

目錄 CONTENTS

vi Chief Editor's Note

論文 Articles

- 1 Translatability: A Sociolinguistic Perspective *Qu Zongde*
22 The TACT Machine Translation System: Problems and Solutions for the Pair Korean-French *Sylviane Cardey, Peter Greenfield & Mi-Seon Hong*
45 語用翻譯初探 何 鍵
68 從語篇功能看地域性方言的翻譯 王 惠
81 台灣地區翻譯批評之初步分析 胡功澤

書評 Book Review

- 102 A Panoramic View of Interpretation Studies *Rachel Lung*

書話 Book News

- 107 本來都是夢裏遊 夢裏開心夢裏愁
——跨越三個世紀的兩段文字因緣
110 稿約凡例 Guidelines for Contributors
114 徵求訂戶啟事 Subscribing to *Translation Quarterly*
116 訂閱表格 Subscription Order Form

ISSN 1027855927



9 771027 855003

Translation Quarterly

No. 27 2003

Special Issue V

Selected papers presented at the FIT -
Third Asian Translators' Forum

香港翻譯學會出版

翻譯季刊

二〇〇三年
第二十七期
國際譯協第三
屆亞洲翻譯家
論壇專號
(五)

Published by
The Hong Kong Translation Society

Translation Quarterly

No. 27 2003

Special Issue V

Selected papers presented at the FIT -
Third Asian Translators' Forum

香港翻譯學會出版

Published by

The Hong Kong Translation Society

翻譯季刊

二〇〇三年
第二十七期
國際譯協第三屆亞洲
翻譯家論壇專號
(五)

《翻譯季刊》

二〇〇三年三月 第二十七期

版權所有，未經許可，不得轉載。

Translation Quarterly

No. 27, March 2003

All Rights Reserved

Copyright © 2003 THE HONG KONG TRANSLATION SOCIETY

ISSN 1027-8559-27

Printed by C & C OFFSET PRINTING CO., LTD. 中華商務彩色印刷有限公司承印

翻譯季刊
Translation Quarterly

香港翻譯學會
The Hong Kong Translation Society

主編 Chief Editor

劉靖之 Liu Ching-chih

本期執行編輯 Executive Editors of this issue

倪若誠 Robert Neather 潘漢光 Joseph Poon

童元方 Tung Yuan-fang

書評及書話編輯 Book Reviews and Book News Editor

倪若誠 Robert Neather 潘漢光 Joseph Poon

編輯委員會 Editorial Board

劉靖之 (主席) Liu Ching-chih (Chairman)

黎翠珍 Jane Lai 黃國彬 Laurence Wong

金聖華 Serena Jin 羅志雄 Lo Chi-hong

顧問委員會 Advisory Board

鄭仰平 Cheng Yang-ping Mona Baker

高克毅 George Kao Cay Dollerup

賴恬昌 Lai Tim-cheong 葛浩文 Howard Goldblatt

林文月 Lin Wen-yueh Wolfgang Lörcher

羅新璋 Lo Xinzhang 馬悅然 Göran Malmqvist

楊憲益 Yang Xianyi 紐馬克 Peter Newmark

余國藩 Anthony Yu 奈達 Eugene Nida

余光中 Yu Kwang-chung Gideon Toury

編務經理 Editorial Manager

李燕美 Samantha Li

Translation Quarterly No. 27, March 2003

Special Issue V: Selected papers presented at
the FIT - Third Asian Translators' Forum,
6 - 8 December 2001

目錄 CONTENTS

vi Chief Editor's Note

論文 Articles

- 1 Translatability: A Sociolinguistic Perspective *Qu Zongde*
- 22 The TACT Machine Translation System: Problems and Solutions for the Pair Korean-French *Sylviane Cardey, Peter Greenfield & Mi-Seon Hong*
- 45 語用翻譯初探 何 鍵
- 68 從語篇功能看地域性方言的翻譯 王 惠
- 81 台灣地區翻譯批評之初步分析 胡功澤

書評 Book Review

- 102 A Panoramic View of Interpretation Studies *Rachel Lung*

書話 Book News

- 107 本來都是夢裏遊 夢裏開心夢裏愁
——跨越三個世紀的兩段文字因緣
- 110 稿約凡例 Guidelines for Contributors
- 114 徵求訂戶啟事 Subscribing to
Translation Quarterly
- 116 訂閱表格 Subscription Order Form

Chief Editor's Note

Beginning from issue number 23, the *Translation Quarterly* started to publish, selectively, papers presented at the Third Asian Translators' Forum, under the auspices of the Federation Internationale des Traducteurs which took place at the University of Hong Kong from 6 to 7 December and Lingnan University on 8 December 2001. It will probably take six issues to publish all the papers selected for publication, from issues 23 to 28.

As reported in the "Academic News" of the *Translation Quarterly* Nos. 21 & 22, of the more than 180 participants at the Forum, 122 presented papers: two key-note papers at the opening and the closing sessions, four at the four plenary sessions and 116 at the 34 parallel sessions. By 31 January 2002, only 67 of the 122 paper-presenters submitted their revised papers. The Executive Committee of the Hong Kong Translation Society decided to set up two groups to scrutinise the 67 papers, each group consisted of three members, one group for the papers in English and one group for the papers in Chinese. It took more than two months for the six translation scholars to reach a decision on the list of 36 papers for publication in the *Translation Quarterly*, 18 in English and 18 in Chinese.

The Executive Committee appointed six scholars in July 2002 to act as Executive Editors, each to be responsible for editing six papers. The six scholars are:

Papers in English

Professor Chan Sin-wai, Department of Translation, The Chinese University of Hong Kong

Dr. Leo Chan Tak-hung, Department of Translation, Lingnan University

Dr. Robert Neather, Department of Chinese, Translation and Linguistics, City University of Hong Kong

Papers in Chinese

Dr. Chu Chi-yu, Department of Chinese and Bilingual Studies, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

Mr. Joseph Poon Hon-kwong, Department of Chinese, The University of Hong Kong

Dr. Tung Yuan-fang, Department of Translation, The Chinese University of Hong Kong

This is the Fifth Special Issue for the Third Asian Translators' Forum. Contributors will receive three complimentary copies of the *Translation Quarterly* No. 27 as specified in paragraph 10 of the "Guidelines for Contributors".

Chief Editor

February 2003

Translatability: A Sociolinguistic Perspective

Qu Zongde

Abstract

Sociolinguistics attempts to examine how language is actually used by people in society, how language affects society and how language is affected by society. And since, according to some linguists, the study of language without reference to society is unrealistic and misleading, sociolinguistics will inevitably find expression in translation, especially in literary translation.

A significant aspect of sociolinguistics is linguistic variation, i.e. expressing the same thing in different ways as a result of social influence. More specifically, in using the same language to express the same meaning, people of different regions, social groups, as well as in different social situations, will demonstrate different linguistic features or habits, which in fact informs the receptor (reader or listener) of their regions of origin, social classes, occupations, degrees of education, ages, sexes, races, as well as their roles and attitudes in different social situations, etc. The linguistic variation derived from the social distinction of the speaker may therefore be classified into three major categories: (1) the variety of regional dialects; (2) the variety of social dialects, including variety of social class, race, occupation, age and gender; and (3) the variety of communicational functions, including register, phatic communion, politeness formulae, and address terms.

The sociolinguistic variations reflected in literary works and practical writings add to the reality and vividness thereof. If they cannot be reproduced in translation, such information about the speakers will be lost, hence the loss of artistic and communicative effect. Actually, however, the translatability in terms of sociolinguistics is limited, due to the linguistic and social distinctions between source languages and target languages. The degree of translatability, which depends upon the degree of linguistic and cultural correspondence between SL and TL, is different for the three categories because of their different natures and conditions.

Regional dialects are in general impossible of representation in translation as there are no corresponding regional features among the countries using different languages, hence the lack of corresponding regional dialects among different languages. But partial compensation can be made though substituting dialects with colloquial or nonstandard utterance. Social dialects are partly or mostly translatable in that different languages have roughly the same types of social dialects produced by roughly the same social groups of the different nations speaking these different languages, with the exception of variety of race. Variety of communicational functions is mostly transferable in communicative functions, with terms of address least translatable, but in many cases, the referential meaning of these expressions will be changed. This paper details the translatability of each item in the three major categories (e.g. the translatability of variety of social class, of race, of occupation ... in social dialect) with examples, in an attempt to acquire an in-depth, all-round perception on this subject.

Translatability is an indication of the amount of information in a linguistic unit (word, phrase, sentence, text, *etc.*) transferable from source language to target language. The categories of information should cover all the aspects of language: phonological, semantic, syntactic, discorsal, pragmatic, stylistic, cultural, *etc.*, and sociolinguistics is of course one of them. Sociolinguistics presents its features in all the aspects above in translation.

E. A. Nida *et al.* note: "... no translation is ever completely equivalent. A number of different translations can in fact represent varying degrees of equivalence" (1984: 117). Since translatability is not an absolute but a relativistic concept, especially from the macroscopic perspective, a more scientific approach to translatability is to view it as a continuum, as successive degrees of measurement or evaluation, rather than a "Yes or No" distinction. The degree of translatability depends upon the degree of linguistic and cultural-social correspondence between SL and TL.

Sociolinguistics is defined as "the study of language in relation to society" (Hudson 1981: 1). It attempts to examine how language is actually used by people in society, how language affects society and how language is affected by society. And since, according to some linguists (such as R. A. Hudson), the study of language without reference to society is unrealistic and misleading, a position with which I completely agree, sociolinguistics will inevitably find expression in translation, especially in literary translation. A significant aspect of sociolinguistics is linguistic variation, in other words, expressing the same thing in different ways as a result of social influences, and therefore the problem of translation in sociolinguistics is more a matter of linguistic form than that of semantic content.

The linguistic variation derived from the social distinction of the speaker may therefore be classified into three major categories: the variety of regional dialects, the variety of social dialects (or sociolects), including

variety of social class, race, occupation, age or gender, and the variety of communicational functions, including register, phatic communion, politeness formulae, and address terms. In using the same language, people of different geographic regions and social groups as well as in different social situations will demonstrate different linguistic features or habits, which in fact informs the receptors (readers or listeners) of their regions of origin, their social classes, their occupations, their degrees of education, their ages, their sexes, their races, as well as their roles and attitudes in different social situations. As R. A. Hudson puts it: "... every utterance may be seen as an act of identity by its speaker" (1981: 233). The variations reflected in literary works will add to the reality and vividness thereof. If such variations cannot be reproduced in translation, this information will be lost, hence the loss also of artistic and communicative effects.

Actually, however, the translatability in terms of sociolinguistics is limited due to the linguistic, cultural and social diversities between SL and TL. As is found in many cases, the regional or social dialects in source texts can only be rendered into non-dialects in target texts, so that the messages carried by the dialects are expunged.

1. Regional Dialect

Strictly speaking, regional dialects are manifestly impossible to represent in translation. There are various reasons for this. Firstly, there are no corresponding regional features among the countries which use different languages, and naturally, there are no corresponding regional dialects among different languages. For instance, it would not mean very much if one tries to translate northern British dialect into northern Chinese dialect, for the division of region itself is merely relative, and so

is the division of regional dialect. There are certainly no common or corresponding features between northern British dialect and northern Chinese dialect. Such rendering will not remind the target reader of the speaker's region of origin. Secondly, the most common, most conspicuous variation in regional dialect is phonological, and obviously, phonological features are impossible to reproduce in translation, except for a few very distinct cases, sometimes expressed by means of orthography; and although there are some lexical or syntactic variations, they are mostly impossible to reproduce in the target text, as will be seen in the following discussion.

Mark Twain is the first of various American writers who use colorful regional dialects in their novels. In his *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn*, the protagonist speaks ordinary Pike-County dialect, which animates the speaker, realizes the atmosphere of the novel and informs the readers of the regional setting of story. For example:

- (1) You don't know about me, without you have read a book by the name of *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer*, but that ain't no matter.

Version: 你要是沒有看過《湯姆·莎耶歷險記》那本小說，你就不會知道我是甚麼樣的傢伙，不過，那並沒有多大關係。(Zhang Wanli 張萬里 trans., *Hakebeili Fen Lixianji* 《哈克貝里·芬歷險記》)

Incapable of reflecting the dialectal features, the Chinese version has lost the impact of the source text produced by the realistic depiction of ordinary Pike-County dialect.

In British English, in the novel *Lord of the Flies* by William Golding, a boy called Piggy speaks cockney, a London dialect generally spoken in

the slum area. For instance:

- (2) "And that's not all. Them kids. The little 'uns. Who took any notice of 'em? Who knows how many we got?"

(Note: Them=The, 'uns=ones, 'em=them)

Version: 還不止這些。那些小傢伙們，小鬼們，誰留意到他們啦？誰知道咱們究竟有多少小傢伙啊？(Chen Ruilan 陳瑞蘭 trans., *Ying Wang* 《蠅王》)

By comparison, the hero of the novel, Ralf, speaks standard English because he is from a middle class family. In R. A. Hudson's words, "... there is far more geographical variation among people in the lower social classes than there is amongst at the 'top' of the social heap." (1981: 43) Readers of the original can easily perceive the difference in linguistic features, which reminds them of the two boys' different regional and social conditions. By contrast, readers of the Chinese version can hardly see such difference in the linguistic features of the two boys and are liable to neglect the social and regional differences between them. Consequently the responses from the receptors of the source text and from those of the target text must be considerably different, and the functional equivalence theorized by Nida cannot be achieved.

It is still at issue whether or not regional dialect in ST should be rendered into regional dialect in TT. Those in favor of doing so argue that the target reader will at least be aware that the utterance is a dialect, which to some extent agrees with the ST in this connection. Those against object that such rendering is out of place and misleading. As a compromise, compensation can be made by rendering regional dialect into colloquial, vulgar utterance, so as to convey some of the rustic taste in ST.

2. Social Dialect (Sociolect)

Social dialects are more varied and complicated than regional dialects. They are partly translatable in that different languages have roughly the same types of social dialects produced by roughly the same social groups of the different nations speaking these different languages. For instance, there are generally higher, middle and lower social classes; there are the younger, the middle-aged, the older generation, *etc.*, in almost every nation. Even in countries without distinct social classes, there must be some social strata with different degrees of education, such as intellectuals, workers and peasants, and there are the types of social dialects still roughly corresponding to those of other languages because a chief factor which influences social dialect types is the degree of education.

Naturally, each social dialect has its linguistic features, by which receptors can distinguish the varieties of the language. For this reason, in translating speeches of different varieties, one should match them with the corresponding varieties in the TL by producing the linguistic features of the corresponding varieties. For example, variety of lower class speeches in the source text should be translated into the same variety in the TL. In this way basic equivalence between ST and TT is achieved in sociolinguistics.

The corresponding varieties of different languages, however, do not necessarily present their features in the same linguistic items. For example, one variety of the SL may assume its variation chiefly in phonology, but its corresponding variety of the TL chiefly in lexis or syntax, and thus sometimes in translating, the forms of variation of the same type of variety in different languages are not corresponding: one form of variation in the SL is expressed in another form of variation in the TL, as will be discerned in the examples below.

What is worth emphasizing is that firstly, most social dialects in

different languages are only roughly corresponding; secondly, some types of social dialects such as variety of race in one language have no equivalents in another, and consequently the former can only be partly represented whilst the latter can never be represented.

2.1 Variety of Social Class

Generally, middle class speakers use more standard items, which are associated with their social prestige and status, than working class speakers, especially when speaking casually. Since the linguistic variations in working class utterances are less standard and thus more noticeable, examples in this connection are to be discussed here. The fisherman Peggotty in *David Copperfield* by Charles Dickens speaks this way:

- (3) “Fur which purpose,” said Mr. Peggotty, “I means to make her a ’lowance afore I go, as ’ll leave her pretty comfort’ble. She’s the faithfulest of creetures. ’Tan’t to be expected, of course, at her time of life, and being lone and lorn ...”
(Note: Fur=For, means=mean, a ’lowance=an allowance, afore=before, ’ll=I’ll, comfort’ble=comfortable, creeture=creature, ’Tan’t=it isn’t)

Version: “故此我打算，” 坡勾提先生說，“要在我走以前，劃一筆款子給她，能叫她過得舒服點。她這個人，那樣實心實意，忠誠可靠，是那兒也找不出來的，像他這樣的大好老姆，這把年紀了，又是孤單單的苦命人...”
(Zhang Guruo 張谷若 trans., *Dawei Kaopofei* 《大衛·考坡菲》)

Through lexical variation such as “*shi xin shi yi*” 實心實意, “*da hao lao gan*” 大好老姆, and “*gu dandan de*” 孤單單的, the version attempts to

reproduce the verbal manner of an uneducated man in lower social status, but it fails to do so in phonological and grammatical (especially phonological) variations.

2.2 Variety of Race

Linguistic items differ in terms of race, a phenomenon which is confirmed by the research on Black English Vernacular in the USA. Examples of distinctive lexical units in BEV are (the former): dig = understand, evening = afternoon, broad = girl. Apart from the variations in pronunciation and lexical unit, BEV also assumes some variations in grammar. For example, the different forms of the link/auxiliary verb “be” are often dropped; the sentence pattern of existence “there is...” is replaced by “It is...”; the infinitive form of “be” denotes frequent, habitual or repeated action or states. All these cannot be reflected in other languages.

The following is the speech of a Negro slave named Old Jim in *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn*:

- (4) “Doan’ hurt me—don’t! I hain’t ever done no harm to a ghos’. I awluz liked dead people, en done all I could for ’em. Youe go en git in de river again, whah you b’longs, en doan’ do noffn to Old Jim, ’at ’uz awluz yo’ fren”.

Version: “別害我呀——別介！我從來沒有得罪過鬼。我向來喜歡死人，總要拼命幫他們的忙。你是從河裏出來的，還是回河裏去吧，可別傷害老吉姆，他向來是你的朋友哪。” (Zhang Yousong 張友松 and Zhang Zhenxian 張振先 trans., *Hakebeili Fei’en Lixianji* 《哈克貝里·費恩歷記》)

The speech is of the Missouri Negro dialect, full of variations in pronunciation and grammar, such as Doan' = Don't, hain't = haven't, ghos' = ghost, awluz = always, I hain't ever done no harm = I haven't ever done any harm, doan' do noffn = don't do anything, *etc.* None of these can be reproduced in the TT and much of the vividness and additional information on the speaker's race and region are unavoidably lost.

2.3 Variety of Age

Variety of age often results from linguistic change over time and the gap in the nature of age between the old and the young. The variations in the utterances of the younger generation seem more conspicuous as they are more active, more flexible and more innovational.

