paucity of competent translators working from or into Chinese but from substantial differences between Chinese and non-Chinese literary languages, cultures, and readerships. This hypothesis remains to be tested; it may be confirmed or disproven with the constitution of a corpus of wide ranging, fine-grained studies that compare source and translation texts and their individual geneses. Indeed, only when translation studies has given Chinese-speaking self-translators sufficient attention will it be able to affirm with confidence whether or not moving between Chinese and other languages necessitates more active rewriting than between European languages, and whether or not this in turn stimulates greater innovation and creativity in self-translation strategies.

Notes

We use "Chinese-language" rather than "Sinophone". While acknowledging the important stakes of the Sinophone turn (e.g. Shih 2007), the result has also been to make it difficult to use "Sinophone" to simply denote language use. For one thing, the term has become geographically ambiguous, sometimes excluding and sometimes including the PRC;

for another, it proposes a "precarious and problematic relation to China" (30), making it inappropriate to many of the self-translators we are considering. The authors consider "Chinese-language" an adequate description of the texts examined here, since the great diversity of spoken Chinese languages (Cantonese, Wu, Mandarin, Hokkien, Hakka, etc.) has had limited albeit fascinating effects on literary writing in modern Chinese, the diversity of which is not greater than that of written English, and which largely remains close to a Mandarin-based standard.

- Two works are listed "[in Chinese]" are actually in English, and the article "Possibilities and limitations of self-translation" by Wook-dong Kim is in Korean (so we excluded it from our count).
- [3] "Je déteste les Chinois qui écrivent à l'occidentale y compris grammaticalement ! On croirait lire de mauvaises traductions..."
- "Mais pour une nouvelle version en chinois, ce que je fais est une invention. Je dois faire disparaître toutes les traces de la traduction, comme si c'était une version originale : c'est une nouvelle création. La version chinoise est une réécriture de la même pièce de théâtre. Il ne s'agit en aucun cas de traduction.")
- "Comme toujours avec Gao Xingjian, la traduction est effectuée avec un aller et retour incessant des différentes versions proposées. Dans un premier temps, l'auteur assure le traducteur de sa confiance absolue, il le pousse à oser s'éloigner du texte original et à faire des trouvailles de langage. Puis il annote la traduction en proposant telle ou telle correction. Ce climat de confiance entre l'auteur et le traducteur permet un véritable plaisir d'écriture pour ce dernier qui sait que l'auteur trouvera toujours une solution, souvent meilleure que la sienne."
- While two articles exist in French, the CNKI database gives no evidence of Chinese-language research on this aspect of Gao's writing, partly due to Gao's alienation from the PRC cultural establishment and the resulting chilling effect on related research.
- [7] Italian Jesuit scholar Matteo Ricci's On Friendship 交友論 (Jiaoyou lun) furnishes a good example of early Chinese-Italian self-translation.

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散"形"與聚"神":譯家研究新思路——單德興著《翻譯家余光中》評介

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一、引言

在異質文化交流日益密切的當下,翻譯在推動我國政治、經濟、文化、科技等走 向世界的過程中發揮著越來越大的作用(中國翻譯協會,2014,3-4)。事實上,世界 上各主要文化系統的發展都和翻譯活動脫離不了關係(孔慧怡,1998,5)。從事翻 譯活動的主體——譯者,在跨語言與跨文化交流中,佔有關鍵地位(單德興,2016a, 2)。甚至可以毫不誇張地說,"任何跨文化的活動都需要譯者,譯者是世界上其中一 份最古老的職業。"(關詩珮,2017,15)他們辛勤耕耘,默默奉獻,譯績斐然。因此, 對譯者進行深入研究,特別是總結其翻譯經驗,有助於在具體的翻譯中精益求精。故 而,譯者成為翻譯史研究的首要對象(central object)(Pym 2014, ix-x)。由於譯者研 究較之翻譯事件和譯著更具對話性和闡釋性,翻譯家便成為翻譯史演變的當然核心, 翻譯家研究也就理所當然成了翻譯史研究的主體(鄒振環,2017,316-322)。我國對 翻譯家比較有意識地系統研究,開始於 20 世紀 80 年代(穆雷、詩怡,2003,12)。 然而,研究多集中於少數精英譯家,如嚴復、林紓、魯迅、傅雷、鄭振鐸、朱生豪、 周作人等以文學翻譯與創作為主的名家(屈文生、王克非,2018,197)。有研究者曾 對 80 年代後至 2003 年間我國的翻譯家研究進行梳理,認為我國的譯家研究基本上 是從無序到有序地進行著,從自發的、隨意的、簡介式的研究向自覺的、有總體目標 的、有理論深度的研究方向進步著(穆雷、詩怡,2003,12-18)。據粗略統計,此後 至 2019 年,國內僅以 "XXX 翻譯家研究" 為標題的專著就有近 50 部,可分為以下 三大類:單個翻譯家研究、翻譯家群體(特定時期/特定區域)研究和翻譯家詞典等。 其中,關於單個翻譯家研究的專著就有30余部,僅近五年就有近20部。而且對當代 譯家進行研究的專著逐漸增多,並開始以專著形式關注女性譯家、少數民族譯家、外 籍(含漢學家)譯家研究等。儘管其中不免偶有個別譯家的重複研究,但也各有側重, 在有些方面可相互補充。至於有關翻譯家研究的論文更是不勝枚舉。由此,我們可將當前專著類譯家研究歸納出如下特點:(1)地域化研究傾向明顯;(2)專著類單個譯家研究日漸增多;(3)以專著形式對女性譯家、漢學家譯家和少數民族譯家研究顯露頭角。儘管譯家研究的地域化傾向日漸明顯,但對港臺地區以專著形式深入研究當代單個譯家的成果明顯缺乏。臺灣學者單德興新著《翻譯家余光中》(2019)[1]可看作為改變這一研究現狀而貢獻的一個極具代表性的個案。