The following example is of a teenage boy:

- (5) Anyway it was December and all and it was cold as a witch's teat, especially on top of that stupid hill. I only had on my reversible and no gloves or anything. The week before that, somebody'd stolen my camel's-hair coat right out my room, with my fur-lined gloves right in the pocket and all. (J. D. Salinger, *The Catcher in the Rye*)

Version: 嗯，那是十二月，天冷得像巫婆的奶頭，尤其是在這混帳的小山頂上。我只穿了件晴雨兩用的風衣，沒帶手套甚麼的。上個星期，有人從我的房間裏偷走了我的駝毛大衣，大衣口袋裏還放着我那副毛皮裡子的手套。(Shi Xianrong 施咸榮 trans., *Maitian li de Shouwangzhe* 《麥田裏的守望者》)

The original, characterized by loose sentences tagged by such expressions

as “and all”, “or anything”, and by exaggerative comparison, is the variety of age widely current among teenagers in the east of the United States during the 1950s. Its readers may acquire from such variations at least three items of additional information about the narrator: a teenage boy, a native of the East of the USA, and during the 1950s. But hardly any trace of this tone of teenagers is perceivable by readers of the Chinese version, still less the information of the region and times. But sometimes, variety of age can still be reproduced to some extent, especially in lexis, which will be seen in *e.g.* (7) below.

2.4 Variety of Gender

One aspect of variety of gender is the different preference in choice of words. For example, in English-speaking nations men tend to use nonstandard items and expressions with toughness while women, especially young women, have a preference for emotional words and adjectives with some sense of exaggeration such as “terrific”, “marvelous”, “sensational”, *etc.* Moreover Chinese women tend to use more particles than men, such as “*ba*” 吧, “*ma*” 嗎, “*he*” 呵, “*ne*” 呢 and “*lai zhe*” 來着. And it is common to all nations that women use more exclamations than men.

- (6) Bless you, man alive, I'm everywhere. I'm here, and there, and where not, like the conjurer's half-crown in the lady's handkercher. Talking of handkerchers—and talking of ladies—what a comfort you are to your blessed mother, ...” (Charles Dickens, *David Copperfield*).

Version: ……喲，你這家伙，我告訴你吧，我就是沒有不去的地方，我就跟變戲法的那個往太太小姐的手絹兒裏去的半克朗錢一樣，是這兒，那兒，不管甚麼地方，沒有不去

的。我剛才提到手絹兒來着，還提到太太小姐來着，你那位有福氣的媽媽，養了你這樣一個好兒子，是多大的開心丸兒。(Zhang Guruo 張谷若 trans., *Dawei Kaopofei* 《大衛·考坡菲》)

Apart from the feminine features mentioned above, the translator adds some soft-sounding suffixes such as “*er*” 兒 and “*lai zhe*” 來着, vividly representing the feminine manner of speech.

Although both are physiologically and psychologically related, variety of age and variety of gender often do not enjoy the same degree of translatability—one variety is easier to reproduce than the other, as is the case in the following example:

- (7) I took her first to dinner. “Gee, that was a delish dinner,” she said as we left the restaurant. Then I took her to a movie. “Gee, that was a marvy movie,” she said as we left the theater. And then I took her home. “Gee, I had a sensaysh time,” she said as she bade me good night. (Max Shulman, *Love Is Fallacy*)

Version: 我先請她去吃飯。“嘿，這頓飯夠意思，”離開餐館時她說。我又帶她去看電影。“嘿，這片子真有勁兒，”走出劇場時她說。最後我又送她回家。“嘿，我玩得太高興啦，”她和我道晚安時說。(Jilin University Foreign Languages Department 吉林大學外文系 trans., *Aiqing Shi Yizhong Minwu* 《愛情是一種謬誤》)

The girl student’s speech is full of the exclamation “Gee”, and such clipped, vulgar forms as “delish” (for delicious), “marvy” (for marvelous), “sensaysh” (for sensational). These are the casual expressions typical of

young girls.

The varieties of age and gender in the ST present their features in both lexis and pronunciation (expressed through orthography). It is possible for the TT to reproduce the variation of age in lexis to a certain degree (“*hei*” 嘿, “*gou yisi*” 夠意思, “*zhen you jingr*” 真有勁兒, “*tai gaoxing la*” 太高興啦), but impossible in pronunciation. As for the reproduction of gender variation, that is beyond the means of translating.

Variety of gender is more distinct in some languages (Chinese, Japanese, etc.) than in others (e.g. English), so when translating one language distinct in variety of gender into another less distinct in variety of gender, there will be the loss of information in this aspect. For instance in old China, there were different self-depreciatory expressions between the male and the female. For the male, “*biren*” 鄙人, “*laofu*” 老夫, “*laoxiu*” 老朽, etc. and for the female, “*qie*” 妾, “*nu*” 奴, “*laoshen*” 老身, etc. Without such corresponding forms in English, they are indiscriminately translated into “I”, with neither the sense of self-depreciation nor distinction of sexes. The rendering of Li Bai’s 李白 poem “*Nei Dai Zi Zeng*” 內代自贈 is a case in point:

- (8) 寶刀裁流水，無有斷絕時，妾意逐君行，纏綿亦如之。

Version: A sword with the keenest edge
Could not cut the stream of water in twain
So that it would cease to flow.
My thought is like the stream, and flows and follows you
forever. (Obata trans.)

The word “*qie*” 妾 in the ST indicates clearly that this is the expression of a woman, whereas the “My” in the TT offers no information of the speaker’s sex.

2.5 Variety of Occupation

Variety of occupation is characterized by its jargon, giving rise to problems of translatability. Variety of occupation is generally translatable as different nations have generally the same kinds of occupation, with basically equivalent jargon in different languages. What reduces or resists translatability is the culture-, science- or technology-specific jargon found in some occupations, such as that particular to traditional Chinese medical science, which is founded on traditional Chinese philosophy. For example:

- (9) 不如意事常有，則思慮太過：此病是憂慮傷脾，肝木忒旺，經血所以不能按時而至。(Cao Xueqin 曹雪芹, *Hong Lou Meng* 《紅樓夢》, Chapter 10)

Version: Because of this she is easily upset and prone to worry, which has affected her spleen. The element of wood in the liver has produced hot humours which have upset her menstruation. (Yang Xianyi 楊憲益 trans., *The Dream of Red Mansions*)

The medical terms “*pi*” 脾 and “*gan*” 肝 here, which refer to the rather abstract systems of body functions in Chinese medical science, with no equivalents in western medicine, are not equivalent to “spleen” and “liver”, two individual organs in anatomy. Hence the rendering here might lead to misconception on the part of target readers.

Also, some jargon systems in English such as army slang, sailor’s slang, football slang, theatrical slang, *etc.*, may not find equivalents in other languages and have to be rendered into a layman’s words.

3. Variety of Communicational Functions

If the two major categories above concern the linguistic variations related to speakers’ physical characters and social identities, thus deemed as feature-oriented, this major category concerns language use in various social situations, thus deemed as mode-oriented or pragmatics-oriented.

A significant distinction of translatability here is its high relevance to the capacity of reproduction of communicative functions. The modes of utterances in different social situations are mostly translatable in the aspect of communicative functions as different speech communities have roughly the same social situations, but in many cases the referential meaning of these utterances has to be sacrificed.

The translatability may be divided into the following three levels: (1) high: both referential meaning and communicative function are reproducible; (2) middle: communicative function is reproducible but referential meaning is not; and (3) low: both referential meaning and communicative function are not reproducible. Because of the difference in nature, and in the degree of correspondence, of the different social situations, the degrees of translatability of the four sections are different, with register ranked the highest, phatic communion and politeness formulae ranked the second, and address terms the lowest. This ranking is, of course, the writer’s own tentative suggestion.

3.1 Register

It is commonly acknowledged that “...the same person may use very different linguistic items to express more or less the same meaning on different occasions.” (R. A. Hudson 1981: 48), theoretically termed code switching. As different human societies have social communications of generally the same levels of formality, different languages have generally

the same levels of speech, such as formal, informal, casual and intimate. But in written language, especially in formal written language, a gap in level of speech still exists.

According to Hou Weirui 侯維瑞(1988), the difference between formal and informal levels of speech in modern Chinese is not as conspicuous as that in English, due to the fact that in the recent decades Chinese formal speeches and writings have tended to approach the common core, with classical expressions and genteelism decreasing gradually in formal, official documents and public orations; on the other hand, oral informal speeches have also tended to approach the common core, with many scientific, political and philosophical terms entering daily language, a situation which has narrowed the gap between formal and informal levels of speech. By contrast, in English, the level of speech of formal writing such as legal, official documents and public orations, *etc.*, remains rigid, both in wording and in syntactic structure. For example:

- (10) We tender our sincere compliments and express our heartiest thanks and appreciation for the close cooperation and generous patronage you always render to our corporation.

Version: 衷心感謝貴公司對我公司所給予的合作和照顧。
(quoted from Liu Miqing 劉宓慶, *Wenti yu Fanyi* 《文體與翻譯》)

In the English text, very formal expressions are used, such as “tender ... compliments”, “appreciation”, “patronage”, “render”. Their Chinese counterparts, however, are such simple daily words as “*ganxie*” 感謝, “*jiyu*” 給予, “*zhaoguan*” 照顧, *etc.* In addition, the English text is much more redundant and lengthy than its Chinese version. Certainly, this does not mean that Chinese is completely void of such rigid expressions, but since

such rigid expressions are no longer current in modern Chinese, they will seem awkward and improper for communication, if used even in formal writings. While in modern English, such rigid expressions are still in use in formal writings.

3.2 Phatic Communion

Phatic communion, a term coined by anthropologist and linguist Malinowski, refers to a type of speech in which ties of union are created by a mere exchange of words. In such communion, words do not convey meanings. Instead, “They fulfill a social function, and that is their principal aim” (Malinowski 1923: 315).

The problem in translatability here is that different languages often employ different utterances in phatic communion and their referential meanings cannot be reproduced. For instance, Chinese phatic expressions tend to be questions such as “*chile ma?*” 吃了嗎?, “*shang nar qu?*” 上那兒去?, which might be misunderstood by foreigners for “inquires” and lead to pragmatic failure. Unquestionably, priority must be given to functional equivalence in translating, but in so doing, the referential meaning of ST is lost. For example:

- (11) 大家見面，招呼聲“吃了嗎？”透着和氣。（Lao She 老舍：*Liu Jia Da Yuan* 《柳家大院》）

Version: When people meet, they greet each other with a “Hi” just to show their good neighborly feelings. (quoted from Fang Mengzhi 方夢之, *Fanyi Xin Lun yu Shijian* 《翻譯新論與實踐》)

3.3 Politeness Formulae

Politeness, an important principle in language used to show a certain

relationship, is a relativistic notion, and different cultures therefore have different norms of "polite" behavior. It follows that languages vary considerably in this connection. Some languages seem to have built into them a more complex system of politeness than others.

The translatability here involves two points. First, the levels of politeness are often different between SL and TL as a whole, hence the failure to achieve the same level of politeness between them. For instance compared with English, Chinese and Japanese are more politeness-oriented, so that sometimes the high degree of honorific or self-depreciative sense of the latter cannot be reflected in the former. Second, some politeness formulae in SL have no equivalents in TL (lexical gap), hence the loss of equivalence. For instance, the politeness formula "Dear" in letter greetings is an expression of respect rather than of love. If rendered into "*qin'ai*" 親愛的 in Chinese, it is not equivalent in pragmatic function, if rendered into "*zunjingde*" 尊敬的, the degree of respect seems higher than "Dear". The best solution is to omit it.

Another case is the difference between Chinese and English in response to compliments and thanks: Chinese tends to use modest or self-depreciatory expressions meaning that the receiver is unworthy of the compliment or praise while English tends to use expressions of ready acceptance such as "Thank you" and "You are welcome". The rendering of such responses is then faced with only two alternatives: one is literal translation, equivalent only in referential meaning; the other is functional translation, equivalent only in pragmatic or communicative meaning. No rendering can achieve equivalence in both aspects.

3.4 Address Terms

Address terms form a highly culture-specific category and it would be safe to say that there are more differences than similarities in the usage of address terms among different languages. Even the universal

address terms "*xiansheng*" 先生 and "*taitai*" 太太 have different counterparts in English: the former is to be rendered into Mr., Sir or gentleman, and the latter, Mrs., Madam or lady, according to different occasions. The translatability here might therefore be the lowest among the four categories, reflected in the following two points. First, some modes of address in SL have no equivalents in TL. For example, Chinese and many European languages have a T/V distinction (the usage of pronouns expressing solidarity and familiarity vs. pronouns expressing power and politeness), but English does not. Chinese has a more complicated system of kinship terms than English. Second, in many cases the same address terms are used on different occasions or have different associative meanings in different languages, often leading to pragmatic failure in translating. For example, kinship terms employed to address non-kin connote endearment in Chinese, but such usage is associated with members of religious or professional society in English.

For some address terms semantic diversity exists between (seeming) equivalents in different languages, which reflects the diversity in values.

A survey conducted by Beijing University indicates that the term "*tongzhi*" 同志 in Chinese and its English equivalent "Comrade" have conflicting associations to Chinese students and to English-speaking foreign students. To the former, "*tongzhi*" is a commendatory term, suggesting "equality", "friendship"; to the latter, however, "Comrade" is a derogatory term, suggesting "dictatorship" or "ferocious Soviet spies" (Gao Yihong 1999: 1).

As has been seen in the above discussion, the degree of translatability is determined by the degree of universality and particularity. Where universality dominates, such as in most social dialects and in register, translatability is high; where particularity dominates, such as in regional dialect and in address terms, translatability is low.

In spite of the various factors of untranslatability, a translator

should exert his utmost to discern and convey as much sociolinguistic information as possible, and to come up with valid and ingenious solutions to problems in translation in relation to sociolinguistics.

References

- Chen Songcen 陳松岑 (1985). *Shehui Yuyanxue Daolun* 《社會語言學導論》. Beijing: Beijing Daxue Chubanshe 北京大學出版社.
- Chen Yuan 陳原 (1983). *Shehui Yuyanxue* 《社會語言學》. Shanghai Xuelin Chubanshe 上海學林出版社.
- Gao Yihong 高一虹 (1999). *Yuyan Wenhua Chayi de Renshi yu Chaoyue* 《語言文化差異的認識與超越》. Waiyu Jiaoyu yu Yanjiu Chubanshe 外語教育與研究出版社.
- Gu Jiazou 顧嘉祖 *et al.* (1986). *Yuyan yu Wenhua* 《語言與文化》. Shanghai: Shanghai Waiyu Jiaoyu Chubanshe 上海外語教育出版社.
- Hou Weirui 侯維瑞 (1988). *Yingyu Yuti* 《英語語體》. Shanghai: Shanghai Waiyu Jiaoyu Chubanshe 上海外語教育出版社.
- Huang Cidong 黃次棟 (1988). *Yingyu Yuyanxue* 《英語語言學》. Shanghai: Shanghai Yiwen Chubanshe 上海譯文出版社.
- Hudson, R. A. (1981). *Sociolinguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Jin, Di 金堤 (1997). *Dengxiao Fanyi Tansuo* 《等效翻譯探索》. Beijing: Zhongguo Duiwai Fanyi Chubanshe 中國對外翻譯出版公司.
- Jin, Di & Eugene A. Nida (1984). *On Translation*. Beijing: Zhongguo Duiwai Fanyi Chubanshe 中國對外翻譯出版公司.
- Kramsch, Claire (1998). *Language and Culture*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Malinowski, B. (1923). *The Problem of Meaning in Primitive Languages*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- Nida, Eugene A. & C. R. Taber (1982). *The Theory and Practice of Translation*. Leiden: Brill.
- Spolsky, Bernard (1998). *Sociolinguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Wardhaugh, Ronald (1998). *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Xu Daming 徐大明 *et al.* (1997). *Dangdai Shehui Yuyanxue* 《當代社會語言學》. Zhongguo Shehui Kexue Chubanshe 中國社會科學出版社.
- Zhu Wanjin 祝畹瑾 (1997). *Shehui Yuyanxue Gailun* 《社會語言學概論》. Hunan Jiaoyu Chubanshe 湖南教育出版社.

About the Author

Qu Zongde, Associate Professor of English of Shanghai Maritime University, graduated from the Foreign Languages Department of Shanghai Maritime University in 1987 with a Master of Arts degree, and has been working there as a teacher of English since then. He specializes in the theory and practice of translation between Chinese and English and in the comparison between the two languages. He has published 8 academic papers in influential learned journals in China and abroad.

The TACT Machine Translation System: Problems and Solutions for the Pair Korean-French

*Sylviane Cardey, Peter Greenfield &
Mi-Seon Hong*

Abstract

The TACT system (Traduction Automatique Centre Tesnière) is a machine translation system from Korean to French, two languages that are very different. The method of analysis used to design the system, which is outlined in the paper, has as its goal the extraction and the transposition of sense. This approach is based on lexical representations which encompass syntactic and semantic features where the starting point is the verb, this being the virtual node for the construction of sentences, knowing that the particular uses of a given verb in the source language could be translated in different ways in the target language. In this wholly contextual approach, the units that are processed are sentences. The sentence, which is formed from a structure of elements, makes up a sense and this can be calculated by the machine. The results obtained are discussed in highlighting certain characteristics of the texts to be translated such as subject omission and verbal form. In addition, certain problems and the way that these have been solved are discussed, these involving pre-edition and morpho-syntactic

The TACT Machine Translation System

analysis, prepositional group syntactic ambiguities, anaphoric reference and the Korean zero anaphor phenomenon, and finally semantic feature transformation and anaphoric reference.

1. Introduction

This paper is concerned with the TACT system (Traduction Automatique Centre Tesnière), a machine translation system from Korean into French, two languages that are very different. The question at the outset was: "in the context of machine translation, in going from one language to another, can one analyse languages said to be far apart in the same manner as for so called near languages?"

Results of research conducted in Centre Tesnière for translating variously from Arabic (Alsharaf 2000: 109-122), Chinese (Shen 2000: 123-133; Shen and Cardey 2001) and Korean to French (Hong) are surprising in that researchers in the Centre have independently produced similar models. The three systems all give priority to semantic (and syntactic) analysis. This paper presents results that have been obtained for one of the models for which a machine translation system has been implemented—Korean to French—and examines in particular certain problems that have been encountered and how these have been resolved.

The method of analysis used to design the system, which is outlined in the paper, has as its goal the extraction and the transposition of sense. This approach is based on lexical representations which encompass syntactic and semantic features where the starting point is the verb, this being the virtual node for the construction of sentences, knowing that the particular uses of a given verb in the source language could be translated in different ways in the target language. In this wholly contextual

approach, the units that are processed are sentences. The sentence, which is formed from a structure of elements, makes up a sense and this can be calculated by the machine. It must be understood from the outset that the method devised involves the confrontation between the general functioning of the two languages on a precisely delimited common ground. For any realistic enterprise in machine translation, the point of view taken is that it is necessary to design the linguistic data representations and the strategies for raising ambiguities starting from the distinctions between the domains and the types of texts to be processed. A particular characteristic of the texts that have been studied (instructions) concerns the omission of the subject; however the linguistic context in which this omission occurs is different in each of the languages. Another problem concerns virtual ambiguity where the quantity of contextual information that needs to be defined for its processing is assessed. For processing real ambiguities, the complexity of the decoding processes required for their mechanical resolution is discussed. Furthermore a computer system for translating Korean sentences into French ought to be able to identify the referential values of implicit anaphora in the source sentence and reconstitute these as explicit anaphora in the target sentence.

2. The Corpus

The sentences involved are ones which are used to give instructions; for example, for French:

Faire sauter les pommes de terre dans du beurre.

Shallow fry the potatoes in butter.

English translations are provided to aid understanding of the Korean

into French translation process.

Dévisser l'ampoule et la remplacer par un modèle semblable.

Remove the light bulb and replace it with one of a similar type.

Repasser la toile à l'aide d'un fer à repasser.

Iron the material.

The particular corpus is based essentially on the domain of cooking. It comprises recipes and also instructions for the use of food products.

What is important to understand is that our goal is not the comparison of the French and Korean culinary languages, but rather to contrast the general way in which French and Korean function as languages on a common ground and one that is precisely delimited. We also take as a principle that the ability to achieve realistically machine translation is dependent upon distinguishing the domains and the text types. This idea implies that in order to obtain satisfactory results, it is necessary to design a representation of the linguistic data and also to design disambiguating strategies which depend on the chosen domain and the text types concerned. The approach that we have adopted is sentence based. We thus started by establishing lists (in fact, three lists) of those verbs most frequently used in our corpus of recipes and user instructions and furthermore which appeared to be the most polysemic. Our choice of these verbs was guided by a statistical analysis that we undertook. These lists of verbs enabled, amongst other uses, the examination of modifiers of the type underlined in:

remuer la soupe jusqu'à ce qu'elle bouille.

stir the soup until it boils.

3. Methodology

Our methodology is based on the principle that one cannot describe a language without having recourse to all of what are called “linguistic levels” (lexicon, syntax, semantics and even pragmatics) and furthermore that the descriptions can cross the “frontiers” between the levels.

Following this approach, the key structure in the system that we have implemented comprises four monolingual dictionaries (a Korean verb dictionary and noun dictionary, and a French verb dictionary and noun dictionary). The system also contains auxiliary modules which are concerned with the operational links between these internal dictionaries and which are involved in the actual translation process.

The starting point is the verb and this is the virtual node in the construction of different sentences. It is the other elements in a sentence which enable the calculation of a verb’s real sense within its context in the sentence.

The fundamental idea underpinning the translation methodology is that the representation of the “words”—both French and Korean—appearing in the corpus includes the various items of linguistic data needed for the translation of sentences containing these words and not the translation just of the words alone. Thus, a given translation does not depend on these “words” as such, but instead depends on the sentences, both source and target, that contain these “words”. For example, according to its second complement, a verb can sometimes be translated in different ways. In French one can have the verb *arroser* “sprinkle” as in for example:

arroser le poisson de jus de citron.
sprinkle lemon juice on the fish.

and the verb *saupoudrer* as in:

saupoudrer le poisson de farine.
sprinkle flour on the fish.

These two verbs, *arroser* and *saupoudrer*, are translated by the same unit in Korean. The opposition:

[liquide/pulvérulent]	“liquid/pulverised”
-----------------------	---------------------

allows the difference to be indicated in the dictionaries. We specify the semantic properties that we use in a relational way. The property [liquide] “liquid” is in opposition with the property [pulvérulent] “pulverised”, and the latter, [pulvérulent], includes the sub-properties [poudreux] and [fragmentaire], “powdery” and “in fragments”.

[poudreux]	“powdery”
[fragmentaire]	“in fragments”

We have built semantic microsystems using our theory SyGULAC (Systemic Grammar Using a Linguistically motivated Algebra and Calculus). In these microsystems, the majority of our semantic properties are represented hierarchically in sets associated by binary features. This feature hierarchy also constitutes our principle tool in the mechanical resolution of problems linked to lexical polysemy as well as for processing anaphora phenomena.

Semantic information is not the unique ingredient in the representation used for translating sentences. Here are the lexical descriptions for the French verb *cuire* “cook”:

("cuire", 1, T, 'C' nomA(X, [+sol, _]), VX*)
 ("cuire", 2, T, 'C' nomA(X, [-liq, _]), VX*)
 ("cuire", 3, T, 'C' nomA(X, [+com, +ins]), nomF(Y, "l'eau"), "à", VX*Y*)
 ("cuire", 4, T, 'C' nomA(X, [+com, +ins]), nomF(Y, "la vapeur"), "à", VX*Y*)

The scope of each of these descriptions is that of a particular use of the French verb *cuire*, each of which leads to four different ways of translating into Korean. As these examples of our lexical descriptions show, for the verbs the representations include a set of variables and constants which indicate variously lexical, morpho-syntactic and semantic information. It should be noted that as far as translating is concerned, each of the lexical descriptions of verb keywords in fact defines a sentence schema which governs the instantiation of a real sentence if its variables are replaced by values compatible with the lexical description's constants. Consider the fourth description for *cuire*:

("cuire", 4, T, 'C' nomA(X, [+com, +ins]), nomF(Y, "la vapeur"), "à", VX*Y*)

This lexical description can be mechanically interpreted as the defining schema of those sentences which satisfy, amongst others, the following constraints: (1) the sentence's predicate is expressed by the verb *cuire*; (2) the predicate's first argument is expressed by a *nom*, i.e. a noun, which is *com* and *ins*, i.e. a compact and insoluble food stuff. A compact food stuff is precisely one that is not fluid, not liquid, not in the form of a powder (so flour for example is excluded) and so on; and (3) the predicate's second argument is the set expression *à la vapeur* which means "by steaming".

A sentence that corresponds to this schema could be for example:

Faire cuire la truite à la vapeur.

Cook the trout by steaming.

Our lexical representation is more than just a lexicon in the form of keywords accompanied by static descriptions; it has been designed rather as a dynamic object which is able to manage linguistic productivity.

4. Characteristics and Problems

As space does not permit a presentation of the entire system, only some of its characteristics will be discussed here, along with certain problems and their solutions.

4.1 Subject Omission

A characteristic aspect of the texts that we have examined is the omission of the subject. Except for a few particular cases, sentences appearing in the texts, whether expressed in French or Korean, do not have a subject. However, it should be noted that the linguistic context in which this omission occurs is different in each language. For French, the omission of the subject is due to the use of an imperative or of an infinitive, these being the two moods most used in French injunctive sentences. In other words, these are the moods used in texts which require subject omission. On the other hand, for the Korean texts that we have examined, subject omission would seem to represent a general property of Korean as the following citations illustrate:

[In Korean] In certain cases, the syntactic elements can be omitted as long as this does not upset understanding speech or written material (Li 1985: 47).

[In Korean] The subject is omitted if, within the context, it indicates a person or an object previously mentioned or clearly identifiable by the speaker/author and the listener/reader (Shem 1992: 16).

In French one can find exceptions such as:

Ce plat nécessite de petites aubergines.

This dish requires small aubergines.

placed at the end of a recipe or placed between parentheses within a recipe. As this type of sentence occurs only in a minority of the texts examined we have not taken it into account; in any case the sentence just cited can be reformulated as follows:

Utiliser de petites aubergines pour ce plat.

Use small aubergines for this dish.

4.2 Verbal Form

If subject omission and the injunctive function are marks in common between the French and Korean sentences that we have examined, these same sentences show, as we shall shortly see, important morpho-syntactic differences between the two languages.

For the Korean sentences we can distinguish two global formulae: (1) *first formula*: sentences without subject in the imperative mood with the politeness form marking respect for the reader (in Korean there are six politeness levels); and (2) *second formula*: sentences without subject in the declarative mood.

For the French verbs two formulae can be distinguished, these depending on the mood: (1) sentence in the imperative mood; and (2) sentence in the infinitive mood.

For Korean, the second formula in the declarative mood has been retained and for French the formula in the infinitive mood.

The Korean formula in the declarative mood avoids problems that would otherwise occur due to factors including the variation in the verbal inflexions appropriate for the politeness level adopted (in the majority of texts examined, the declarative mood is used with the neutral politeness form), the verbal infixes (of which there are in the region of thirty classified in ten groups), and the problem of vocal harmonisation.

By definition, the use of the infinitive mood for French implies an invariable verbal form. Thus, in limiting the processing to sentences based on infinitives we have succeeded in designing a lexical representation in which for each verb key word there is just one form that needs to be recorded, this being the infinitive. On the other hand, if one were to handle imperative sentences, one would require not only the conjugated forms of the imperative of the verbs involved but also their infinitives. For example, verbs such as *revenir* (brown or fry gently), *sauter* (shallow fry) and *frîre* (fry) appear in our context only in the infinitive form, as in:

Faites frîre les crevettes.

Fry the prawns.

If however one considers verbs such as *faire* (make), *laisser* (leave), *mettre* (put), *assaisonner* (season) or *servir* (serve) as in:

Laissez égoutter les beignets.

Leave the fritters to drain.

only their conjugated forms (second person plural) are relevant. However, the following in the infinitive mood have the same meanings and are perfectly correct:

Faire *frire les crevettes.*

Fry the prawns.

Laisser *égoutter les beignets.*

Leave the fritters to drain.

For the other verbs such as *chauffer* (heat), *cuire* (cook), *égoutter* (drain), *glacer* (chill) or *réduire* (lower/reduce) as in:

Réduisez le feu (Lower the heat) / *Laissez réduire la sauce* (Leave the sauce to reduce)

each such verb would require two forms to be recorded, a conjugated form and the infinitive.

As can be seen, in choosing the infinitive mood formula, we can simplify the recording of the French verbs and, in consequence, their computerisation. In any case, the French infinitive mood formula corresponds well stylistically with the formula chosen for handling Korean, namely the declarative mood with neutral politeness.

4.3 Pre-edition and Morpho-syntactic Analysis

At the outset, it must be said that during the sentence analysis phase, it is the system that guides the inputting of the source sentence. This eliminates the need for pre-editing and also morpho-syntactic analysis.

Furthermore, when translating a verbal construction containing a noun or indeed a noun phrase, it matters little if the noun or noun phrase be analysed in terms of its "case" - accusative or dative, or indeed locative, instrumental, comitative, ablative, genitive *etc.* What we in fact need is the translation of the noun within the verbal construction in which it is

integrated. It should be emphasised that our method is both completely and only context based. It is for these reasons that we have chosen our own definitions for the predicate's complements (objects and/or others).

First of all, we distinguish two types of complement which are essential, namely the 1st and the 2nd complement for each of the two languages, to which we add a "set" complement, *figé* in French. As for the traditionally named circumstantial complements, we consider these as being verb modifiers. Here are a few examples:

V+Comp 1	:	faire sauter (<i>le boeuf</i>) shallow fry (<i>the beef</i>)
V+Comp 1+Comp 2	:	mettre (<i>le poisson</i>) dans (<i>la casserole</i>) put (<i>the fish</i>) in (<i>the sauce pan</i>)
V+Comp 1+Comp F	:	battre (<i>l'oeuf</i>) au fouet whip (<i>the egg</i>)
V+Comp 1+mod	:	faire sauter (<i>le boeuf</i>) (<i>au beurre</i>) shallow fry (<i>the beef</i>) (<i>in butter</i>)

4.4 Prepositional Group Syntactic Ambiguities

We now look at some problems due to prepositional group attachments. Take for example the sentence:

Saupoudrer les morceaux de poulet de farine.

Sprinkle the pieces of chicken of/with flour.

The problem here is that there is an ambiguity, as there is a choice between two possible syntactic groupings, and this implies that the sentence has two different interpretations:

((Saupoudrer) (les morceaux de poulet) (de farine));

((Saupoudrer) (les morceaux) (de poulet de farine)).

On the contrary, for machine translation, raising such a virtual ambiguity requires explicitly described knowledge and rules, as well as decoding rules between the different "linguistic levels". It is only by providing and coding such knowledge and rules in the form of a computerised representation together with an associated interpreting program which enables the computer to establish first of all the syntactically possible solutions and then to eliminate progressively those which are not pertinent in terms of the semantic and/or pragmatic levels. For example, in order that the machine can raise the ambiguity in the above sentence and so determine the correct meaning:

Sprinkle the pieces **of** chicken **with** flour.

it must have access to information such as the following: (1) the verb *saupoudrer* can take as a 2nd complement a noun which designates an object which is *pulvérulent*, that is "pulverised"; (2) the noun *poulet* designates an object that is **not** *pulvérulent*; (3) the noun *farine* designates an object which is *pulvérulent*; and (4) a noun designating an object which is **not** *pulvérulent* can be introduced in the sentence by "morceau(x) de".

In certain contexts, which for us as humans appear "clear", some element which is theoretically essential to the verbal construction does not appear in the surface form, and as a result of this absence virtual ambiguities can be present, as in:

Ajouter la moutarde à l'ancienne.

Add mustard to the ancient thing/Add mustard made in the ancient way.

Assaisonner les morceaux de poulet.

Season the pieces with chicken/Season the chicken pieces.

So that the non-pertinent interpretations (indicated in each case by the first English translation) can be pruned away, the machine must have information which allows *à l'ancienne* to be analysed as a **noun** modifier. However such information has to be sufficiently well formulated logically, so that in the following example:

Cuire le riz à la créole.

Cook the rice **in the creole manner**.

the machine recognises the prepositional group *à la créole* not as a noun modifier but as a **verb** modifier.

A prepositional group can also depend on a noun which itself depends on a verb, being the verb's obligatory complement; for example:

Arroser le poisson de jus de citron.

Sprinkle **lemon juice** on the fish.

Ajouter la sauce à l'orange au canard.

Add **orange sauce** to the duck.

Thus, although a sentence containing a virtual ambiguity appears to have only one meaning for the human, for machine processing this often results in complex disambiguating processes. It should also be noted that, due to limitations of space, we can only give relatively simple examples. To really convince oneself of the possible complexity, we give a final example, taken from a cooking book:

Accompagner d'une cuillerée à soupe de coulis de fraises et d'une boule de glace à la fraise.

Accompany **with** a soup spoon of purée **of** strawberries and **with** a scoop **of** strawberry ice cream.

So as to provide automated raising of effective—that is, real—ambiguities, what we have just seen concerning virtual ambiguity leads us to realise firstly how much contextual information might be needed and secondly the complexity of the decoding processes. Let us examine a few examples.

Ajouter la crème aux champignons.

Add the cream to **the** mushrooms/Add the **mushroom** cream.

Ajouter la sauce aux épinards.

Add the cream to **the** spinach/Add the **spinach** cream.

When the above two sentences are analysed in isolation, that is without their contexts, the attachments of the prepositional groups are in fact really ambiguous. However, this ambiguity concerning the choice between two syntactic groups seems to disappear if the sentences are placed in their respective contexts. However one would be deceived if one believed that all such effective or real ambiguities found within the context of the sentence can be raised by considering a context a little larger such as a paragraph or a sequence of two or three sentences.

Even if we were to suppose that the machine had access to all sorts of supplementary information, unhappily we can find that there can even be other “parasite” solutions, as in for example:

Saupoudrer les oeufs de curry.

Sprinkle the **curried** eggs/Sprinkle the eggs **with** curry powder.

In order to confirm that the sequence “*oeufs de curry*” **curried** eggs is meaningless and that in consequence the only valid solution is

“*saupoudrer + les oeufs + de curry*”

the machine would have to examine all the rules and knowledge concerning “*oeuf*” and “*curry*”, for example a series of sequences such as:

<i>oeufs de caille,</i>	quails' eggs
<i>oeufs de cabillaud,</i>	cods' eggs
<i>oeufs de saumon,</i>	salmons' eggs
<i>curry d'agneau,</i>	lamb curry
<i>curry de poulet,</i>	chicken curry
<i>etc.</i>	

Thus a sentence like the first example in this section:

Saupoudrer les morceaux de poulet de farine.

Sprinkle the pieces **of** chicken **of/with** flour

can be disambiguated when it is formulated in the appropriate base structure calculated by the system using the relevant verb schema.

4.5 Anaphoric Reference and the Korean Zero Anaphor Phenomenon

Korean exhibits the phenomenon of the zero anaphor. This phenomenon means that in the translation of Korean to French, anaphora implicitly contained in the source sentence must be explicitly and thus visually indicated in the target sentence. It follows then that a computer system translating from Korean sentences to French ought to be able to

identify the referential values of implicit anaphora detected in the source sentence and to reconstitute these as explicit anaphora in the target sentence. Due to the zero anaphor phenomenon, the problems posed here can lead to ambiguous anaphoric links when it is not possible to identify the antecedent. It would appear that one could associate this type of problem with the sorts of problems that are observed in French sentences which contain more than one possible preceding noun phrase/syntagm and where the form of the anaphoric pronoun does not provide information that is pertinent for identifying the true antecedent. Let us examine the following sentences:

Retirez la peau de la truite avant de la servir.

Remove the skin from the trout before serving it.

Retirez les pédoncules des poivrons, les ouvrir et les épépiner.

Remove the stalks from the peppers, open **them** and depip **them**.

From the purely syntactic point of view, the anaphoric pronouns present in these sentences, **la** and **les**, are ambiguous as their syntactic properties allow two different referential interpretations. The situation is that in each and both of these sentences, the anaphoric environment preceding the anaphoric pronoun contains two noun elements which agree syntactically with the pronoun. If one now considers the semantic nature of the potential antecedents and if one compares this with that of the verb which governs the anaphoric pronoun in question, only one of the potential antecedents appears to be feasible. What we have just examined prompts certain important questions, and answering these allows us to sketch out the beginning of a solution for this type of anaphoric problem. Our reasoning is motivated by the conviction that it is the semantic nature of the verb to which an anaphor is linked which provides us with the

essential parameters needed for identifying the anaphor's antecedent. We have thus devised a set of rules allowing the resolution of such problems. Furthermore, these rules handle inclusive anaphora as in

Epépiner le piment, éplucher le gingembre et les couper en fines lanières.

Depip the hot red pepper, peel the ginger and cut **them** in fine strips.

as well as exclusive anaphora as in:

Mettre l'oignon et le poireau dans la poêle et les faire revenir (rapidement).

Put the onion and the leek in the frying pan and heat **them** up (rapidly).

A particular case of anaphor is that which is characterised by the presence of several semantically heterogeneous precedents in the sentence containing the implicit anaphor. In such a case, the antecedents appear as enumerations or are often governed by verbs such as the following:

<i>couper</i>	cut
<i>hacher</i>	chop, mince
<i>mélanger</i>	mix
<i>incorporer</i>	include in
<i>etc.</i>	

It is thus difficult to reconstitute the implicit anaphor as a pronoun. To handle this type of anaphoric agreement, instead of using an anaphoric pronoun, we use an anaphoric expression, this here being:

<i>le tout</i>	all of this
----------------	-------------

The phrase "*le tout*", which is frequently observed in the French texts

that we have examined, generally marks the idea of a union or an amalgam as in for example:

*Couper les oignons en petits morceaux, éplucher le gingembre, laver le piment et hacher **le tout** très finement.*

Cut the onions into little pieces, peel the ginger, wash the hot red pepper and mince **all of this** very finely.

So that the machine can reconstitute implicit anaphora, it should be emphasised that the most important problems that have to be resolved are those which are at the semantic level.

4.6 Semantic Feature Transformation and Anaphoric Reference

The last problem to be discussed is somewhat unexpected. It concerns feature transformation, this being due to a change in the initial property of an object that is subjected to some process. Thus, for all those who think that, because one has defined the domain to be studied, everything is going to be simple, we are going to see some examples which could give, if one is not careful, amusing but incorrect translations of this type:

Battre les oeufs à la fourchette, les verser dans la poêle, les saupoudrer de persil haché et les plier en deux.

Beat the eggs, put them in the frying pan, sprinkle chopped parsley on them and fold them in two.