二、"翻譯家余光中"之概述:整體印象

華文文壇耆老余光中(1928-2017)以其"五色之筆"[2](黃維樑,1994,002)在詩歌、散文、批評、翻譯四個領域,筆耕不輟,苦心經營,成為臺灣著名詩人、散文家、評論家、翻譯家。早在1988年,他便在其《四窟小記》一文中稱此四領域為其寫作生命的"四度空間"(余光中,2003,316)。余光中"縱橫文壇70載,於詩歌、散文、評論、翻譯均有傑出豐碩的成果"(單德興,2019,2),稱其著、譯等身,毫不誇張。僅僅截止到2003年,百花文藝出版社(天津)出版的皇皇九卷《余光中集》便收入了其詩歌三卷、散文三卷、文藝評論兩卷和集外集一卷,近358萬字。

2.1 余光中與翻譯研究簡評

余光中一生著、譯豐碩,為學界研究拓寬了視野。然而,學界有關余光中的研究,多集中於對其詩歌、散文創作方面的探討,對其在翻譯方面的成就和貢獻卻缺乏系統、全面地深入研究。究其因,由於余光中"在詩歌與散文上的卓越成就,往往蓋過他在翻譯上的精彩表現,使人忽略了他的'譯績'與貢獻"(單德興,2019,2)。香港學者、作家黃維樑(1994,417)認為,"余光中的翻譯,是他文學生命中的重要組成部分,成績斐然。可惜向來注意這枝藍色筆的人不多。"單德興(2014,9)也提到"余老師自中學起便翻譯不輟……,與詩作相互影響,也曾將詩作自譯成英文,但翻譯卻成為他的文學世界中最被忽略的領域。"事實上,余光中自上世紀50年代以來,譯筆勤耕,收穫譯作15部,廣涉小說、詩歌、傳記、戲劇等主要文類,另有集中收錄其翻譯論述的《余光中談翻譯》(2002)等,這些"譯績"為學界研究余光中譯作、譯事、譯論、乃至中英語言、文化對比等提供了豐富的資源。正如有學者所言"余光中譯品的幅度之大,並非常人可及,而從如此豐富的翻譯經驗歸納出來的理論,也就更顯得字字珠璣,言出有據了。"(金聖華,1999,19-20)

較早對余光中的譯績和譯論進行學術研究的當屬黃維樑。早在90年代他便在<余光中"英譯中"之所得:試論其翻譯成果與翻譯理論>一文中,梳理了余光中數十年來"英譯中"的成果,並兼論其翻譯理論。他認為,該文是"對當代一位傑出翻譯家的初步觀察析評,也是'余學'中'譯學'的開始。"(黃維樑,1994,417)然而,此後的幾年裏有關余光中與翻譯的專門探討鮮有出現,直到進入21世紀,情況才有所改觀。總體說來,當前論述余光中翻譯的研究成果可粗略分為以下幾類:(1)譯作對比研究(多集中於《老人與海》譯本、王爾德戲劇譯本及零散的譯詩等);(2)余

光中詩歌翻譯(自譯)研究,如江藝(2007,2008);(3)余光中戲劇翻譯研究(以《不可兒戲》譯本研究居多);(4)余光中翻譯與創作關係研究,如胡秋冉(2010)、江藝(2013)、金聖華(2019)等;(5)余光中翻譯話語、理論、思想研究,如黃維樑(1994)、穆雷(1998)、陳才俊(2005)、羅選民(2008)、鄭清斌(2010)、票長江(2011)、張瑞(2015/2019,2017)、吳彥汝(2019)等。此外,關於翻譯家研究的部分書籍中,也有對余光中翻譯活動的零星論述,如《中美詩緣》(2001)、《福建翻譯家研究》(2004)、《名家名論名譯》(2005)等。概言之,國內有關"翻譯家余光中"的研究卻甚為有限。現有研究多流於較為膚淺的譯本對比分析,對余光中翻譯觀點或思想的歸納也趨於簡單化處理,並未將余光中的譯論、譯評置於不同的"脈絡"(context)中加以充分地分類考察。總之,對翻譯家余光中的研究,尚缺乏对其不同译作的翻译策略、翻译风格、翻译思想等方面作系统、全面、深度地探讨。

2.2 《翻譯家余光中》概覽

單德興所著《翻譯家余光中》主體內容由"論述""訪談""散文"三大部分 11 文章組成,共 332 頁。此外,正文前有一篇帶有"序言"性質的文字<典範在今朝——三者合一、六譯並進的翻譯家余光中>(下稱<典範在今朝>,11 頁,並配圖 1 幅),對該書的寫作緣起、結構框架等進行了必要的說明和解釋。