This sort of translation can be avoided if one has included property and feature changes for certain objects. We have seen that a verb's semantic nature allows an anaphor's antecedent to be identified, as in for example:

*Étalez la **compote** sur la **crêpe** et pliez-la en deux.*

Spread the **compote** on the **pancake** and fold it in two.

It is thus necessary to introduce in the descriptions of verbs that express a cooking operation and also in the descriptions of foodstuff nouns, indicators which allow the calculation of the possible modifications to the initial properties of the nouns so concerned. Such indicators ought to be designed so that coreference links can be recognised and established between lexical forms, such as between: *oeufs* and *omelette*, "eggs" and "omelette". We have here an example of object property changes which can cause such object transformations to be manifested linguistically by a process of lexical substitution:

"*oeuf* → *omelette*"

"egg → omelette"

This lexical substitution can operate across sentences:

*Mettre le **sucré** dans une casserole épaisse et **le** faire fondre en remuant pendant un quart d'heure. Verser le **caramel** sur la plaque huilée, **le** laisser durcir un peu et **le** découper en carrés.*

Put the **sugar** into a thick walled saucepan, melt **it**, stirring for a quarter of an hour. Pour the **caramel** onto a flat oiled plate, let **it** harden a little and cut **it** into squares.

The lexical substitution here is:

"*sucré* which can become → *caramel*"

"sugar which can become → caramel"

5. Conclusion

The TACT system that we have implemented, some of whose characteristics have been discussed above, can translate sentences from Korean which give in French sentences such as:

Faire sauter le boeuf, y ajouter le brocoli et les saupoudrer de curry.

Shallow fry the beef, to it add the broccoli and sprinkle them with curry powder.

Ajouter le brocoli au boeuf, les faire sauter et les saupoudrer de curry.

Add the broccoli to the beef, shallow fry them and sprinkle them with curry powder.

The approach that we use is totally contextual and the translation unit is the sentence which, being made up of a set of elements, forms a compound sense which can be calculated by the machine.

Our final remark concerns the construction of dictionaries in general. In commercial Korean-French dictionaries, one finds for the Korean verb *nôt-ta* the translation *mettre* or *placer*. However we have had to translate it by *ajouter* in certain of our contexts:

Korean	French	(English)
<i>nôt-ta</i>	<i>mettre</i>	put
	<i>placer</i>	place
	<i>ajouter</i>	add

This has shown us that collocation dictionaries are highly important and that the general design of dictionaries specifically intended for translation needs to be revisited; (see for example Cardey and Greenfield 1999).

We have not been able to expose here all the characteristics and the problems that we have encountered (the determiners, the schemata, the base structures that we have developed *etc.*). We have rather tried to show why we have given such importance to the semantic phenomena which present a certain generality together with systematically analysable regularities, the whole approach being based on logical reasoning.

The TACT system is targeted at users who know nothing at all about the French language but who do know Korean.

References

- Alsharaf, Haytham (2000). "La Traduction Automatique du Français vers l'Arabe". In *BULAG n° 25, La Traduction et le TAL*, pp. 109-122.
- Cardey, Sylviane & Peter Greenfield (2002). "Computerised Set Expression Dictionaries: Design and Analysis". Symposium on Contrastive Linguistics and Translation Studies (Université Catholique de Louvain, Louvain-la-Neuve, Belgique), 5-6 février 1999. In *Lexis in Contrast: Corpus-Based Approaches*. Ed. B. Altenberg & S. Granger. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Hong, Mi-Seon (1997). "Dictionnaire Automatique Coréen-Français". In *Actes du Colloque International. FRACIAL*, Besançon, France 10-12 décembre 1997, pp. 215-225.
- Li, Jin-Mieung (1985). *Grammaire du Coréen*. Tome 1, P.A.F., Paris, p.47.
- Shen, Yihui (2000). "Vers la Traduction Automatique Chinois-Français: Quelques Problèmes Liés aux Particularités du Chinois". In *BULAG n° 25, La Traduction et le TAL*, pp. 123-133.
- Shen, Yihui & Sylviane Cardey (2001). "Vers un Traitement du Groupe Nominal dans la Traduction Automatique Chinois-français". Ve Congrès International de Traduction, Barcelone, Espagne.
- Shem, Seung-Ja (1992). "Dictionnaire Français-Coréen, l'Asiathèque, Dictionnaire des langues'o". Paris, p.16.

About the Authors

Sylviane Cardey is Professor of Linguistics and Natural Language Processing in the Université de Franche-Comté, France, where she is also Director of the Centre de Recherche en Linguistique Lucien Tesnière. Her research interests are in the description of language and languages for eventual machine exploitation (including linguistically motivated exploitation), from both the fundamental and applied perspectives.

Peter Greenfield teaches software aspects of natural language processing in the Université de Franche-Comté, France. His research interests focus on software engineering for natural language processing with a particular emphasis on aiding linguists to express their own machine-readable linguistic formalisations. This involves providing the linguist, in a complementary fashion, with mathematically and computationally sound representation techniques and software tools.

Mi-Seon Hong received her PhD from the Université de Franche-Comté, France, in 2000 with a thesis entitled "Modèle théorique et représentation formelle de la sémantique de langues éloignées: application au couple coréen-français en Traduction Automatique". She teaches in the Alliance Française and at the University of Chong Ju, Korea.

語用翻譯初探

何 鍵

Abstract

This thesis discusses the theory and methods of translation in the light of pragmatics, a new branch of linguistics. It briefly introduces the concepts of pragmatics and pragmatic translation, pointing out that pragmatic translation is the application of pragmatic theory to translation. By way of analysis and comparison, it reveals the differences of pragmatic translation from semantic translation, from free translation and from hermeneutic translation, meanwhile shows the connections of pragmatic translation with the other translations mentioned above. Pragmatic translation emphasizes the rendering of the pragmatic meaning of the source text. The author distinguishes a "free translation" in broad sense from a "free translation" in narrow sense from a new view-point. Part four proves the function of pragmatic translation by drawing on some examples from extensive sources. The author brings all the implied meanings into pragmatic translation, especially those "meanings" easy to be ignored, such as the meanings in phonetics and intonation, according to Grice's theory of conversational implication. Besides, from pragmatic viewpoint, the author reconsiders dynamically and dialectically those language phenomena thought to be untranslatable and holds that there exists the diversion from the untranslatable to the translatable to some extent.

一、語用翻譯的理論依據

隨着翻譯實踐的發展，翻譯理論的研究也蓬勃開展，各種學說疊出，從語言學、文藝學、交際學不同角度來探討翻譯問題，對翻譯理論的日臻完善和發展起到了積極推動作用。隨着語言學的深入發展，語用學應運而生，其理論將語言意義的研究置於廣闊的社會大環境之下，以動態觀將語言使用者貫穿於意義理解的全過程。根據何自然編著的《語用學概論》，語用學（pragmatics）的概念理解為“它研究在特定情景中的特定話語，特別是研究在不同的語言交際環境下如何理解語言和運用語言。”^[1] 國外學者對語用學的定義萊文森（Levinson）認為比較可取的：

1. Pragmatics is the study of all these aspects of meaning not captured in a semantic theory.（語用學是對那些未能納入語義理論的意義範疇所作的研究。）
2. Pragmatics is the study of the ability of language users to pair sentences with the contexts in which they would be appropriate.（語用學是對語言使用者把句子和能合適地使用這些句子的語境相匹配的能力的研究。）
3. Pragmatics is the study of the relations between language and context that are basic to an account of language understanding.（語用學是對語言和語境之間對於解釋語言理解來說至關重要的那些關係的研究。）^[2]

美國哲學家查爾斯·莫里斯（Charles Morris）在他的《符號理論基礎》（*Foundations of the Theory of Signs*）一書中，首先使用了“語用學”這個術語。他把語用學定義為研究“符號與符號解釋者

的關係”。另一位哲學家 and 邏輯學家魯道夫·卡納普（Rudolf Carnap）認為“如果一項研究明確地涉及語言使用者，我們就把它歸入語用學的領域”，還認為“語用學除了研究使用者和詞語的關係之外，還應當包括詞語的所指。”^[3]

從以上語用學概念的定義和認識中我們可以看出語用學擺脫了以往只從語言系統內部（語法、語義等）對語言意義的研究，而是從語言外部即語言的使用者、語言使用的特定語境或社會大環境下對語言交際的目的、意義進行分析研究。語用學作為一門新興的學科得到確認，正是它令人信服地解釋了許多語法學、語義學無法解釋的語言現象。例如“*It's cold here*”這一句話，除了表示一個語義命題外，說話人可以用它來婉轉地請聽話人做點甚麼，表達如關上窗戶、打開暖氣、借件外衣禦寒等意義。像“dog”這個詞，除了用來意指人人都知道的一種動物外，在不同場合，說話人還可能用這個詞對聽話人發出警告，進行恫嚇等意義。從語用學角度理解使用中的語言意義將涉及更廣闊的語境範圍。正如約翰·萊昂斯（John Lyons）的理解：語境分為語言內和語言外兩種。語言內語境包括交際雙方共同具備的語言知識以及在交際動態過程中雙方對上文的理解（對下文的揣測，估計發展的方向屬語言外語境知識），語言外語境包括與特定的交際情景有關的知識，包含語言活動發生的時間、地點、話題、場合的正式程度、參與者的相互關係、社會地位、個人在交際中所處的地位，以及文化背景知識如社會規範和習俗與特定文化相關的會話規則和方式等。^[4] 此外，從語用學角度理解使用中的語言意義始終不能脫離語言使用者這個主體。“主體”是語用學的中心範疇，是語用分析解釋貫穿到底的主線。正是這一連貫的主線才使語用

分析成為可能，使語用研究課題面對一個上下連貫、廣闊語境的動態中的上下文。

語言學家們對語用學的概念是有差異的，資料反映對語義學和語用學意義研究的界限劃分一直存在着爭議，對此不是本文所討論的範圍。筆者引用以上幾家對語用學概念的定義和認識，旨在對比分析其統一共同的認識：即均涉及語言的語境，語言的理解使用以及語言的使用者，以交代本文討論語用翻譯的理論依據。

二、語用意義與語用翻譯

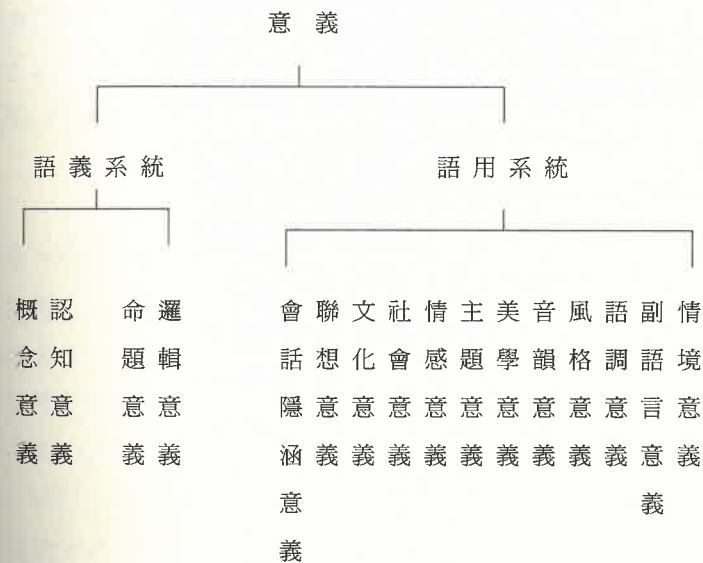
（一）語用意義

英國著名語言學家傑弗里·利奇（Geoffrey Leech）在他的《語義學》（*Semantics*）一書中，把語言的意義分為七種主要類型：即概念意義、含蓄意義、社會意義、情感意義、反映意義、搭配意義和主題意義。翻譯理論家劉宓慶在〈論翻譯的技能意識〉一文中，對意義分為三個層次，即表層意義、深層意義和情境意義。表層意義指形式結構意義；深層意義指語義結構意義；情境意義指超乎語言本身的意義即“言外之意”。

根據美國語言哲學家格賴斯（H. P. Grice）創立的隱涵理論解釋，語義學研究字面意義（真值條件意義），語用學應對各種隱涵意義給予解釋，萊文森等語用學者發展了格賴斯的會話隱涵理論，認為人類語言的非自然意義（衍推、預設、合適條件、一般會話隱涵等）都屬於語用學範圍，語義學研究“特殊構成的形式

化系統”的元語言，並認為語用學涉及兩個系統：語義系統涉及規約意義的確定，語用系統涉及非規約意義的確定。^[5] 這種觀點表明語義和語用是交際系統的兩個不同的組成部份，既互相對立又互相補充。語用學把形式、功能和語境三者統一起來，因此要去發現語義和語用相互作用的機制，而不是把兩者割裂開來。這種觀點擴大了語用學的解釋力，不僅簡化了語義學，而且符合一般語言理論方法論上的要求，提供一個既簡明又概括性極大的解釋模式並啟迪人們去思考修辭與語用、辭彙與語用、語法與語用的關係……

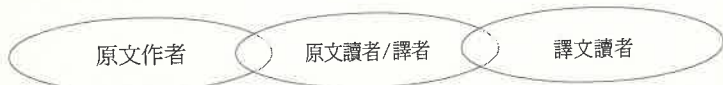
根據上述語用意義的解釋和歸屬，人類語言意義應當理解為語義+語用之和。如下圖示：



從圖示中，我們看出意義是不同層次基本邏輯語義系統和表達各種交際的語用系統相互作用的“義”和“意”的整體意義系統。圖中語用系統指意義層面上的“廣角”語用意義，與其他意義是上下義關係，並非並列關係。這樣，除基本邏輯概念意義外，其他各種意義便歸屬於不同層面的語用意義。根據語用學理論，除概念意義外，語言內附加意義或派生意義，語言外情境意義都涉及而且必定涉及語言的使用者和語境，實際上部份或全部都屬於語用意義。含蓄意義儘管包含辭典上解釋的固定的比喻引申意義，但往往又因時、因地、因人而異，含有說寫者的意圖性，因此，也可以從語用角度解釋；主題意義雖然通過語法手段表達，但卻傳達了說寫者的不同用意和目的，同樣具有意圖性，因此，又可以從語用角度去理解其意義。這樣，我們對語用意義可以理解為：語用意義是指表達方式在使用中從不同的語用角度或用不同的語用理論推導而得出的、超越語言文字表面意義（句子意義）之外的言下之意，是語言使用者在特定的語境中為達到某一目的而賦予固有意義語句的特定意義。

（二）語用翻譯

從語用角度探討翻譯中的種種問題，旨在探討如何動態地把握語言使用者。語言使用者應理解為原文作者，原文讀者／譯者，譯文讀者，即翻譯中的主體意識。翻譯中的主體意識應當包括原文作者和譯文讀者，雖然譯者在主體鏈中處於積極主動的中間地位，但他必須



反映原文作者的意圖用意，而譯文文本只有經過譯文讀者的閱讀理解，才算真正完成並實現其價值。這樣認識理解主體意識，在翻譯中就要努力做到把原文作者——原文讀者／譯者——譯文讀者聯繫起來，將原作主體的“我”，文本中的“我”，讀者時空定位的“我”包括譯者內在的“我”重合為一體，即：使原文作者的意圖，原文的資訊通過譯者不偏離原意的理解解釋而盡可能完整地傳達於譯文讀者，也就是說，譯者不僅要利用自己的語言知識獲得原文句子本身的意義，還必須利用語言外知識和其他因素所提供的線索，對句子隱含意義在推斷中，根據讀者的接受力和“期待視野”進行靈活處理，向讀者傳達原作者想要傳達的全部資訊。當然，要做到三者完全重合是一種難以實現的最佳理想，因為，譯者的主體意識在翻譯中的作用受其所在社會環境、社會意識形態、價值觀念等的影響，並反映在譯文中，但從譯者本身講，必須明確自己的身份和職責，努力使自己的翻譯達到最佳境界。

其次，從語用角度探討翻譯，旨在探討翻譯中的“語用等值”，即言外之意的理解翻譯，以及在譯文中可以在多大程度上引進外語語用成份的問題。尤金·奈達（Eugene A. Nida）曾給翻譯下定義為“Translating means translating the meaning”，他給上海理工大學張經浩的回信中也說到“詞義的真正理解有賴於語境……在於各詞在特定環境中的具體所指……明白全文話裏話外的意義後再開始翻譯。”（張經浩，〈與奈達的一次翻譯筆談〉）可見，翻譯主要是要傳達原文的意義。語用翻譯就是翻譯原語的語用意義，或者說從語用角度探討原文整體意義的翻譯表達。要做到全面傳遞原文整體意義：首先要正確理解，要真正達到這一

點，應當是由整體到局部，即由篇章到段、句、詞語去理解，不脫離語境、背景知識以及原作者的意圖。這樣的理解是表層意義，深層意義和語用意義相互關聯的，是實際運用的語言在一定語境範圍內的整體意義，而不是語言符號簡單基本的概念意義。只有這樣，才能實現單個局部的有機統一，才能全面轉換或傳達原文話語要表達的各種意義。語用翻譯運用不同翻譯技法，旨在傳達原文的整體意義。

比如：Bill is a fine friend，其直語為 Bill is a fine friend（比爾確實是個好朋友）；其反語為 Bill is not a fine friend at all（比爾根本就不是個好朋友）。對於這兩種翻譯解釋的取捨，就必須結合與語境的關聯情況。假如與這句話相關的語境為 Bill has just turned down the speaker's request for help in financial difficulty, and he in fact has much money，那麼，反語意義得到翻譯理解的確定，即“比爾根本就不是個好朋友”。

再如：Time is money 這一隱喻的語義翻譯解釋為“時間就是金錢”，但在實際交流中，其傳達的意義或喻義絕非這一種。結合金錢的告誡言語行為，可能產生若干會話含義：（1）Time has the same value as money；（2）Time flies like money in hand；（3）Time should be valued, to waste time means to lose money。若要確定實際傳遞的是哪種喻義，則須在語義解釋的基礎上，求助於具體的語境資訊及言者的意圖去翻譯解釋其語用意義，或（1）時間貴如金錢；或（2）時間如同手中的錢容易流失；或（3）時間需要珍惜／浪費時間就是浪費金錢。

三、語用翻譯與其他翻譯的關係

（一）語用翻譯與語義翻譯

語用翻譯與語義翻譯是兩個不同層面上的意義的翻譯。兩者既有聯繫，又有區別。其區別在於語用翻譯側重語言交際中資訊產生的效果，涉及語言的祈使功能、表感功能和交感功能，^[9]或者說注重形象聯想、情態感受以及對文章總體風貌的感應；語義翻譯強調資訊的內容，涉及語言的資訊功能、表達功能或認知功能；語用翻譯傳達原文對讀者或說話者對聽話者思想、感情、行動產生影響結果的資訊，其目的是要讀者或聽者去思考、去感受、去行動；語義翻譯則傳達語句的命題內容，或表現原作者思維過程，保留原作者的語言特色和獨特的表達形式，或表現譯作的語言特色和表達習慣來表達出原文的深層意義。語用翻譯與語義翻譯的聯繫在於語義翻譯是語用翻譯的基礎，語用翻譯是語義翻譯的補充，兩者在翻譯過程中不能割裂，是互相交替使用的。這是因為，語用意義是以語義意義為基礎，是建立在語言內固有意義基礎上的派生意義。實際資訊內容傳遞是字面意義（語義意義）＋隱涵意義（語用意義）之和，兩種意義是相互作用的，因此語用翻譯不能脫離語義翻譯。其次，從追求原文對讀者產生的效果與譯文對讀者產生的效果等值看，當語義翻譯所不能達到原文效果時，要以語用翻譯進行補充。

例： Dog.