〈典範在今朝〉一文,在敘述寫作緣由時,作者回顧了自己與老師余光中的師生情緣,簡介了老師因捧傷頭部,體質漸弱,至住院,去世的經歷,並對未能在老師辭世前完成此書出版事宜,表達了深深的遺憾和懊悔。字裏行間,師恩潺潺,令人動容。鑒於老師畢生豐碩的"譯績"鮮有關注,特別是余光中作為"翻譯家"的身份幾近掩沒,著者深受激發,"忝為余老師的門生,身兼學者與譯者雙重身份,鑽研並彰顯業師的翻譯成就,對 '余學'略效綿薄之力,實在責無旁貸。"(單德興,2019,3)

"論述"部分為四篇有關余光中譯詩、譯論、譯評的學術論文(占全書篇幅的約 2/3,是全書的重中之重),史論結合,脈絡清晰,分析細緻,論點精到。<一位年輕譯詩家的畫像——析論余光中的《英詩譯注》>(下稱<一位年輕譯詩家的畫像>)一文,詳細考察了余光中最早的英詩漢譯集《英詩譯注》,從體例、修訂,到文本分析,結論歸納,既有宏觀把握,又有微觀品評,指出《英詩譯注》"既是譯注者初試啼聲的英詩中譯結集,也反映出他當時的翻譯理念與策略……具現了他早年'研究'與'提倡'英詩的努力與功力,並預示了'三者合一'的翻譯、譯評與譯論"(單德興,2019,3)。<含華吐英:自譯者余光中——析論余光中的中詩英文自譯>(下稱<含華吐英>)一文,探討的則是余光中漢語新詩的英文自譯,即考察同為作者和譯者的他在英譯時的選詩標準、翻譯策略及意義和特色。單德與(2019,5)指出,余光中漢語新詩的英文自譯與原詩平起平坐,相互輝映,在另一種語文脈絡中獲得了新生(afterlife)。<左右手之外的繆斯——析論余光中的譯論與譯評>(下稱<左右手之外的繆斯>)一文,搜集整理余光中有關譯者地位、譯者的條件、翻譯的地位、英詩中譯的實際批評等論述和觀點,指出他理論與實踐結合,譯論與譯評獨具特色,從而翻譯與詩歌、散文創作和文學評論互為表裏,彼此增益。<在冷戰的年代——英華煥發的譯者余光中>(下

稱〈在冷戰的年代〉)一文,與以上三篇論文不同的是,單德興將身為譯者的余光中置於宏大歷史脈絡中,探討其在"冷戰時代"與"美國新聞處"相關的四部中英互譯作品^[3]的翻譯經過及譯作特色,在展現余光中駕馭中英語言的不凡能力的同時,也反映了譯者個人在特殊政治歷史環境中的堅守與取捨。

"訪談"部分收錄了三篇訪談錄,其中兩篇是著者對余光中的訪談,另外一篇是 在余光中去世後,著者對其夫人範我存女士的訪談。< 勤耕與豐收 > 是著者於 2010 年 6 月 11 日在高雄中山大學文學院外文系對余光中的一次訪談錄。此次訪談主要涉 及余光中的求學歷程、所學課程與授課老師、翻譯經歷、教學改革、及所教課程和學 牛等,是對余光中從學牛到譯者,再到教師身份轉換的生動素描,特別是其中對余光 中與其授課老師之間交流的點滴細節呈現,在讓讀者瞭解學生時代余光中的同時,也 從其身上折射出像梁實秋、黃瓊玖、趙麗蓮、曾約農等师者為人師表、誨人不倦的風 采。<第十位繆斯>是著者於 2012 年 12 月 7 日在高雄中山大學文學院余光中教授研 究室對余光中的一次訪談。訪談圍繞翻譯展開,就余光中與翻譯的結緣、《梵穀傳》等 譯事回顧、出國進修、翻譯策略與技巧、翻譯教學、翻譯評論、編譯與轉譯、自譯與 他譯、翻譯推廣、譯者地位、翻譯與創作及未來的翻譯計畫等方面,對余光中進行了 全方位的深入訪談,為專業讀者(研究者)呈现了一幅翻譯家余光中的全身"工笔画" 肖像,有助於學界全面認識、深入理解翻譯家余光中。< 守護與自持——範我存訪談 錄 > 是著者在業師余光中去世後,於 2018 年 3 月 12 日在高雄市左營區光興街余府對 師母的訪談,內容涉及師母的家庭成長背景、與余光中的相識和交往,以及為支持丈 夫的人生志業對家庭的操持與守護,最重要的是單德興向讀者展現了師母眼中的翻譯 家余光中是如何"練成"的。

"散文"部分收錄著者追憶、緬懷業師余光中的四篇抒情散文,每篇篇幅相對較短,語言樸實,文筆流暢,敘事抒情,娓娓道來。< 既開風氣又為師——指南山下憶往>一文,追憶了著者大學時代"在指南山下親炙余老師的經驗,並見證余老師在擔任系主任的短短兩年間對全校藝文風氣的提升,以及對我個人的重大影響,打破了一般人心目中詩人遺世獨立、脫離現實的刻板印象"(單德興,2019,7)。< 翠玉白菜的聯想——余光中別解>一文,由余光中詩"翠玉白菜"展開聯想,追憶余老師的授課情景,論及譯詩(自譯),並延伸至余光中對工藝、詩藝、乃至人生的看法,帶有文藝批評的色彩。< "在時光以外奇異的光中"——敬悼余光中老師>一文,描述了著者得知老師余光中辭世消息後的震驚、悲傷與無奈心情,並由此追述了與余老師四十余年的學緣、參與余老師有關的活動與籌畫工作、以及撰寫的有關余老師的一些文章等。言辭懇切,飽含深情,充溢著對余老師的懷念與感恩。< "譯"往情深,精進不已——追念翻譯家余光中老師>一文,從翻譯視角切入,追溯余老師畢生的翻譯因緣與譯績,並介紹在余光中生命的最後一年仍孜孜不倦地修訂第三版《守夜人》和增訂再版的《英美現代詩選》,其對翻譯精益求精的精神,足為典範。