“當心有狗！”語用翻譯（在特定語境中）

例： Many hands make light work.

“人心齊，泰山移。” 語用翻譯（強調譯語表達效果）

如果我們將上例兩句譯成“狗”、“人手多，活輕鬆”，其語義內容得到了忠實反映，但語用意義或原文讀者所得到的那部份感受，到了譯文讀者那邊卻消失了，某些讀者的感受甚至會走樣。

因此，凡語義翻譯所不能完全達到的效果，則應考慮從語用關係的角度入手，採用讀者所熟悉的表現形式，使之再現原文的內容實質和產生的效果，彌補語義翻譯所造成的損失，以加強讀者通過譯文對原文的感受和理解。

（二）語用翻譯與意譯

意譯是相對於直譯而言的。直譯注重原文語言表達形式，在於不破壞原文語言形式的前提下翻譯出原文的語義意義；意譯則注重譯文的語言表達形式，在不拘泥原文的表達形式的前提下翻譯出原文的意義，即語義意義和語用意義。張澤乾在《翻譯經緯》中指出直譯與意譯是我國傳統譯論中“漢語中一種約定俗成的表達形式”，“並不是嚴謹的科學概念”（頁 295-296），張澤乾試圖給直譯和意譯予科學定義，認為直譯側重形式對應與靜態平衡，為語義型翻譯；意譯側重內容對等與動態平衡，為交際型翻譯。根據語用學理論來看，筆者認為直譯即結構＋語義型翻譯，意譯為語義＋語用型翻譯，並認為漢語所指的意譯是一個模糊概念，有廣義和狹義的理解。廣義的意譯可以理解為意譯就是翻譯意義，狹義的意譯即人們普遍接受的自由譯（free translation）。

從廣義角度的意譯仔細分析，意譯實質上包含了語言表達的全部意義的翻譯，即：語法意義、語義意義、語用意義的翻譯。從這個意義上講，直譯也應當視為廣義意譯的一部份，是側重於原文表達形式的意譯。廣義的意譯與語用翻譯的關係是意譯包括語用翻譯，而語用翻譯也只是意譯中的一部份，是側重於言外之意的意譯。從狹義的意譯——自由譯角度分析其與語用翻譯的關係，發現揭示原語語用意義的自由譯與語用翻譯是相同的，只是譯論的表述不同罷了。例：Hard words break no bones，譯：良藥苦口利於病，忠言逆耳利於行。這一翻譯是側重於語用意義的語義＋語用型翻譯，相當於狹義的意譯，如果譯為“惡語不傷人”，應視為側重於語義意義的語義＋語用型翻譯，也相當於狹義的意譯。因而，筆者認為語用翻譯術語概念比意譯要清晰明確，更有利於理解表達不同層次的意義，不至於把直譯與意譯對立起來。

例： One today is worth two tomorrows.

一個今天勝似兩個明天（喻翔生編譯，《英語常用諺語 1000 句》，頁 2），屬結構＋語義翻譯或側重於原語表達形式的意譯。其隱含的語用意義對譯文讀者不言而喻，無需譯出。比如“涇渭不分”譯為“fail to distinguish between the good and the evil”屬語義＋語用型翻譯，如果譯為“fail to distinguish between the waters of the Jinghe and the Weihe”，屬結構＋語義型翻譯。這種翻譯對於不熟悉中國地理、傳統文化的譯文讀者，會造成理解上的空白。

例： In 1932, as dole queues lengthened across America, 13 million were out of work.

1932年的美國，到處可以見到排着長隊領取失業救濟的人，那一年有一千三百多萬人失業了。（筆者試譯）屬側重於語義意義的語義＋語用型翻譯。

例： 大家見面，招呼聲“吃了嗎？”透着和氣。

英譯：When people meet, they greet each other with a “How do you do?”, just to show their good neighborly feelings.（老舍，〈柳家大院〉；見張谷若，〈地道的原文、地道的譯文〉）屬側重於語用意義的語義＋語用型翻譯。

（三）語用翻譯與闡釋翻譯

闡釋翻譯是闡釋學（hermeneutics）理論在翻譯中的運用。闡釋學理論的發展者施萊爾馬赫（Schleiermacher）、狄爾泰（Dilthey）以及當代存在主義哲學家海德格爾（Heidegger）和伽達默爾（Gadamer）認為闡釋學不只是一種詮釋技巧，也是在不同人類環境中（如宗教的、世俗的、科學的及日常生活的）進行解釋和理解的理論和實踐。⁷¹ 闡釋學注重事物的前因後果，更強調理解“言外之意”、“弦外之音”。顯然，翻譯中的闡釋溶彙於“理解—表達”兩個環節，其目的在於深入理解、闡釋性表達作品的“言外之意”、“弦外之音”。

語用翻譯基於語用學理論，其目的也是要理解、揭示、表達

使用中語言的“言外之意”、“弦外之音”。從這一點上看，語用翻譯與闡釋翻譯不謀而合，是從不同的理論，不同的視角探討共同的問題，即：在語際轉換中，如何理解表達原語的“言外之意”、“弦外之音”或語用意義。從廣義的意譯來看，闡釋翻譯也屬於意譯的一部份。

綜上所述，無論狹義的意譯、語義翻譯、語用翻譯還是闡釋翻譯，都是廣義意譯的一部份，都是指翻譯意義。正如奈達的高度概括“翻譯就是翻譯意義”，因此，為了盡可能完整傳達原文意義，達到不同層面上的意義等值或等效，只能通過多種翻譯方法互補。因為沒有一種理論能為所有的文章都提供一種翻譯方法，而且在翻譯過程中也不可能獨立地使用一種方法去盡善盡美地完成翻譯的。既然要通過多種翻譯方法互補、綜合應用才能盡可能完整傳達原文意義，那麼各種翻譯方法就不存在孰優孰劣的問題。儘管直譯（結構＋語義型翻譯）——廣義意譯的一部份，應用範圍有限，它畢竟使譯文在形式上意義上與原文直接等效。語義翻譯雖然也有其局限性，但它運用譯語表達習慣表達出原文的深層意義，使譯文達到間接等效。語用翻譯和闡釋翻譯都創造性地填補了其他翻譯之不足，有效地傳達了原文的言外之意及其效果，因此，各種翻譯方法對翻譯實踐都具有一定的指導意義。

四、語用翻譯的作用

（一）語用翻譯的認識作用

語用翻譯的認識作用在於以下幾點：

(1) 對意義的重新認識：人類語言意義是語義系統與語用系統相互作用的“義”和“意”的整體意義系統，因此，在翻譯中必須從語言內和語言外語境去把握意義的理解和翻譯。

(2) 對“直譯”與“意譯”的重新認識：廣義角度的“意譯”指“翻譯意義”，這樣，“直譯”便屬於廣義意譯中的一部份，語用翻譯術語將“直譯”與“意譯”結合起來而不是對立起來，修正了狹義“意譯”(free translation)的模糊概念，以利翻譯中不同層次意義的表達。

(3) 對翻譯中主體意識的重新認識：翻譯中的主體意識應當包括原作者，原文讀者／譯者，譯文讀者。因為語言使用者和語境始終貫穿於使用中的語言——言語中。當譯者把握原作者意圖和用意時，便體現了原作者的主體意識，原作者在譯文中“再生”了；當譯者考慮譯文讀者的接受力和對譯文的期待視野時，便體現了譯文語境讀者的主體意識，這時，譯者的主體意識或主體作用便呈現有節制的能動發揮，處於既主動又被動的地位。這種主體意識鏈應體現在翻譯過程中，以把握整體意義的翻譯。

(二) 語用翻譯對翻譯實踐的指導作用

(1) 語用翻譯有助於譯者，在翻譯過程中，從整體上把握意義的理解，解決翻譯中的文化差異問題。

例：英語 personality 意為“每個人所特有的心理—心理性狀（或特徵）有機結合，包括遺傳和後天獲得的成份。‘人格’使一個人區別於他人，並且通過他與社會群體的關係表現出來”（據《簡明不列顛百科全書》釋義）。Individualism 根本意義是指社會中一種至高無上的個人權利與自由的觀念。這兩個詞在漢語中難

以找到對應詞，這恰好反映了不同文化中價值判斷的差異性。如果按漢語的“人格”、“個人主義”去理解英語的 personality 和 individualism，就會造成文化誤解，跨文化交際失敗，甚至產生負面影響。對 personality，筆者試譯為“個性人格特徵”，individualism 譯為“個人權利自由至上主義”（譯語不一定確切）。看來要處理好不同文化價值觀交流問題是翻譯不可忽視迴避的。

例：“望子成龍”譯為 to hope that one's son will become a dragon，語用效果不一定相同，譯為 to hope that one's son will become some body，則語用效果相同。

需要指出的是每一個人的認知環境都在不斷變化，不斷擴大和豐富。人們已獲得的知識有助於他進一步認識未知的客觀事物。現代先進的交際手段把世界變得越來越小，全球經濟趨於一體化的發展，促進國際間頻繁交往，各種文化相互影響，尤其東西方文化的相互滲透和交融，拉近了人們的心理距離，認知環境差距的縮小也使得人們東西方文化差異意識增強，對異己文化從心理上能夠做到寬容、理解、對比、接受。改革開放以來，神秘的東方文化吸引着八方來客，中國文化直接、間接地傳播到外域文化中，許多特有的文化意義被不同文化背景的人們所認知，最為典型的是中國的龍文化。因此，全球化發展的今天，把“望子成龍”譯為 to hope that one's son will become a dragon，在一定範圍的讀者群可獲得相同的語用效果。所以，一種譯法不一定一成不變，應當動態地對待。

例：西方人愛狗如愛子，經常讓它與人平起平坐，把狗與人相提並論，如“I'm lucky to have two dogs and two daughters”。而“狗”在漢文化中一般是骯髒醜陋的形象，人們常用“狗”來罵

人，如“狗仗人勢”、“狼心狗肺”、“狗腿子”等。這並不是說兩個民族的狗的特性不一樣，而是由不同民族長期形成的民族習慣和民族心理決定的。當今社會，儘管養寵物者在都市遍及大江南北，視以為時尚，然而西方狗文化的心理沉澱或對狗這一動物的價值觀並未被東方人所完全接受，表現出不同的差異，褒與貶相對，甚至對一些各自的說法 and 做法不可思議，造成理解空白，翻譯時應考慮兩種不同的價值觀和讀者的接受力，從語用角度傳達意義。

英語說 “You are a lucky dog”^[8] 意為 “你是個幸運的人”。如果譯成 “你是一條幸運的狗”，漢語讀者以為這是一句罵人的話，語用意義大相逕庭。

相反，漢語中 “痛打落水狗”，譯為 “Flog the drowning dog” 不僅不能傳達漢語貶義的語用意義，反而會引起西方人的同情之感，產生事與願違的效果，不如直接揭示語用意義 “be merciless with bad people even if they're down”。

文化差異反映在風俗習慣、歷史典故、宗教文化、地域文化、價值觀念、思維方式等方方面面，翻譯中譯者容易從其熟悉的內部文化理解或代替原文所反映的文化意義，造成誤譯。語用翻譯有助於譯者重視或強調文化意義的傳達，消除因文化差異造成的誤譯，正確傳達原文的語用意義。

(2) 語用翻譯有助於譯者從追求語用效果的角度，靈活處理翻譯中的難題，化不可譯為可譯，擴大可譯者性範圍。

造成翻譯的局限是語言的相異性，而語言的相異性是社會文化的多樣性造成的。為了最大限度消除語言產生的隔閡，使不同語言文化之間得以交流，翻譯就必須創造性地化不可譯為可譯。

根據格賴斯的會話隱涵理論，語用學應對各種隱含意義給予解釋，將這一理論運用於翻譯以追求語用效果等值來翻譯各種隱含意義，就為不可譯轉化為可譯，擴大可譯性範圍和程度提供了理論依據。

例：Rob Peter to pay Paul.^[9] 拆東牆補西牆／借錢還債。出現本民族特有的事物而不可譯時，採取意義闡釋替代法。（按：此說法源於 1650 年聖彼得教堂併入倫敦教區時，很多財產撥歸聖保羅這一歷史事實。）

例：頭韻（alliteration）在拼音文字與表意文字差別很大，一般說來，頭韻可譯性程度極其有限，但不乏有人大膽嘗試，採用其他語言手段，間接地創造性表現其總體的音韻效果。

例：The fair breeze blew, the white foam flew, the furrow followed free. (S. T. Coleridge, *The Rime of the Ancient Mariner*)

譯：清風徐徐吹，白浪翻翻飛，水花任意隨船尾。^[10]

譯文恰到好處地運用漢語裏的複疊和間韻將頭韻的清柔輔音 [f] 以及內韻 [u:] 用模仿清風輕濤的象聲詞譯成 “徐徐吹”、“翻翻飛”，創造了一種整體和諧的意境，加強譯文的音韻效果，使讀者感受到一些原文的音韻美。

在習慣表達方式上，兩種語言習語結構形式或辭彙相同極為有限時，換相同語用效果的譯語習慣表達。例如：漢語習慣說 “踢足球可是他的拿手好戲”，英語習慣說 “Football is just his cup of tea”；英語習慣說 “rain cats and dogs”，漢語習慣說 “大雨滂沱” 或 “下傾盆大雨”。

當兩種事物之間的比喻使譯文讀者無法產生聯繫和聯想而造成不可譯時，應根據漢語習慣調整，以達到語用效果等值。例如：as cunning as a dead pig 像狐狸一樣狡猾；as drunk as a mouse 爛醉如泥。

(3) 語用翻譯有助於譯者確立翻譯中的主體意識，正確把握原文作者的意圖用意，並考慮讀者的可接受力及期待視野，通過譯者一系列積極思維活動，靈活處理翻譯中的問題。

比如，話語的主體意圖必要時直接增補出。

例： The wind ... brought to his cheek that which caused the blood to leave it—snow! He started to his feet with the intention of awakening the sleepers, for there was no time to lose. (F. B. Harte)

字面意義：因為刻不容緩。弦外之音：因此須要馬上趕路。
(姚念贇、范岳：〈試就思維方式的差異論英漢語言表達與翻譯〉)
如照字面意義譯出，給人以語義不全之感，因此要增補譯出語用意義。這句話根據語境暗示 started to his feet，譯成“因為刻不容緩，因此須要馬上趕路”。

例：英語中“I love you”，廣泛應用在朋友以及家庭成員之間（胡文仲，《文化與交際》，頁101）。尤其當一個人受到挫折時，他（她）的家人和朋友使用這句話來鼓勵。漢語中“我愛你”應用範圍狹窄，一般用於戀人之間，對“我愛你”不同語境的使用，如果不譯出原作主體意圖，有時會影響理解，譯成漢語必要時增補譯出其語用意義，化隱為顯，才能獲得相同的語用效果。

比如下面父子間對話：

——I failed in the English exam, Dad.

——I love you, Son.

——爸爸，我英語考試沒通過／及格。

——兒子，努力吧，你會成功的，我愛你。（筆者試譯）

任何語言都具有不同語調傳遞不同資訊這種現象，英語尤為突出，對此應引起注意，以便確切領會說話者的意圖，正確理解表達話語意義。

例： Dialogue 1

A: "Good \morning, Jim. How's it going?

B: \Morning, Nancy. O. K. How are you doing? Long time no sec.

A: Yeah, it has been a long time. Too long. Unfortunately, I'm in kind of a rush right now.

B: So am I. Catch you some other time, huh?

A: Yeah, good / morning.

B: / Morning.

譯為： A： 早上好，基姆，一切好嗎？

B： 早上好，楠茜。我很好，你也好嗎？好久不見面了。

A： 是啊，好久不見了，時間太久了。不過我現在有點

急事。

B: 我也是。我以後找時間去看你, 好嗎?

A: 好的。再見。

B: 再見。

從上面對話中可以看出“Good morning”的調心是高降調時, 它的意思是“早晨好”, 低升調時, 它的意思是“再見”。

還應特別注意翻譯出英語降升調傳遞的言外之意。

例: Dialogue 2

A: Have you been to London and Paris?

B: I have been to [∨] Paris.

譯為: A: 你到過巴黎和倫敦嗎?

B: 我只到過巴黎。(言外之意: 我沒有到過倫敦)^[1]

以上例句直接或以增補方式譯出了語調意義。

總之, 語調是一種複雜的表意手段, 翻譯中傳達其語用意義不可忽視。

五、結束語

語用翻譯從交際的角度、語言外部的社會文化背景大框架、使用語言和理解語言的主體作用以及語言整體的動態意義、社會

功能方面辯證地看待翻譯中的種種問題。語用翻譯法的引入不失為跨越翻譯屏障的一項頗有意義的嘗試。其意義在於把現代語用學理論的研究成果應用於翻譯理論的研究和探索, 解釋傳統翻譯理論不能解釋的一些語言現象, 它增強了譯文的易解性、效果性, 擴大了可譯性的範圍, 有助於意義的理解與歸屬, 修正“意譯”的模糊概念。筆者對語用翻譯進行了嘗試性的淺析, 所涉及的方面十分有限, 語用翻譯的作用不僅僅是本文所提及的。由於本人理論水平、研究能力所限, 一些重要方面可能根本未涉及到, 所談及的問題可能有偏誤。筆者願意虛心請教專家前輩們, 對語用翻譯問題進行深入探討。

注釋

- [1] 何自然(1988), 《語用學概論》, 長沙: 湖南教育出版社, 頁3。
- [2] 何兆熊(1987), 〈語用・意義和語境〉, 《外國語》1987(5)。
- [3] 何自然, 《語用學概論》, 頁5。
- [4] 何兆熊, 〈語用・意義和語境〉, 文章中作者引用萊昂斯討論話語的合適性時對語境的認識, 引自 John Lyons, *Semantics*, Vol. 2, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, p. 547。
- [5] 格賴斯關於規約意義和非規約意義的解釋認為實際傳遞的內容等於字面意義+隱涵意義之和, 見張紹傑〈會話隱涵理論的新發展〉, 《外語教學與研究》1985(1): 28-37。
- [6] 譚載喜編譯《奈達論翻譯》一書中介紹: 奈達把語言的功能分為五種: 表達功能、信息功能、祈使功能、表感功能、交感功能, 見頁20-22。
- [7] 引自袁洪庚〈闡釋學與翻譯〉, 見《中國當代翻譯百論》。
- [8] 見《英語習語用法手冊》, 頁296。
- [9] 同上, 頁352。

- [10] 喻雲根、于嵐（1987），〈辭格翻譯初探〉，《中國翻譯》1987（1）：20。
- [11] 引自俞傑編著的《英語語調的辨義功能》，頁21、155。

參考文獻

- Jin, Di & Eugene A. Nida (1984). *On Translation: With Special Reference to Chinese English*. 北京：中國對外翻譯出版公司。
- 杜承南、文軍主編（1995），《中國當代翻譯百論》，重慶：重慶大學出版社。
- 何自然（1988），《語用學概論》，長沙：湖南教育出版社。
- 胡文仲（1994），《文化與交際》，北京：外語教學與研究出版社。
- 傑弗里·N·利奇著、李瑞華等譯（1987），《語義學》，上海：上海外語教育出版社。
- 劉宓慶（1987），〈論翻譯的技能意識〉，《中國翻譯》1987（5）：7-11。
- 譚載喜（1984），《奈達論翻譯》，北京：中國對外翻譯出版公司。
- 姚念廣、范岳（1983），〈試就思維方式的差異論英漢語言表達與翻譯〉，《翻譯通訊》1983（12）：26-30。
- 喻雲根、于嵐（1987），〈辭格翻譯初探〉，《中國翻譯》1987（1）：14-21。
- 張谷若（1980），〈地道的原文、地道的譯文〉，《翻譯通訊》1980（1）：19-23。
- 張經浩（2000），〈與奈達的一次翻譯筆談〉，《中國翻譯》2000（5）：28-33。
- 張紹傑（1985），〈會話隱涵理論的新發展——新 Grice 會話理論的新發展〉，見《外語教學與研究》1985（1）：28-37。
- 張澤乾（1994），《翻譯經緯》，武昌：武漢大學出版社。

作者簡介

何鍵，畢業於蘭州大學英語語言文學專業。曾供職於蘭州市黨校，副教授。甘肅省翻譯工作者協會會員，甘肅省語言文字學會會員。在國內刊物發表論文20餘篇，編寫《幹部實用基礎英語教程》，翻譯14集歷史資料片《20世紀大事記》，參與《邁向21世紀·甘肅》一書英文翻譯。研究興趣包括翻譯理論與實踐、比較文學、社會語言學等。

從語篇功能看地域性方言的翻譯

王 惠

Abstract

In a discourse, Geographical Dialect plays an important role in forming and indicating the character's personality, life background, social status, etc., hence, translators have to be constantly alert to its social implications and rendering strategies. This article, through analyzing the discousal function of Geographical Dialect and comparing various renderings, has a look into related translation strategies and the way of choosing matching dialects in Target Language.