該書"論述""訪談""散文"三大部分彼此勾連,相互映襯,在圍繞翻譯述說師 生情緣的同時,也向讀者展現了一個勤奮、博學、嚴謹的翻譯家形象。

三、《翻譯家余光中》之特色:形散神聚

該書較此前有關單個翻譯家研究專著,有其獨特之處:多文體呈現,多視角觀 感,多脈絡定位。主要表現如下:

3.1 多文體呈現

該著彙集了單德興多年來有關研究業師余光中的不同性質的文字:嚴謹的學術論文,互動的深度訪談,深情的個人散文,並輔以題獻、題記、註腳、附篇、附錄等各類副文本,還配以圖表、圖片與圖說——即散"形";從而多維立體地凸顯了翻譯家余光中的完整形象——即聚"神"。全書各部分既相互參照,又彼此烘托,賞心悅目,真實可感。

嚴謹的學術論文,因格式固定、語言生硬,素有"學術八股"之稱,然而,書中單德興這四篇關於余光中與翻譯的學術論文,卻形式靈活多樣,語言精准、生動而親切。全書共配圖 69 幅(每幅圖下方都有簡略圖說,說明圖片來源、提供者、拍攝者及時間等資訊等,圖書封面圖片則標注出版社名稱、出版時間及版次等),占 36 頁,而僅僅這四篇學術論文中就有 21 幅。此部分另有 < 附篇——余光中英文自譯詩作之演變 > (3 頁) 一篇和長達 23 頁的圖表,作為《含華吐英》一文的補充說明材料,附於其後。儘管是嚴謹的學術論文,但單德興的語言生動而精准,給人以親切感。標題"英華"煥發的譯者"中,仿擬成語"英姿煥發",但用引號著重強調的"英華"二字卻別有用意:"英"指英文,"華"指中文,以"英華"煥發形容譯者余光中,既凸顯了他精通中英文、善於英中互譯,又表現了余光中譯作頻出、譯續豐碩的特點;再如"守夜人語:守著黑夜守著筆",借用余光中詩集名《守夜人》,喻指余光中對翻譯志業的執著追求,不懼黑夜,不輟譯筆;此標題又與後文各小標題"自譯者言——變通的藝術""自譯者行:作者與譯者的自我辯證""雙語者譯:自譯與他譯""第三者言:來生與互補"等,形成對仗規整的排比形式,言簡意賅,提綱挈領,妙不可言。

訪談法是人文社科研究中的一種常用方法。通過訪談,研究者可以直接獲取相關研究資訊和珍貴一手資料。因此,訪談具有真實、有效的特點,而"對話中的活潑與現場感"則是訪談的重要特色(單德興,2016b,3)。[4]著者單德興(2001,013-037)在《對話與交流:當代中外作家、批評家訪談錄》的〈緒論〉中,曾對訪談的特色、意義、話語修辭、對話雙方微妙的互動與權力關係、以及主訪者對受訪者與讀者所獨具的再現的權力/權利與義務等,進行過詳細闡述,對訪談的來說去脈已然了然於心。不僅如此,自 20 世紀 80 年代以來[5],單德興先後進行過近 40 次學術訪談,輯成三部中文訪談集[6],經驗可謂相當豐富。在單德興(2016b,2)看來,訪談與獨立研究不同在於,訪談"涉及與他人的互動協商,過程中會出現無法事先掌握的變數,但也正因如此,為雙方帶來了意想不到的轉折和驚奇",而且,"訪談涉及知識、經驗與智者的分享",令人有"聽君一席話,勝讀十年書"的獲得感與滿足感。然而"深度訪談是非常勞力密集的工作",事先需要訪談者閱讀與被訪者有關的大量資料,並準備相關問題,同時,對話中的多方探詢與隨機應變,對話後的謄打編輯與往返修訂,都需要

專心、細心和耐心。

該書的三篇訪談錄,從篇幅來說約占全書的 1/3,有圖片 41 幅。每篇均分"前言"和"正文"兩部分,其中<第十位繆斯>篇幅最長(共48頁),25000余字,配圖 24幅,還附有"後記",僅正文部分就列有 13個話題,分門別類,思路清晰。這"是有關他[余光中]在翻譯領域篇幅最長、內容最廣泛、討論最深入的訪談……翻譯家現身說法,娓娓道來,聽者既如沐春風,又如享受知識盛宴"(單德興,2019,6)。可見,著者為訪談所做的準備工作異常充分,這就保證了訪談的品質和效果,堪稱訪談法的模範之作。正如臺灣國立交通大學外國語文系教授馮品佳所說"談到臺灣的學術訪談著述,單德興先生絕對是個中翹楚。"(單德興,2009,3)

至於散文這一文體,人們常以"形散神聚"來形容其特點。形散是指語言形式靈活、表現手法多樣;神聚則指中心明確、主題集中。在〈典範在今朝〉一文中,單德興(2019,7)認為,"論文與訪談錄因體例之故,無法容納較為個人的敘述與抒情成分……四十五年的深厚情誼,唯有透過散文才能抒發",故而該書所錄四篇回憶業師余光中的抒情散文,語言或樸實坦率,情感真摯;或旁徵博引,哲思縈繞;長句鋪陳舒暢,表意完整;短句靈活有力,言簡意賅;更有四字短語,點綴其間,輾轉騰挪,婉轉起伏,使字句表述極富節奏性,令情感表達極具真摯感。儘管四篇散文作於不同時期,時間跨度較大,但字裏行間都充溢著著者對業師的崇敬,感恩,和懷念。由此不難看出,余光中已然成為著者單德興文學與翻譯的領路人,人生和事業的引導師。這也難怪在該書扉頁的題獻中,著者稱"謹將此書敬獻給文學與翻譯的啟蒙師余光中教授(1928-2017)"。

另外,從成書體例上看,除上述主體三大部分內容外,還有題記、附錄和註腳。題記文字緊跟題獻之後,專引余光中關於譯者與學者、作者的區別,認為譯者為"神之巫師,天才之代言人"。這可視為貫穿於此書的一條主線,穿插於圍繞譯者、翻譯家余光中展開的譯事追溯、譯作品評、譯論探討等等。附錄"余光中譯作一覽表"按時間順序列出了余光中 15 種譯作的首版與修訂版資訊,以備各層次讀者按圖索驥,搜集相關資料。此外,該書幾乎每頁都附有大量註腳,內容繁雜而詳實,主要涉及有關譯事說明、文獻史料補充、疑難解釋等資訊。即便是書末附加的"部分人名、作品名對照表"(人名 51 個、作品名 4 個、地名 1 個)也加有註腳:

此處所列之人名、作品名和地名,部分涉及余光中翻譯的具體內容,並有對於翻譯脈絡變遷的表現;部分為直接引文;部分體現了港臺翻譯的特點。 為保證書稿的準確與邏輯,以及行文一貫性,保留這些譯名,並列此表以 供讀者參考。人名、作品名、地名按拼音依次排序。(單德興,2019,330)

不僅如此,對此三類譯名,還列出了當前通行的今譯名,以方便大陸和港、臺地區的讀者比照和理解。值得一提的是,儘管單德興(2019,9-10)在<典範在今朝>一文中坦言"本書集結了個人多年來有關余老師的論文、訪談與散文……各篇文字在撰寫及發表前已多次修訂……",但著者仍然在每篇文章的末尾另加註腳,詳細說明該文首次發表的時間、刊物(名稱)、卷期及頁碼範圍,以便讀者查證和參考。由此,這些文章便顯現了著者多年來眾多學術研究脈絡中的一支——翻譯家余光中研究。由此

觀之,單德興為學之嚴謹,行事之認真,做人之誠懇,可見一斑。

3.2 多視角觀感

通常來說,"視角"(perspective 或 point of view)是指敘述者敘述時觀察故事的角度(申丹,2006,511)。在中外文學研究中,研究者常用不同視角來分析各類文本;對同一文學文本,如小說、戲劇、詩歌等,也常從作品中某一角色的視角出發,借助精神分析,來觀感、折射其他角色的心理狀態、性格特點、乃至角色原型(archetype)等。單德興在論述翻譯家余光中時,借助多視角,從多方位來觀感、考量余光中的譯事、譯績、譯作、譯論和譯評等方面,為讀者展現了一個詩人、散文家、評論家之外的翻譯家形象。

從著者來看,單德興有雙重身份(學術研究者、余光中的學生),帶有雙重視 角。單德興以客觀的學術研究者視角切入,主要體現在該書收錄的四篇嚴謹的學術論 文中。首先,單德興以學者(研究者)客觀、嚴謹的眼光,來考察、分析、檢視余光 中與翻譯,向讀者展現了一個對待譯事認真、嚴謹的余光中形象。其次,單德興作為 "余門弟子",從學生的視角來觀感老師余光中,主要表現在四篇散文中:追憶與余老 師的結緣,回顧余老師的課堂授課、對自己在文學和翻譯方面的引導,以及工作中對 自己的提攜與關懷,從而向讀者展示了一個文學業師、翻譯導師的余光中形象。需要 特別指出的是,三篇訪談錄以其獨特的面對面談話的形式,巧妙地融合了單德興既作 為研究者,又作為"余門弟子"的雙重身份和雙重視角。

師母範我存及其女兒幼珊視角,主要表現在訪談錄<守護與自持>中。儘管該篇 訪談的對象為師母範我存,但從與師母的交談中,也零散地反射、乃至折射出其丈夫 余光中生活中的瑣事與細節,特別是《梵穀傳》《老人與海》的翻譯始末、出國進修講 學時的書信聯絡等,而且諸多細節可與此前兩篇訪談錄對照。另外,此次訪談還有余 光中的二女公子幼珊從旁協助,適時補充有關細節,也映射出一個女兒眼中的翻譯家 余光中形象。