一、引 言

House (1997) 認為譯文評價基於對“語言用者”和“語言使用”兩組語境因素的分析。語言用者涉及地域、方言、社會階層和歷史年代；語言使用的因素包括媒介、參與者、社會角色及其之間的關係、社會態度和職責範疇等。因此，涉及語言使用者的方言作為譯文評價的一個標準，對於其翻譯策略的考察和探討是有意義的。方言具體劃分為時間性、地域性和社會性方言，本文的討論重點是地域性方言。

“語言因地區差異而變異，從而產生了不同的地域性方言”

(Hatim & Mason 1990: 40)。在語篇之中，地域性方言對於人物的塑造起很大作用，因為人物個性主要通過語言來體現。而構成個性化語言的重要部份又是地域性方言。它的意義並不僅僅在於說明地區差異。具體地說，讀者可以通過地域性方言來判斷說話者來自何方，其教育和生活背景，個性甚至態度和意圖。而“意識到地區差異以及它所表現的思想、政治意義是成功譯者的基本要素……” (Hatim & Mason 1990: 40)。對譯者來說，意識到只是第一步，他還要考慮選用方言如何翻譯，以及在目的語中選取何種方言來翻譯等問題。他需要注意，某些情況下，用方言翻譯方言會引起意想不到的效果，譬如說，由於目的語方言和源語方言巨大的內涵差異而造成的截然不同的讀者反映；而用標準語翻譯方言會使譯文失去地域性方言在原文中產生的特殊效果。這就給我們提出一個問題：翻譯時，如何處理地域性方言才能達到原、譯文之間最大限度地功能對等？

本文將對一些地域性方言的譯文進行分析研究，目的是通過解讀地域性方言的語篇功能，探討其翻譯策略。

二、地域性方言的翻譯

下列譯例選自上海譯文出版社1984年版英國小說家托馬斯·哈代的《德伯家的苔絲》英文本及其四個中譯本（張谷若，1984；吳迪，1991；孫法理，1993；鄭大民，2001），以及《實用翻譯教程》（馮慶華）。資料均由中國的權威出版社（如上海譯文出版社、譯林出版社、人民文學出版社、上海外語教育出版社）出

版，或是由研究哈代的資深教授（如吳迪）翻譯，在讀者中有廣泛影響。

（一）譯例

例 1：

“Since I’ve been away?” Tess asked.

“Ay!”

“Had it anything to do with father’s **making such a mommet of himself in thik carriage** this afternoon? Why **did’er**? I felt inclined to sink into the ground with shame!” (Hardy 1984: 25)

譯文 1

“是俺不在家的時候，抖擻出來的嗎？”

“可不是。”

“今兒過晌兒，俺看見俺爹坐在大馬車裏，出那樣的洋相，他那是怎麼啦？是不是叫這檔子事折騰的？那陣兒把俺臊的，恨不得有個地縫兒鑽進去。”（張谷若，1984: 35）

譯文 2

“是俺不在家時發生的？”

“嗯。”

“今兒下午，俺看見俺爹怪模怪樣地坐在馬車裏，是不是跟這樁子兒有關？他出甚麼醜呀？俺羞得恨不得鑽到地洞裏去哩！”（吳迪，1991: 19）

譯文 3

“是我走了之後才發生的事嗎？”苔絲問。

“是的！”

“今天下午爹在外面可丟臉呢，回家的時候還坐了馬車，就是因為這件事麼？當時可真臊得我恨不得有個地洞鑽進去！”（孫法理，1993: 19）

譯文 4

“是我不在家的時候發生的麼？”苔絲問

“沒錯。”

“今天下午爸爸坐在馬車裏那模樣活像個稻草人，是不是跟這件事情有關係？他那是在幹甚麼呀？當時我真覺得羞死人了，恨不得地上有個洞趕緊鑽進去。”（鄭大民，2001: 13）

例 2：

捎……

他要出國。人沒出外貿局的大門，這消息便不脛而走。回到家裏，屋裏早坐滿了人。

“哥，給我捎台帶電腦的收錄機！”弟弟是那麼興奮，似乎收錄機唾手可得。

“哥，給我捎一套高級化妝品！”妹妹是那麼激動，好像高級化妝品已在她身上發揮了作用，更增添了她的嫵媚。

“媽，您捎點甚麼？”他問。

“不捎別的，捎台洗衣機就行！”丈母娘也高興得甚麼似的，嘴都快咧到了耳朵根底下。

“娘，您老呢？”

“不管咋着，把你捎回來就中！”娘的眼裏閃着晶瑩的光。

人陸續走了。

“志華，你捎點……”他柔情地扶着妻的肩。

“……我和娘一樣……”妻深情地望着他。

他的眼霎時濕漉漉了，兩串珍珠似的東西滴在妻的秀髮上。

（馮慶華，1997：382）

譯文

Bring ...

He was going abroad. The news spread rapidly even before he left the Foreign Trade Bureau.

When he reached home, he found a roomful of people waiting for him.

“Brother, please bring me a computer-controlled radio cassette recorder,” said his younger brother, apparently in high spirits, as if he could get what he wanted right away.

“Bring me a set of high-grade cosmetics, brother,” said his younger sister, filled with excitement, as if the high-grade cosmetics were taking effect on her, making her more charming.

“Mother, what do you want me to bring you?” he asked.

“Oh, just bring me a washing machine,” answered his mother-in-law, grinning from ear to ear. She was mighty happy.

“What about you, mom?”

“No matter what happens, please do bring yourself back home,”

replied his mother, her eyes glistening with tears.

People left his room one after another.

“Zhihua. What do you want ...” he asked, gently placing his hands on his wife’s shoulders.

“I have the same idea as mom ...” she said softly, gazing at him with affection.

At this, tears welled up in his eyes and streamed down onto her beautiful hair.（同上：462）

（二）分析

通常情況下，如果一個人受過良好的教育，就會說標準語（標準語可以說是受過一定教育的標誌），而那些沒有受過教育或所受教育極少的人會說方言或不規範的語言。根據不同場合和不同的說話物件，說話人還會自動進行語碼轉換。

在例1，哈代在小說中描述的苔絲是一個矛盾的兩面體——單純的苔絲（農民）和德伯家的苔絲（貴族）——一個卑微而驕傲，無知而有識的苔絲。苔絲是純潔的象徵，也是典型女性的象徵。讀者可以通過人物對話體會苔絲的性格特徵。苔絲的談話貫穿着兩種語碼：在家人及村民之間用方言，在外面有身份的人面前用標準語。這兩種語碼，分別代表苔絲的兩種對立的性格。小說一開始，家人和村人面前的苔絲與未受過教育的鄉民相比沒甚麼區別，她一口濃重的英國西南部方言（如譯例1原文中的黑體字部份），襯托出一個簡單、純潔、卑微、無知的苔絲。德北；另一方面，苔絲曾接受過一些教育，在有地位的人面前，她會使用規範的標準語進行交際。從小說第三部份開始，苔絲走出家門，去外

地打工。此時的苔絲已經是個成熟了的女人，不再是懵懂無知的女孩了。她的主要交際語言——標準語勾勒出一個受過教育、有思想、有見解的德伯家的苔絲。

地域性方言在這篇小說中有很強的語篇功能。它既有本身的社會政治意義——代表著一群受教育水平較低、主要靠體力謀生，思想單純樸實的社會弱勢群體，而且它與標準語（其文化內涵與地域性方言相對）的交替出現，其強烈的對比效果使讀者對芸芸眾生、社會百態有了更生動的認識。鑒於此，翻譯時，應注意不要削弱甚至抹殺方言在語篇中的地位。

下面，我們具體分析譯例。

譯文1採用地道的山東方言（如抖擻、可不是、俺爹等）替代原文中的方言。山東方言接近於普通話的發音及語法體系，讀者理解起來困難不大。操此方言的山東人以正直、勇敢、直率 and 淳樸聞名全國。山東方言的運用使原著中苔絲純潔、樸實而富有責任感的形象在譯文中得以再現。張譯本交替使用了山東方言和普通話兩種語碼，形式上與原文對應起來，同時基本再現了作者的寫作意圖。

譯文2採用方言（如：俺爹）+標準語（如：有關），而以方言為主替代原文中的方言。吳譯本對目的語方言加以改造，省略了一些難懂的部份。但是從譯本第三部份開始，譯者幾乎全部用標準語替代原文中的方言。也許是譯者認為，此時運用方言來翻譯方言，對於小說人物性格的烘托作用不大，因而可以放棄。

譯文3採用非正式語體的標準語替代原文中的方言。人物語言通俗易懂。

譯文4採用完全現代化而且比較正式的標準語（譯文中黑體字

部份）替代原文中的方言。通過鄭譯本，讀者可能會認為苔絲以及她的家人、朋友受過良好教育，這與原文讀者心目中的人物形象相差較大。

《苔絲》的英文原著（第25頁）提到苔絲在家裏說方言，而在有身份的人面前說標準語，但是通過譯文3和譯文4，讀者是體會不到這些的。這樣，原文中的方言與標準語的對比效果在這兩個譯本中沒有再現，完全抹殺了方言的語篇功能，從而使原文的表達效果和原作者的意圖傳遞大打折扣。

例2是一篇小小說，講述人們對主人公出國的不同反應。出現的人物都是“他”的親人，卻有不同的關心之處。弟弟，妹妹和丈母娘希望他給他們捎點東西，娘和妻只希望他安全返回。娘使用的語言是西北方言，這和妻的標準語不同。從娘的方言可以判斷，她來自西北地區。西北人憨厚樸實，從娘的話中，讀者可以體會到這一點。而且，母親的愛總是無私的，不求回報的。“不管咋着，把你捎回來就中！”只此一句話，讀者馬上感受到娘的性情，兒子對於娘的重要。平安是福，只要她的兒子能平安歸來！小說中的一句方言給讀者留下很深的印象。簡單而感人，這就是方言的效果。畫龍點睛正是方言在此語篇中的作用。

現在，我們來看看譯文。母親的話被譯為“No matter what happens, please do bring yourself back home”。很明顯，譯者用標準語代替了原文中的方言。而且，譯句中使用了較正式的表達手段。母親與兒子之間是非常親密的。他們之間使用的語言屬於最親密的一種。然而，譯文給人一種僵硬之感。“No matter what”比“whatever”正式得多，“please”完全可以不用。譯文容易使讀者誤認為娘受過良好教育，嚴肅認真。譯文暗含的意思是，“你

出門在外，不要玩得忘乎所以，記得回家”。毫無疑問，譯者未能成功表達作者的意圖。

三、討 論

上述例子及其分析至少給我們提出三個問題：

要不要採用和甚麼情況下採用方言來翻譯方言？如果要，應在目的語中選擇哪種地域性方言來翻譯？除了用方言來翻譯方言之外，還有沒有其他翻譯策略？

本節針對這些問題展開的討論是以地域性方言的語篇功能分析為基礎的。本文認為，翻譯之前，譯者首先要熟悉方言所處的語篇。充份認識了方言的語篇功能之後，才能確定它的翻譯策略。

(一) 要不要和甚麼情況下採用方言翻譯方言？

方言翻譯方言是一種歸化的翻譯方法。歸化法是由 L. Venuti (1995) 提出的，它的好處是“採用一種透明流暢的風格，縮短原文與譯文讀者之間的陌生感”（張美芳，1999）。而且，小說語篇中地域性方言的使用往往有其特殊含義。翻譯時，忽略不譯或用標準語代替方言翻譯會或多或少丟失原文的特殊效果。

對此，一些學者曾提出不同看法。孫致禮（2001）認為：方言只能使讀者難以讀懂譯文。讀者絕對體會不到原文使用的方言是甚麼味道，而只會感受到一種譯文中方言的“虛假腔”。翻譯時，不妨採用一種“打折扣”的體現辦法，用“俗氣”一些的話來

翻譯方言。下面是引自原文中的例子：

“Oh, that's all!” said Tess.

“You couldn't expect her to throw her arms round'ee, an' to kiss and to coll'ee all at once.” (Hardy, *Tess of the D'Urbervilles*, Ch. 6)

孫譯：“你總不能指望她一下就抱住你又親又啃吧。”

的確，考慮到方言不同的語篇功能，有時可以使用這種“打折扣”的體現辦法。但是，這些“俗氣”一些的話，或是非正式語體的語言在某些情況下，並不能與方言起着同日而語的作用，因為他們不能傳達方言負載的社會意義。本文認為，當地域性方言在原文中的語篇功能很強，即方言的使用影響到語篇的謀篇佈局，作者的意圖表達時，譯者應該採用方言翻譯方言的方法。仍以小說《苔絲》為例，我們在第二部份已經分析過，在此小說語篇中地域性方言對人物塑造和情節發展都有很大作用。方言所傳遞的文化資訊，以及方言與標準語的對比效果無法只通過“俗氣”一些的話體現出來。因而，例1中的譯文3雖然通俗易懂，但其功能與原文不能達到“對等”。奈達說，功能對等的翻譯，要求“不但是資訊內容的對等，而且盡可能地要求形式對等”（郭建中，2000: 66）。方言翻譯方言拉近了譯文讀者與原文的距離，從形式與資訊兩方面最大限度地實現了“功能對等”的翻譯原則。

從另一個角度看，原文中的方言同樣給原文讀者帶來理解上的困難，那麼，原文作者在寫作時，有沒有想到方言帶來的不便呢？顯然，原作者的目的不是刁難讀者，而是想借此傳遞自己的

寫作意圖。這樣說來，一味強調譯文中方言給讀者造成的理解困難，因而放棄方言翻譯，似乎有些說不通。

方言翻譯方言時，如有必要，可採用解釋或注腳以幫助讀者理解。

(二) 如果要，應選擇哪種地域性方言？

要解決這個問題，我們要首先把握說話者的性格特徵以及原文方言在源語文化中的社會意義，這就要求譯者有嚴謹的治學態度和豐富的源語文化知識。然後，譯者着手在目的語文化中尋找有相似功能的對應方言。在此過程中，方言在讀者中的普遍接受性應納入考慮範圍，以最大限度地減少讀者解碼的難度。

譯者必須小心避免使用負載不同社會文化意義，或與人物性格向左的方言。以《苔絲》為例，我們不宜用廣州方言或上海方言來翻譯。由於廣州和上海的特殊地位，這兩種方言在中國成了時髦的象徵，渴望成功人士希望學習的語言。以廣州為例，在報紙及各種媒介的招聘廣告中，“粵語流利”成為求職的硬性條件；廣州最大的書城——天河購書中心陳列的學習粵語的書籍、音帶等有數十種之多。他們代表的是較為先進的文化，是社會的強勢群體。而對於山東方言，作者幾乎還未見過有關書籍出售。

(三) 在方言／方言翻譯法之外，還有沒有其他翻譯策略？

地域性方言的語篇功能較弱的情況下，也就是說，如果不用方言翻譯方言對作者意圖的表達影響不大，我們可以採用其他翻譯策略，如標準語翻譯方言，俗氣語翻譯方言，忽略不譯等等。這些翻譯方法避免了方言帶來的理解上的困難，擴大了讀者群

體。另外，譯者的雙語水平也直接影響到翻譯策略的選擇。例2的譯者，可能對目的語文化所知甚少，而且語言水平不高，導致翻譯失敗。對於這些譯者，採用非正式語體的標準語翻譯原文方言是比較好的方法。例2中，如把原句譯作：“Whatever, if only you could be back!” 似乎較為妥當。

四、結束語

語篇中的地域性方言可以表現人物性格，增添故事的可讀性及生動性。但是地域性方言本身帶有強烈的文化內涵，難以理解，要在目的語中找到與之相對應的方言更加困難，對譯者而言是一個挑戰，這也許是對地域性方言的翻譯研究甚少的原因。但是，語言形式是資訊的一部份，形式也表達意義。地域性方言，作為一種語言形式，本身傳遞了一定的意義，而且，它在語篇中所起的作用很多情況下不容忽視，因此對它的翻譯策略進行探討很有必要。應當認識到對地域性方言語篇功能的分析有助於譯者對原文的理解以及翻譯策略的選擇。

本文對語篇中出現的關於地域性方言的譯文進行討論。通過對地域性方言在原文及譯文中語篇功能的分析，作者發現，解碼其語篇功能可以幫助譯者決定方言翻譯策略。在接下來的三個問題中，作者對此問題進一步討論，試圖為譯者提供更多的選擇。

參考文獻

- Hardy, T. (1984). *Tess of the D'Urbervilles*. 上海: 上海譯文出版社。
Hatim, B. & Mason (1990). *Discourse and the Translator*. London and New York: Longman.
House, J. (1997). *Translation Quality Assessment: A Model Revisited*. Tbingen: Gunter Narr.
馮慶華 (1997), 《實用翻譯教程》, 上海: 上海外語教育出版社。
郭建中 (2001), 《當代美國翻譯理論》, 武漢: 湖北教育出版社。
孫法理譯 (1993), 《苔絲》, 南京: 譯林出版社。
孫致禮 (2001), 〈翻譯的異化與歸化〉, 《山東外語教學》2001 (1): 32-35。
吳迪譯 (1991), 《苔絲》, 杭州: 浙江文藝出版社。
張谷若譯 (1984), 《德伯家的苔絲》, 北京: 人民文學出版社。
張美芳 (1999), 〈用歸化法還是異化法?〉, 語篇與語言的功能國際會議, 廣州: 中山大學。
鄭大民譯 (2001), 《苔絲》, 上海: 上海譯文出版社。

作者簡介

王惠, 廣州華南理工大學外國語學院講師, 中山大學外國語學院翻譯理論與實踐碩士。本文寫作得到導師張美芳老師的悉心指導, 特此致謝。

台灣地區翻譯批評之初步分析

胡功澤

Abstract

The year 1950 marks a turning point in the history of Taiwan. Besides changes in the political and economic situation, the cultural sphere likewise entered a period of transition. As Itamar Even-Zohar has argued, translations play an important role in generating literary production during such a transition, and from the 1950s, a certain amount of scholarly research began to focus on the importance of translation to the emerging Taiwan literary milieu. But it was not until 1971 that there appeared a journal more seriously devoted to the publishing of translation criticism (as understood in the specific sense of criticism involving comparison of ST and TT versions). The contents of this journal, together with criticism found in other sources (such as conference papers, theses, and literary journals), provide an initial insight into the practice and needs of translation criticism in Taiwan.