此外,在著者另外的兩篇訪談錄中,還可發現其他視角,如余光中師長梁實秋、趙麗蓮、吳炳鍾、安格爾、吳魯芹等教授的視角,儘管當時余光中還是初涉翻譯的學生,但這些師長的教導、引導、鼓勵與推薦,的確展現了一個年輕的、成長中的翻譯家余光中形象。

綜上所述,著者多方位的觀感視角,為讀者呈現了余光中從一個初涉翻譯的稚嫩 學生,到逐漸成熟的譯者,再到譯績豐碩的翻譯家的"修煉"歷程。

3.3 多脈絡定位

翻譯作為一種跨語言、跨文化,乃至跨時空的交際實踐活動,從一開始便關涉不同的脈絡。而譯者作為"兩個文化交界的協商者、使者、把關人"(關詩珮,2017,14),作為文化時空的旅行家、文化的傳遞者和解釋者(鄒振環,2017,322),更是在多元化的脈絡中,扮演著"中介者、溝通者、傳達者、介入者、操控者、轉換者、背叛者、顛覆者、揭露者/掩蓋者、能動者/反間者、重置者/取代者、脈絡化者、甚至

雙重脈絡化者的角色",可以說,"沒有譯者,就沒有翻譯;沒有翻譯,異文化之間就無法交流,文學與文化就會枯萎。"(單德興,2016c,vi-viii)多年來,單德興在大量翻譯實踐的基礎上,不斷思考、探索和總結,在研究翻譯的理念與方法上,主張"siting/citing translation",從而形成了其所謂"雙重脈絡化"(dual contextualization)。在他(2016c,203)看來,翻譯是一時一地的產物,必須落實於特定的時空脈絡來探討,方能顯現其歷史與文化特殊性;同時,翻譯也是一字一句的積累,深入討論時必須引用原文與譯文,相互參照,進行細部的文本分析與批評。換言之,在討論翻譯時,以"citing"(引用)來落實於文本(text),以"siting"(安置)來鑲嵌於脈絡,兼顧內緣與外緣,而且適時運用並檢視相關理論及文獻,以期理論、批評與歷史相互映照,彼此修訂。在《翻譯家余光中》一書中,單德興同樣將余光中置於不同的時空脈絡中加以考察,即在歷史文化的宏觀脈絡與個人、文本的微觀脈絡中定位作為翻譯家的余光中。

宏觀的歷史文化脈絡分析,集中於"論述"部分的四篇學術論文中。無論是析論 六十年代的英詩中譯《英詩譯注》《美國詩選》,還是探究"冷戰年代"翻譯的《滿田的 鐵絲網》和《錄事巴托比》,在彰顯余光中出入於英/華之間可觀譯績的同時,也在廣 闊的歷史文化宏大脈絡中凸顯了"文學翻譯超越一時一地的意識形態與政治框架,具 有更恒久的價值"(單德興,2019,4)。

其實,宏觀的歷史文化脈絡中也蘊含著個人、文本等的微觀脈絡,二者之間顯現了整體與部分的關係。就余光中個人翻譯的微觀脈絡來說,如上文所述,余光中 20 世紀 60、70 年代的可觀譯績,也是其個人一生翻譯志業脈絡中的重要一環。此點更為直觀地展現在"附篇——余光中英文自譯詩作之演變"(頁 131-156)和"附錄——余光中譯作一覽表"(頁 328-329)中。順著這一脈絡,我們既可看到余光中翻譯志業的步步歷程,又能體會到余光中對譯作不斷修訂而精益求精的翻譯態度和嚴謹作風。此外,單德興在<典範在今朝>一文中稱余光中為"三者合一、六譯並進",三"者"即作者、學者、譯者,這是在個人身份歸屬脈絡中對余光中身份的定位;六"譯"並進,即翻譯、論翻譯、教翻譯、編譯詩選集、漢英兼譯,及提倡翻譯,這是就個人與翻譯的關係脈絡中對余光中貢獻的定位。從單德興對師母及其女兒的訪談中,我們也可看到翻譯家余光中在家庭成員的親情脈絡中的定位,等等。

單德興(2019,183)認為,談論余光中的翻譯志業,不宜僅就翻譯論翻譯,應該將其置於余光中本人的創作脈絡,以及中國語文、文學甚至文化的脈絡中進行考察。綜觀余光中畢生寫作事業,在其 "寫作生命的四度空間"裏,翻譯,在詩歌、散文、評論的寫作脈絡中,發揮著不容忽視的作用。這點體現在單德興從文本層面的微觀脈絡中對余光中譯作的分析考察。在探討其漢語新詩英語自譯時,單德興統觀中英雙語詩歌文本,借助詩人自己的譯論,並參照他譯(葉維廉譯詩),從行數、字數、標點、詞性、詞意、意象、音韻、句法等方面,進行了細緻分析,認為同時作為作者和譯者的余光中,在自譯時充分顯示了 "作者/自譯者的權威",不再只是僅謹守原作的形式,而是 "因文制宜",別出心裁,大膽創新(單德興,2019,125)。在考察這一部分時,單德興還旁徵博引,從專門收入余光中有關翻譯論述的《余光中談翻譯》(2002)書

中,適時摘引觀點,論述翻譯與創作,翻譯與評論的關係,等等。

通過多脈絡的定位,單德興為讀者呈現了不同脈絡層面的翻譯家余光中形象。其實,無論是多脈絡的定位,還是多視角的觀感,乃至多文體的呈現,儘管"形"散,但都聚"神"於余光中作為翻譯家身份的這一不容置疑的客觀定位。

四、《翻譯家余光中》之意義:譯家研究新視野

單德興新著《翻譯家余光中》的出爐,其意義不僅僅在於為國內翻譯家研究、乃 至翻譯史研究提供一個分析案例,還在於其文獻史料和方法論方面的獨特價值,為翻 譯研究拓展了新視野。

首先,提供了豐富而珍貴的文獻史料。無論在"附篇""附錄"中,還是在註腳裏,著者都提供了大量、詳實的有關余光中譯事經過、"美新處"譯介運作、乃至臺灣譯擅譯事等珍貴史料;同時,每篇文章最後的"引用資料"部分,實際上為余光中翻譯研究者提供了一個詳盡的文獻目錄、索引。

其次,提供了翻譯家研究的新思路——多脈絡定位。著者將余光中置於不同的時空脈絡中進行考察,既有在宏觀歷史文化脈絡中的定位,又有在微觀的個人經歷、文本寫作脈絡中的定位,萬微觀於宏觀,在文字-文本-文學-文化的分析脈絡中,為研究對象進行客觀、合理的準確定位。

再者,提供了翻譯家研究的新方法——多文體呈現、多視角觀感。該書熔嚴謹的學術論文——"論述"、互動的深度對談——"訪談"和深情的個人追憶——"散文"等多種文體於一爐,兼具學術的科學性、客觀性與個人情感的真摯性、主觀性,運筆於學術語言、日常語言、文學語言之間,多元呈現了余光中的翻譯家形象。

回顧歷史,總結當下,目的是預測未來。對不同時期的翻譯家譯事、譯績、譯論 及譯評等進行歷史脈絡的梳理,總結當前研究的成果和經驗,並對今後的翻譯家研 究、乃至翻譯史研究進行合理指導和預測,其意義自不必多言。"不積跬步無以至千 里,不積小流無以至江海"。在這一過程中,翻譯史不斷得以延伸和擴展。在某種意 義上,一部翻譯史實際上就是一部思想史,一部文化交流史(羅選民,2017,60)。 一部中國翻譯史,某種意義上可以說是一部著名翻譯家及其重要譯作的編年錄(鄒 振環,2017,322),將翻譯家的譯事和譯論進行脈絡化梳理、語境化分析,以點連 線,以線帶面,以面構體,營造中國翻譯史研究的獨特話語空間,以推動中國譯學 研究與國際譯學、漢學研究的接軌與對話。正如現代經驗科學所宣導的"描寫人們 經驗世界的特殊現象,然後進行分析、解釋,試圖制定出某些普遍的通則,以預測未 來。"(Hempel 1964,1)翻譯史研究不止於描述、解釋過去,更應該闡釋身邊的現實 問題(Pym 2014,x)。余光中已然離世,然而其留存於世的豐富詩、文、譯作,依然 是一個有待開採和深入挖掘的知識寶庫。余光中的中文創作、寫作與翻譯,可視為另 一種脈絡的"語際書寫"或"跨語際實踐"[7],其中有關中英互譯在語言文化上的問題、 民族話語問題、跨語際寫作主體問題等,似乎也可以納入中國現代思想史寫作脈絡中 進行考察。這在"我們的翻譯史研究在思想史方面下的功夫還不夠"(羅選民,2017,

59)的情況下,不乏填補和充實意義。同樣,由於各類文本都是發散型的結構,本身都具有開放性,如果將余光中的譯作、譯論、譯評與其創作進行"文本間的互文解讀,又能體察到它與別的文本間的種種關聯,由此將所要討論的問題擴散開來,並獲得對所要研究對象的深入理解"(張旭,2010,42)。也就是說,若以余光中的譯論、譯評打通其寫作生命的"四度空間",並將此置於古今、中外的坐標系中進行考察:於古今的歷時脈絡中,探討余光中所謂"白以為常,文以應變"^[8];於中外的共時脈絡中,探討余光中所謂"西以求新,但以見真"^[9],在歷時與共時的交織中,拓寬並延展研究視域,顯現並聚焦研究盲點,從而把研究問題引向深入。

就當下而言,在增強"文化自信"、積極宣導中國文學文化"走出去"的歷史脈絡中,余光中的中文創作、中英互譯實踐、以及大量譯論、譯評等,彼此勾連,相互渗透,具有鮮明的代表性。學界對此進行深入挖掘和探討,也便具有了不容忽視的學術價值和當下意義。特別是在目前"中譯外與國家建設需求和時代發展的要求還有相當距離,高水準翻譯力量還不足,水準有限,品質難以保障"(黃友義,2014,3)的形勢下,對以余光中中詩英語自譯實踐為代表的中國文學"自譯"[10]進行研究,從中尋繹出一般規律,並適時應用於譯者培養實踐中。只有這樣,才能確保民族文學翻譯從"他譯"有效地向"自譯"[11]轉變,也就是在中西文化交流和對話過程中,"由中國譯者盡力發揮主動權,將更多優秀的中國文學作品譯介出去,讓其真正地進入世界文學多元系統中,並為世界各國人民廣泛地閱讀和欣賞"(張旭,2019,68)。因此,對像余光中、黎翠珍等雙語作家兼翻譯家的自譯實踐進行深入研究,可為在當下中國文學文化"走出去"的路徑探討中,有關譯者主體模式的探索提供參考和思路。