Earlier translation criticism in Taiwan primarily stressed "domesticating" principles, arguing that a translation should read "fluently", be "like an original" or have "no translation style". The Liang Shiqiu translation prizes further developed such criteria. In the 1980s and 1990s, however, the so-called "cultural turn" exerted an influence on translation criticism, with critiques drawing on the ideas of Lefevere, Even-

Zohar and post-colonial theory. These try to examine translation conditions under which systematic interference is discovered.

Criticism of practical (i.e. non-literary) translations has also been undertaken since the very beginning, but the criteria have mainly been those used for literary translation. Such criticism has sometimes thus proved of little use to practical translation. It was even suggested that air accidents have been caused from unsuitable translation of airplane manuals. Furthermore, disagreements between translator and editor arise from differing views as to the nature of practical (or professional) translation. All the facts show that we need more clearly differentiated criteria for translation criticism, both for literary and non-literary texts.

前言

筆者在本文裏所要作的，主要是一項“分析”的工作。也就是說，在我們面前，並列着一些翻譯批評的文章，筆者要運用這些文章來教學或者研究的時候，必須先給它們作某種分類，以便比較或解釋。

這種分析，與翻譯工作本身比較起來，總是片面的，而非全面的。翻譯的實踐，是以兩種（以及以上）的文化，語言，專業等等知識為基礎，動用個人腦力以及情感，將其綜合起來，運用在轉移語言以及文化的過程之上。因此，翻譯是一項極為錯綜複雜的“綜合”性質的過程。^[1]

而分析的描述工作，則是從某一個角度切入，從外面進入這

個錯綜複雜的過程，單單從某一種或幾種理智的觀點，剖析出一些可以明白的條理。因此，從某一個角度來說，翻譯的實踐工作的本身，仍然是翻譯研究當中最基礎的部份。

不過，正因為分析工作是從翻譯之外切入的，正因為是比較性質的，或許也會獲得另一種看法，正如俗語所說的：旁觀者清，會看到一些細節，而那可能是翻譯工作者本身，在翻譯過程當中，沒有時間去注意的一些因素，或者只是在翻譯者的潛意識當中的東西。分析工作所說的東西，雖然是片面的，但如果這些的看法，被翻譯者接受吸收之後，希望也能夠有助於翻譯實踐。

翻譯研究工作所獲得的結果，要看研究的出發點，是廣還是狹，是深還是淺。因此我們要先來簡單的看一下，我們分析工作的根據在哪裏。

本文的理論基礎

James S. Holmes 曾經為翻譯研究（Translation Study）定了名稱，同時也為翻譯研究工作劃分了幾個基本方向，^[2] 這個劃分的第一個方向，即“描述翻譯學”（descriptive translation studies），經過 Gideon Toury 等人的努力（例如見 Toury 1995），^[3] 大大發展了今天所謂的“描述性翻譯學”（或者稱為“操縱學派”，其中被認為是主要人物的有 Itamar Even-Zohar、Jose Lambert、Theo Hermann、Andre Lefevere 和 Susan Bassnet 等人），而所謂的“功能性學派”的 Katharina Reiss 也做一些補充和修訂（Reiss 1996），^[4] 但是到目前為止，仍然是大部份人所公認的一種基本分類。在此

我們並不對翻譯研究的分類做研究，我們只借用這分類法，來看一看，我們現在作的翻譯批評的分析，它在翻譯研究裏面的位置在何處。

Holmes 認為，翻譯研究可以分為描述部份、理論部份以及應用部份。描述部份包含了對翻譯成品的描述（例如翻譯版本之比較），對翻譯過程的描述（例如研究譯者為何這樣翻譯），以及針對特定功用的描述（例如翻譯對一國的文學的影響）。

值得我們注意的是，Holmes 指出，描述部份是翻譯理論的基礎，而翻譯批評屬於翻譯理論的應用，因此建立在翻譯理論之上。

翻譯批評的分析，如果有理論的基礎，解釋起來，會比較容易，而且適用的範圍比較廣。用學術一點的話語來說，就是比較有點客觀性。其實客觀性本身就需要一些解釋，此處筆者所說的客觀性指的是，批評理論裏面的主要用詞，盡可能的有限定的範圍，也就是說，要讓閱聽人容易抓住寫說人所要講的對象。例如我們要深入說翻譯批評，有的時候，僅用“翻譯”兩個字就可以，不過需要的時候，我們要說“文學翻譯”以及“非文學翻譯”，以便分清對象。再例如，批評翻譯的時候，我們會說“信達雅”三個字，有的時候，這已經達到批評的目的；但是有的時候，為了討論得深入一點，就要更進一步說明，我們說的“信”，是忠信於甚麼？是忠信於原文？還是忠信於讀者？又或者是忠信於原文的內容？還是忠信於原文的文字結構？這樣做的目的，無非是讓彼此能夠在同一個討論對象上面得到溝通，否則，容易產生誤會，或者無謂的討論。

所以我們所說的客觀，不外是說，用詞的範圍要清楚一些而

已，以便大家可以瞭解，容易加入討論。

這樣做的同時，也表達了一個意思，就是：我們不認為自己所提出來的理論就一定是絕對客觀的真理（客觀只是用詞的範圍要盡量清楚）。當然，站在自己的立場，我們盡量提出自己認為是好的東西，是有用的東西，希望對翻譯研究有所幫助。不過，我們是採取開放的態度。

在本文當中，我們將針對不同的需要，運用到不同的翻譯理論。例如，在翻譯批評的基本架構上，採用 Reiss 的批評策略。^[5]談到批評翻譯的標準時，其大前提是 Hans Vermeer 的目的理論（Skopostheory）。^[6]在這兩個大前提之下，可以接上 Itamar Even-Zohar 的多元系統論^[7]以及 Laurence Venuti 所提出的 Domestication 和 Foreignization 翻譯方式。^[8]此外，Andre Lefevere 所提出的，受到權力，意識型態等操縱的“重寫”現象，將在討論翻譯與文化之間的關係時，予以運用。

Reiss 的翻譯批評架構與 Vermeer 的目的理論

Reiss 提出的批評模式以及按照這個模式所做的翻譯批評，是筆者所知道的文章中，批評架構較為完整的。Jose Lambert 在 1991 年說道：“特別是在賴斯（Reiss）的著作出版之後，（翻）譯評（論）被認為是專門範疇。”^[9]Christiane Nord 也在其著作中，列出 Reiss 的翻譯批評模式，做為其理論的源頭。^[10]

筆者認為 Reiss 的批評模式具有完整性，主要是因為：（一）

她的模式建立在語言符號的三個基本功能上面，因此它能夠平等的適用於各種文章的翻譯批評；而且，語言符號的三個基本功能適用於全世界的語言。以此為基礎的批評理論，也應該適用於各種語言的翻譯批評當中。（二）由於 Reiss 的理論非常基本，配合 Vermeer 的目標理論，可以接得上其他翻譯理論的論點，例如 Even-Zohar 的文學多元系統，或者 Lefevere 提出的意識型態以及文學觀對於翻譯的操縱等觀念。（三）她的模式也考慮到傳達語言的媒介因素，因此也能夠用來討論透過媒體的翻譯，例如影視翻譯或口譯。^[11]

Reiss 以 Karl Buhler 的符號工具模式 Organonmodell^[12] 為基礎，將符號的三方面功能：表現 (Ausdruck)，描述 (Darstellung) 以及訴求 (Appell) 運用到文章的分類，分別將文章分為三個基本的，理論上的類別：表達類，也就是一般所謂的文學類；描述類，一般所謂的非文學類；不過她還按照語言符號的第三方面功能，提出了所謂的訴求類，這裏面包括廣告，政治演說等。這個分類是理論化的，因為很少文章是極端的只屬於某一類。在大多数的文章裏面，都包含這三個類別，只是分配的比例各有多有少而已。

這樣的分類方式，Eugene Nida 曾簡短的提到過，而 Peter Newmark 則提出過同樣的分類，劉宓慶也研究過文類與翻譯的問題，只是，Reiss 不僅把這個分類作為翻譯批評的基礎，而且在此基礎之上，發展了一套一貫的翻譯批評方法。按照上面的三大類文體，在翻譯批評的時候，再按照語言因素以及語言之外的因素加以批評。

Reiss 運用語言學的單位，例如風格、句法、語意、詞彙等項

目，作為翻譯批評的範疇，給它們在翻譯批評的過程中，按照文類，排列優先次序。例如，在文學類中，翻譯批評的順序，最重要的是風格，其他的語言要素，例如語音、句法、詞彙都要配合風格的大前提去評斷。在傳達訊息為主的翻譯裏，最重要的是語意，然後是句法、詞彙，最後才是風格。當然 Reiss 也強調，這種用語言單位做優先順序的排列，是一種批評翻譯的一般性方法。至於在實際的境況中，批評翻譯時，先要針對那一篇文章的實際狀況來排列優先順序。例如都是傳達訊息為主的文章，在有些專業文章裏，批評的優先順序，首先是語意，之後，就要數詞彙的適當性了；而在有些科普的文章中，在正確的語意之後，就是個人的寫作風格，然後才是詞彙與句法的翻譯考量。^[13]

翻譯的外在條件，例如時代因素、地方因素、對象因素等，對於翻譯的影響，也都因為文類的不同，而在翻譯批評的過程中，佔有不同的份量。近來發展的以文化研究，例如後殖民、後現代的翻譯研究，也屬於翻譯之外的因素，例如性別差異、權力結構、意識型態等，它們對翻譯造成的影響，例如扭曲、壓抑等，也會因為文類的不同，而在翻譯中扮演著輕重不同的角色。

接着，我們簡單介紹目的理論 (Skopostheorie)。Vermeer 的目的理論，認為每一個翻譯都有個目的。這個目的的決定權，需要視乎每一篇翻譯的情況而定，或許是翻譯的委託人，或許是譯者自己，而這個目的，不一定等同於原文在其本來的文化環境中所具有的目的。一旦定下翻譯的目的，這個目的達成與否，決定翻譯是否成功。比如說，如果譯者認為文學翻譯要達到忠實於原文的風格，那麼，這就是他文學翻譯的目的，也就是他翻譯時選詞用字的指引。

譯者要意識到他在翻譯時候的自主性，雖然在翻譯時，他時時受制於原文，但是，還是有需要他作出決定的地方，例如用甚麼方法或要達到甚麼效果等，這些決定將會影響他的遣詞用字；同時，這也是他的責任。選擇“通順流利”與“忠實”也是一種選擇，而且是許多選擇當中的一種。至於 Venuti 提出的“異化性”(Foreignization) 翻譯，則是另一種選擇。

根據以上所簡介的 Reiss 以及 Vermeer 的理論與方式，我們可以進一步反省一下台灣地區在大約 50 年來翻譯批評的情況。

做反省工作之前，我們先說明所收集到的資料。

資料的收集

有時候，批評翻譯的文章是很難與一般翻譯評論的文章清楚分開的。在評論翻譯的時候，也常常談到翻譯批評。為了集中我們現在討論的對象，筆者在此擬做一個分別：我們在此僅討論那些將某一特定譯文與原文比較之後所做的翻譯批評。當然，這只是一個大的方向而已。按照這個標準，一般性的討論翻譯的文章，我們暫時不列入討論。我們只考慮那些以一個文本做基礎的討論。

筆者所收集的資料，主要來自以下的出版物：報紙副刊、期刊、學報、學術會議論文以及碩博士論文。

從 1950 到 1970 年，雖然當時的報紙副刊以及雜誌，例如《現代文學》常有翻譯文章，^[14] 但是鮮有翻譯批評。從《中國文化資料庫》〈1946 — 1979 論文目錄〉之下，可以找到一般性質的翻譯

評論文章，例如康文冰在《今日世界》的〈論翻譯之重要〉(1952) 與〈論翻譯之難〉(1952)，不過此均非我們在此要討論的翻譯批評範圍。《史語所集刊》刊登的趙元任的〈論翻譯中信達雅的信的幅度〉(1969) 以及《東方雜誌》周謙的〈論翻譯〉(1969) 也屬一般評論範圍。

1971 年開始，翻譯批評的環境大有改善，特別是 1972 到 1983 年出版了一百期的《書評書目》雜誌，為翻譯批評提供了適當的園地，收集了許多有水準的翻譯批評。

在一百期《書評書目》中，翻譯評論文章（參考前文所說的選擇標準）共有 25 篇。它們具有下列特色：

(一) 這些批評，正如齊邦媛在第 17 期上所說的，“實實在在地提出原文譯作對照”達到了“嚴正的批評的標準”。

(二) 被批評的文章，非文學的文章佔了大約有一半的份量。可見翻譯批評從一開始，就已經注意到非文學文章的翻譯品質。比如：對邏輯、科普、時事等文章的翻譯批評。在這些批評當中已經可以見到，批評是以“專業”內容的正確表達為主。與此不同的是，文學類文章的批評，大多在於文字風格，對原文的正確瞭解為批評的主軸。

(三) 其中也有對英文以外的西方文學的批評（例如：赫塞的《玻璃珠遊戲》〔44 期〕）。

此外，一些刊物例如《中外文學》(1972 創刊)、《聯合文學》(1984 創刊) 也關注到翻譯的問題，不時有翻譯的專論，其中也有翻譯批評。特別在《書評書目》停刊之後，《中外文學》與《聯合文學》是刊登有關翻譯評論以及翻譯批評的主要園地。後來創刊的《文訊》(1993)、《當代》(1996) 等雜誌，也都有翻譯批評的

文章。這時候，新的翻譯批評方向也漸漸出籠。起源於 Jacques Derrida 解構主義的後現代，後殖民的語言文化觀點，是啟發這一波翻譯批評的原動力。在此僅舉幾個標題，以示一斑。

- 1994 傅大為：〈少女身體的中文翻譯：簡析“文榮光的杜拉”〉（《中外文學》）
- 1997 李尚仁：〈傅柯的醫學考古學與醫學史：評《臨床醫學的誕生》中譯本〉（《台灣社會研究季刊》）
- 2000 劉人鵬：〈近代中國女權論述——國族、翻譯與性別政治〉（台北：學生書局。特別見第二章）
- 2001 林筱青：〈《喜福會》的翻譯策略：華裔美國文學翻譯實例〉（輔仁大學翻譯研究所）

除了報紙和期刊之外，1990 及 1992 年的兩次“中國文學翻譯國際研討會”曾經提供了極有水準的翻譯研討園地，許多國際知名的翻譯學者均有參與並發表論文。從此之後，也有各種討論翻譯的研討會，如 1994 年的“外國文學中譯國際研討會”以及各種外語文學會議。在這些場合發表的翻譯評論文章，後來許多也都刊登在各種期刊上面。

輔仁大學於 1988 年以及師範大學於 1996 年分別成立翻譯研究所以後，學生的碩士論文，不但很快的增加了翻譯批評的數量，而且也提供了大規模翻譯批評的機會。例如，輔仁大學翻譯研究所已經有 60 冊以上的論文。雖然不都是做翻譯批評的題目，不過，也有不少翻譯批評在裏面。以下列出一些與翻譯批評有關的論文（在此也包括其他大學的翻譯批評論文）：

- 1990 陳雅音：〈外國電影中譯之語意研究〉（輔仁大學翻譯研究所）

- 1990 蔡雅琪：〈葛諾小說《酷冬》之中譯及評論〉（輔仁大學翻譯研究所）
- 1993 張婉瑜：〈杜氏妥也夫斯基《罪與罰》第一、二章內容中文譯本之比較研究〉（文化大學東方語文學系）
- 2000 張麗美：〈論歌劇劇本翻譯中戲劇及音樂之關係〉（輔仁大學翻譯研究所）
- 2000 王書芬：〈繪畫展覽圖錄翻譯探討：譯評《黃金印象——奧賽美術》〉
- 2001 〈評王爾德《理想丈夫》二中譯本〉（輔仁大學翻譯研究所）
- 2001 鄭立中：〈米蘭·昆德拉《雅克和他的主人——向狄德羅致敬的三幕劇》法文劇本中譯暨評論〉（輔仁大學翻譯研究所）
- 2001 黃珮珊：〈日譯中字幕翻譯與配音翻譯之比較〉（輔仁大學翻譯研究所）
- 2001 李俊忠：〈《混沌碰上華爾街》之翻譯與譯評〉（師範大學翻譯研究所）
- 2001 黃珪璣：〈彼得·施奈德著《倫茨》中譯與評介〉（中國文化大學德國語文學研究所）
- 2001 林美君：〈阿德貝爾·封·沙米索著《彼得·史勒米爾奇遇記》中譯與評介〉（中國文化大學德國語文學研究所）
- 2001 林筱青：〈《喜福會》的翻譯策略：華裔美國文學翻譯實例〉（輔仁大學翻譯研究所）

這一批研究，顯示出另一個新的特色，就是翻譯批評的對象種類變多了，除了文學文本的批評之外，有影視、歌劇、繪本等的翻譯作品，成為翻譯批評的對象。這同時也顯示了翻譯隨着時代的腳步，也變得越來越多樣化。

資料分析

根據以上所列資料，筆者作出以下分析。

(一) 詞彙語法層面的批評：這種批評方式是目前最常見的一種。就拿最近的一篇翻譯批評做例子。《後現代主義狀況》一書中譯的批評，所指出的 60 個錯誤當中，大多是指出詞彙句法的誤解。當然，詞彙句法乃語意的載體，乃是翻譯的基本功。不過，翻譯千萬字當中，能夠完全無誤的又有幾人？^[15] 所以，指出翻譯中的誤譯或錯譯，固然是翻譯批評當中的一項工作，但是，一般來說，容易有下列的缺點：(1) 這種批評法往往給人一種零零星星、瑣碎的感覺，想要學習的人，也只能夠一個詞一個詞，一種情況一種情況個別的去學習改正。更何況，所謂正確的意義，會隨着時間，隨着人生經驗，隨着境況更動而改變。(2) 這種批評法容易讓人只注意到翻譯成果的負面失誤，卻不容易讓人發現翻譯工作的正面功夫。翻譯的正面功夫，就是翻譯者在翻譯前對原文所做的詮釋、取舍的抉擇、翻譯者所定下的翻譯目標等等。^[16] 換一種說法，批評文字句法錯誤的方式，只用翻譯的成品與原文對照，找出不對等的地方；忽略了翻譯者決定如何翻譯的過程。而正是這些選擇，決定翻譯者的遣詞與用字，因此更為重要。