五、結論

單德興通過此書為我們呈現了一個勤奮、嚴謹的詩人、散文家、評論家之外的翻譯家余光中形象。作為臺灣文學史、甚至中國文學史上鮮見的"四棲"人物,余光中的翻譯與其創作、評論有著千絲萬縷的聯繫。能於如此繁多的脈絡中,條分縷析地將翻譯家余光中形象鮮明、清晰地展示於讀者,離不開著者單德興作為譯者多年翻譯實踐的感同身受,也離不開他作為學者經年浸淫文學文化研究的探索感悟。單德興(2016c,vi)在《翻譯與脈絡》"前言"中,曾指出"譯文既是譯者存在的最佳證明,也見證了他的諸種角色,而譯者在代表/再現原作(者)的同時,也代表/再現了自己",同樣,單德興在再現、定位翻譯家余光中的同時,也再現、定位了自己。值得一提的是,該著各篇文字在收錄本書前,多已零散發表在期刊或論文輯刊中,時間跨度約20年,雖經多次修訂,但編入此書後,在內容上偶有重疊或重複論述現象。當然,瑕不掩瑜,該著的鮮明特色和獨特價值有目共睹,期待單德興更多精彩著述的問世。

注釋

- [1] 同年,另有內地學者張旭教授研究當代香港女翻譯家黎翠珍的專著《心田的音樂: 翻譯家黎翠珍的英譯世界》(2019,清華大學出版社)出版。
- [2] 香港學者、作家黃維樑在其所編的《璀璨的五采筆:余光中作品評論集(1979-1993)》(臺北:九歌出版社,1994)的〈導言〉(頁001-004)中指出,余光中在綿長逾四十年的寫作生涯中,左右手所握的是"五色之筆":即用紫色筆寫詩,用金色筆寫散文,用黑色筆寫評論,用紅色筆編輯文學作品,用藍色筆來翻譯。
- [3] 此四部中英互譯作品為:英譯詩選 New Chinese Poetry (《中國新詩集錦》,1960)、合譯詩選《美國詩選》(Anthology of American Poetry,1961)、自譯詩選 Acres of Barbed Wire (《滿田的鐵絲網》,1971),以及中譯小說《錄事巴托比》(Bartleby the Scrivener,1972)。
- [4] 單德興(2016),<簡體字版序>,見單德興(2016)著,《文心學思:當代名家 訪談錄》,廣州:廣東人民出版社,第3頁。此序為單德興專為該簡體字版所寫, 2014年臺灣出版(臺北:允晨文化實業股份有限公司)的《卻顧所來徑:當代名 家訪談錄》沒有。
- [5] 單德興(2009,10)在<與智者為伍:我的訪談因緣>一文中,提到他第一次訪談的時間為1983年,訪談的對象是他在臺灣大學外文研究所的老師——小說家王文興。見單德興(2009)著,《與智者為伍:亞美文學與文化名家訪談錄》,臺北:允晨文化實業股份有限公司,6-16。
- [6] 分別為:《對話與交流:當代中外作家、批評家訪談錄》(臺北:麥田出版有限公司,2001)、《與智者為伍:亞美文學與文化名家訪談錄》(臺北:允晨文化實業股份有限公司,2009)、《卻顧所來徑:當代名家訪談錄》(臺北:允晨文化實業股份有限公司,2014)。其中《卻顧所來徑:當代名家訪談錄》簡體字版名為《文心學思:當代名家訪談錄》(廣州:廣東人民出版社,2016),特此說明。
- [7] 此處僅借用劉禾所著《語際書寫:現代思想史寫作批判綱要》(修訂本)(廣西師範大學出版社 2017)、《跨語際實踐:文學,民族文化與被譯介的現代性(中國,1900-1937)》(生活·讀書·新知三聯書店 2014)書名中的說法,並不涉及劉禾著中所論內容。
- [8] "白以為常,文以應變"一說,最早見於余光中(1996,190)<論的的不休>一文,見余光中(2002)著,《余光中談翻譯》,北京:中國對外翻譯出版公司,178-192。"白"即白話文,"文"即文言文。
- [9] "西以求新,俚以見真"一說,見於郭虹(2010,52),<擁有四度空間的學者: 余光中訪談錄>,《文藝研究》2,47-59。"西"指西文,"俚"指俚語。在此次訪 談中,余光中坦言,古典文學是其寫作生命的主流,也是上游,而古典文學的載 體——文言文,更是其寫作語言的根底、骨架。另外,他還指出,文言不但撐持 了他的白話文,更成為他翻譯英文詩的籌碼。
- [10] 此處的"自譯"指狹義的自譯,即譯者自己翻譯自己創作的作品,類似周領順所 界定的"作者譯"(即作為作者的譯者對自己作品的翻譯)。余光中、蕭乾等均屬

- 於周領順所說的"作者譯"。見周領順(2016),<"作者譯"與"譯者譯"——為 "自譯"重新定性>,《解放軍外國語學院學報》6,102-107。
- [11] 此處的"自譯"指廣義的自譯,即中國譯者翻譯中國作家創作的文學作品。

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