最近“描述學派”翻譯理論提出的“系統性”的翻譯批評概念，筆者覺得頗能增加這種批評詞彙句法方式的深度和廣度。傅大為在他最近的一篇文章裏提到^[17]：“翻譯的問題，常常不是‘一小部份’或‘零零星星’的問題，而是‘系統性’的問題。”“許多孤立的翻譯錯誤，如果‘系統地’整體來看，常常可以顯示出譯者有系統的意識型態扭曲或偏見。”“譯者常常容易會系統性地遺漏或扭曲了作者犀利而不尋常的論點，並且草草地以一般泛泛的俗論，或想當然耳的說法來翻譯之。”

傅大為利用這種翻譯批評方式，對殷海光翻譯的《海耶客》、弗洛伊德的一本中譯，以及一位女性主義者 Evelyn Fox Keller 的中譯本做了示範性的分析。^[18]

不過直到目前，好像這種系統性的翻譯批評概念，只從文化研究的出發點，例如各種意識型態、性別、階級、族群、權力關係等，來檢視翻譯。

筆者認為，這種系統性的翻譯批評方式，也大可以用在其他因素（例如文章的時代或地方因素等等）以及語言的層面。

特別在語言層面，經過系統的分析，翻譯者可以發現自己的語言習慣，尤其是初學者，不論是詞彙、句法，或者風格，都會對翻譯產生影響。翻譯者可以從改正或者擴大自己的語言習慣來增進翻譯能力。^[19]

(二) 追求“忠實，流利通順”的標準：從我們所看到的文學翻譯批評來看，文學批評的原則，可以用“忠實，流利通順”來綜合。這個標準並非不好或者哪裏不對，不過，就像前面對批評詞彙句法的方式一樣，我們也可以看得更廣更深一點。

在文學翻譯的時候，“通順”與“忠實”並非常常相容的目

標。如果我們要忠實於原文，那麼就該“假定原作流暢，你就還他一個流暢；原作艱澀，你就還他一個艱澀；原作樸拙，你就還他一個樸拙；原作華麗，你就還他一個華麗；原作明快，你就還他一個明快；原作清新，你就還他一個清新；原作平實，你就還他一個平實；原作粗獷，你就還他一個粗獷…”^[20] 因此，“通順流暢”只是文學翻譯的其中一種可能性罷了。^[21]

正如 Venuti 所說的，通順只是翻譯的一種方式，還可以有 Foreignization 的方式。他還提醒，如果只講通順的翻譯，許多時候就會背叛或者扭曲原意。正如文化研究為出發點的翻譯批評所指出來的。

其實，是不是要做一篇“忠實”的翻譯，還要先看看翻譯者的決定。這也是比較廣的翻譯觀讓我們注意到的一件事，也是目的理論所要說明的。舉例說，有一本原文文字很創新但不很通順的作品，如果我們要讓讀者盡可能在毫不費力的情況下閱讀其中內容，我們會說是一本好的，忠實的翻譯（因為內容忠實於原文）；但是，如果譯者想要保留原文文字的特色，他的譯文，我們或許會說他直譯，但它也是忠實的翻譯。正如梁實秋所說：“鳩摩羅什譯的金剛經，和玄奘譯的金剛經，一為直譯，一為意譯，二者並存，各有千秋。”^[22]

而嚴復、林紓的翻譯，一般來說，我們認為不是那麼忠實的翻譯，我們也能夠從這種更廣的角度，從他們翻譯的過程去瞭解（包括他們翻譯的動機、目的等等）去看，而不是僅僅從翻譯的成品去看，去與原文比較而已。或許能夠發覺他們自有自己忠實的目標，而我們也能夠更公平的評斷他們翻譯的工作與成就了。^[23]

在這裏，或許要提到一下“信達雅”。葉維廉曾經對“信達

雅”做過精闢的解（構）說（明）。不過，沿用“信達雅”的人，仍然非常多。筆者認為，“信達雅”三字並非不能用，只是應該有下列的補充說明：（1）“信達雅”可以用在非學術性的場合，在一般談論翻譯的時候可以用。因為“信達雅”這三個字，簡單好用又好懂，又可大約道出翻譯的所有要素（對原文或原作者要“信”，對讀者要“達”，對文本本身要“雅”）。（2）在討論翻譯的學術場合，有時候需要嚴謹的定義，如果我們說“信”或者“忠實”的時候，應該馬上說明，要“信”，要“忠實”於甚麼：是針對原文的意義，或者是原文的風格，或者是原文的文字結構等等。免得在討論時產生歧義和無謂的困擾。

（三）多樣的翻譯實踐：非文學的翻譯，有愈來愈多的趨勢，不只在量方面，而且種類也多了，“因為目前我們需要翻譯的工作，不限文學作品，其他學科的新知介紹同樣極為迫切”^[24]。根據上面所收集到的翻譯批評來看，我們會發現，從開始以來，我們已經注意到非文學性的翻譯，比如說：社會學、邏輯、科學的文章或書籍。在批評這些非文學類的文章時，自然而然的，批評者的注意力集中在專科的知識上面。換句話說，檢視非文學的翻譯文章時，已經引用了不同於批評文學翻譯的標準。

上文所引用的 Reiss 的文章分類，就把翻譯批評者的這種分別，用比較完整的方式敘述出來，提供了一個批評不同類別翻譯的方法。

除此之外，我們見到，尤其在翻譯研究所的論文裏，更有其他類別的翻譯：電影字幕、歌劇、音樂翻譯等等。這一類翻譯批評也亟待整理，給翻譯工作者作為參考。Reiss 的分類之中，也包含了媒體的媒介因素，我們可以從這方面做進一步的研發。

結語

從以上分析，我們可以大約看出 50 年來翻譯批評在台灣地區發展的軌跡，以及每一個時期的特點。當然，這種時期的劃分總是為了說明的方便而硬加上去的；事實上，翻譯批評的傳承是綿延不斷的，而各種批評方式之間的相互影響，也是錯綜複雜的。

從 1950 到 1970 年可以說是播種的時期。我們可以把每一篇翻譯當作一粒小種子，一粒一粒的種在一個新的土壤裏，需要時間讓它慢慢成長，它們是翻譯批評得以發展的根本。

1971 到 1980 年是翻譯批評第一次開花結果的時期。例如藉着《書評書目》等雜誌，已經呈現了多樣性的翻譯批評的模式。

1981 至 1990 年則承接上個世紀，繼續開花結果。比如說，“梁實秋文學獎”的翻譯批評，已經達到極高的水準。

1991 至 2000 年的特色是透過後現代文化研究的風潮，激發了新的翻譯研究方向，例如意識型態、政治權力、性別、後殖民現象對翻譯的影響等等。而受到後結構主義的影響，譯者的自主性、譯文的後起生命、原文原意的不確定性等概念，成為翻譯批評的基礎。當然，傳統的翻譯批評方式仍然繼續着它們的生命。

“翻譯工作坊”的成立，收集了許多有力的翻譯批評，讓人耳目一新，而且感覺到旺盛的生命力。

兩座翻譯研究所的成立，更成為匯聚翻譯實踐、翻譯理論以及翻譯批評的理想園地，極具翻譯批評的發展潛力。

在本文中，筆者提出 Reiss 的翻譯批評架構，試圖替不同種類文章，釐定出它們自己的翻譯批評標準，以彰顯各種文類獨有的特色，給予更為有效的翻譯批評。筆者也引進 Vermeer 的目的理

論，替譯者的自主性，以及譯文的獨立性，從翻譯的角度，給予理論的基礎。

在此兩者之上，Even-Zohar 的多元系統論，Lefevere 所提出的，受到權力、意識型態等操縱的“重寫”現象，以及 Venuti 所提出的 Domestication 和 Foreignization 等批評概念，均可以相輔相成的結合使用，給予一個更為完整公允的翻譯批評。

注釋

- [1] 參考黃宣範：“翻譯能力的訓練是個歸納性的學問。……它（翻譯）具有兩種特性，即等方性與歪因式。等方性（Isotropic）是說一切的知識都跟翻譯的行為有關。”（〈如何建立國內翻譯制度〉，《聯合文學》1986 年，2 卷，總 20 期。
- [2] 在此引用自 James S. Holmes (1994): *Translated! Papers on literary Translation and Translation Studies*. Amsterdam/Atlanta: Rodopi, pp. 66-80.
- [3] Gideon Toury (1995). *Descriptive Translation Studies and Beyond*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins, pp. 7-19.
- [4] Mary Snell-Hornby & Mira Kadric, hg. (1995). *Grundfragen der Uebersetzungswissenschaft - Wiener Vorlesungen von Katharina Reiss* Wien-WUV-Universitaetsverlag, pp. 9-18.
- [5] 特別根據 Katharina Reiss: *Moeglichkeiten und Grenzen der Uebersetzungskritik* Muenchen - Max Hueber 1986 (3.Auflage).
- [6] 目的理論在中文界，已多有介紹。原文資料可見 Katharina Reiss/Hans J. Vermeer (1984). *Grundlegung einer allgemeinen Translationstheorie*. Tuebingen: Max Niemeyer. 中文介紹見陳德鴻、張南峰編（2000），《西方翻譯理論精選》，香港：香港城市大學，頁 67-83。
- [7] 陳德鴻、張南峰編（2000），《西方翻譯理論精選》，香港：香港城市大學，頁 115-123。

- [8] Lawrence Venuti (1995). *The Translator's Invisibility – A history of Translation*. London/New York: Routledge.
- [9] 原文取自《第一屆詹姆斯·S·霍姆斯翻譯研討會論文集》(*Translation Studies: The State of the Art*, 1991)；中譯引自陳德鴻、張南峰編(2000)，《西方翻譯理論精選》，香港：香港城市大學，頁147。
- [10] Nord, Christiane (1997). *Translation as a Purposeful Activity*. Manchester: St. Jerome. Chapter 1.
- [11] 在 *Moeglichkeiten und Grenzen der Uebersetzungskritik* 一書中，Reiss 將透過媒體的翻譯和另外三種一般的翻譯（傳訊，表現，訴求）並列。其實，透過媒體的翻譯應該另屬一類，因為在傳播模式上，媒體屬於傳播管道的層面。而文章分類，只是文本（Text）層面。
- [12] Karl Buehler (1965). *Sprachtheorie*. Gustav Fischer Verlag: Stuttgart.
- [13] Reiss 1986, p. 69.
- [14] 這個時代正是 Even-Zohar 所說的“文學複系統百廢待興，尚處於嫩稚、尚在形成期間…”見張錦忠（2000），〈翻譯、《現代文學》與台灣文學複系統〉，《中外文學》2000年，29卷，第5期，頁216-225。
- [15] 林魁賢語：“翻譯雖然以‘信達雅’為最高境界，但再精明優秀的翻譯者也會有敗筆，何況遇到挑剔時，絕對無法十全十美…”《聯合文學》1986年，2卷，總20期，頁137。
- [16] 參考黃宜範所提出的“奎英式”：“所謂奎英式（Quinean）是說翻譯家的整個信仰體系決定他（她）認為甚麼才是正確的翻譯。”《聯合文學》1986年，2卷，總20期，頁132。
- [17] 傅大偉（2001），〈打開翻譯潘朵拉盒子〉，《當代》2001年，第167期，頁44-57。
- [18] 傅大偉（1988），〈科學實證論述歷史的辯證——從近代西方到台灣的殷海光〉，《台灣社會研究季刊》1988冬，頁11-56。
- 傅大為（1994），〈少女身體的中文翻譯：檢析“文榮光的杜拉”〉，《中外文學》1994年，第262期，頁8-16。
- 傅大為（1996），〈玉米田裏的失誤——略談“性別與科學”的譯

介〉，《婦女與兩性研究通訊》1996年1月號。

- [19] 參考陳獻忠〈如何突破翻譯的習慣性思維〉，《翻譯學研究集刊》2000年，第5期，頁63-97。
- [20] 雨田（1973），〈評余光中的“譯論”與“譯文”〉，《書評書目》1973年，第3期，頁64-76。
- [21] “梁實秋翻譯獎”的翻譯批評，是非常有深度的“忠實”與“通順”的翻譯原則的模範。
- [22] 梁實秋（1986），〈漫談翻譯〉，《聯合文學》1986年，2卷，總20期，頁8-13。
- [23] 參考 Itamar Even-Zohar 的“文學多元系統”理論。見陳德鴻、張南峰編（2000），《西方翻譯理論精選》，香港：香港城市大學，頁115-123。
- [24] 李魁賢語。見《聯合文學》1986年，2卷，總20期，頁130-131。

參考文獻

- Buehler, Karl (1965). *Sprachtheorie*. Gustav Fischer Verlag: Stuttgart.
- Even-Zohar, Itamar: *Polysystem studies*. Tel Aviv: The Porter Institute for Poetics and semiotics(poetics Today 11: 1).
- Holmes, James S. (1994). *Translated! Papers on literary Translation and Translation Studies*. Amsterdam/Atlanta: Rodopi.
- Nord, Christiane (1997). *Translation as a Purposeful Activity*. Manchester: St. Jerome.
- Reiss, Katharina & Hans J. Vermeer (1984). *Grundlegung einer allgemeinen Translationsrheorie*. Tuebingen: Max Niemeyer.
- Reiss, Katharina (1986). *Moeglichkeiten und Grenzen der Uebersetzungskritik*. Muenchen: Max Hueber (3.Auflage).
- Reiss, Katharina (2000). *Translation Criticism and Limitation of Translation Criticism*. Manchester (U. K.): St. Jerome.
- Snell-Hornby, Mary & Mira Kadric, hg. *Grundfragen der Uebersetzungswissenschaft-Wiener Vorlesungen von Katharina Reiss* Wien: WUV-Universitaetsverlag.

- Toury, Gideon (1980). *In Search of a Theory of Translation*. Tel Aviv: The Porter Institute for Poetics and Semiotics.
- Toury, Gideon (1995). *Descriptive Translation Studies and Beyond*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Venuti, Lawrence (1995). *The Translator's Invisibility – A History of Translation*. London/New York: Routledge.
- 《第一屆詹姆斯·S·霍姆斯翻譯研討會論文集》(*Translation Studies: The State of the Art*, 1991)。
- 陳德鴻、張南峰(2000)，《西方翻譯理論精選》，香港：香港城市大學。
- 陳獻忠(2000)，〈如何突破翻譯的習慣性思維〉，《翻譯學研究集刊》。
- 梁實秋(1986)，〈漫談翻譯〉，《聯合文學》1986年，2卷，總20期。
- 傅大偉(2001)，〈打開翻譯潘朵拉盒子〉，《當代》2001年，第167期。
- 傅大偉(1988)，〈科學實證論述歷史的辯證——從近代西方到台灣的殷海光〉，《台灣社會研究季刊》。
- 傅大為(1994)，〈少女身體的中文翻譯：檢析“文榮光的杜拉”〉，《中外文學》1994年，29卷，第5期。
- 傅大為(1996)，〈玉米田裏的失誤——略談“性別與科學”的譯介〉，《婦女與兩性研究通訊》1996年1月號。
- 黃宜範(1986)，〈如何建立國內翻譯制度〉，《聯合文學》1986年，2卷，總20期。
- 李尚仁(1997)，〈傅柯的醫學考古學與醫學史：評《臨床醫學的誕生》中譯本〉，《台灣社會研究季刊》1997年，第28期。
- 林筱青(2001)，《喜福會》的翻譯策略：華裔美國文學翻譯實例，台灣：輔仁大學翻譯研究所。
- 劉人鵬(2000)，《近代中國女權論述——國族、翻譯與性別政治》，台北：學生書局。
- 雨田(1973)，〈評余光中的“譯論”與“譯文”〉，《書評書目》1973年，第3期，頁64-76。
- 張錦忠(2000)，〈翻譯、《現代文學》與台灣文學複系統〉，《中外文

學》2000年，29卷，第5期。

作者簡介

胡功澤，瑞士弗利堡大學日耳曼語文學系博士，現為輔仁大學德文系副教授，研究方向以翻譯學及語言學為主，著有《翻譯理論之演變與發展——建立溝通的翻譯觀》(台北，1994)；主要論文有〈萊思(Katharina Reiss)文章分類法翻譯理論之評介〉(見《人文學刊》第4期，香港：香港中文大學文學院，1998)及〈翻譯中世紀神秘大師艾克哈(Meister Eckhart)的經驗——以〈論人的高貴〉一文為例〉(見《中外文學》2001年10月號)。

BOOK REVIEW



A Panoramic View of Interpretation Studies

Rachel Lung

The Interpreting Studies Reader. Edited by Franz Pochhacker and Miriam Shlesinger. London and New York: Routledge, 2002. ISBN 0-415-22478-0 (hbk).

The field of Interpretation Studies (IS) encompasses an array of perspectives involving practitioners, interpretation teachers, interpretation academics and linguists. Interpretation itself has been in the spotlight since the Second World War; however papers written about interpretation did not start until the 1950s. For the past 45 years, we have witnessed the development and growth of interpretation theory, from words of insight based on practitioners' hands-on experience, and tips for quality interpreting based on personal observation, to recent works taking a cognitive, psychological, or sociolinguistic view of interpreting. For anyone new to this academic discipline, such diversity can sometimes seem bewildering. *The Interpreting Studies Reader* is thus a greatly welcome addition to the field.

The idea of a book on interpretation which compiles a series of seminal papers covering almost five decades is to chart and document the growth and potential of a new discipline. The book contains 26 important papers in IS from 1956 to 2002. These papers are categorized under seven headings, with a view to presenting to readers the development and direction of the academic discipline. The seven headings

A Panoramic View of Interpretation Studies

embody multiple approaches to interpreting, ranging from the search for theoretical models and the issues of interpretation effects and user expectations, to defining the roles of interpreters in interdisciplinary (with sociolinguistics or psycholinguistics) models.

The earliest (1956) and the most recently written (2002) papers take up, naturally, the first and last position of the Reader. The editors justifiably label the 1956 paper under the heading "Looking back", whereas the 2002 paper is "Looking ahead". The other 24 papers are arranged thematically, instead of chronologically, in the light of the development of IS. At the beginning of each of the seven parts, there is a critical introduction, which precedes the articles under a common theme. And before each paper, there is a short account of the life and work experience of the author.

The introduction is a succinct guide that explains how the papers in each category are related to one another. For example, in part 1, all of the five papers deal with mental processes of simultaneous interpreting. As groundbreakers of the discipline, these papers written from the 1950s to the 1970s handle the issue in a variety of different ways, from an approach of pure observation and insights (Paneth 1957), to the application of thoughts in psychology (divided attention, pauses, short term memory and processing capacity as in Gerver 1971), psycholinguistics (post-interpretation recall capacity as in Goldman-Eisler 1972), and the way in which the extent of linguistic contrasts (Oleron & Nanpon 1965) may affect interpretation performance. The editors skillfully appreciate the value of these contributions from a historical perspective, but at the same time point out the shortcomings of an older paper (methodological inadequacies in Barik 1975), which were later rectified by researchers in similar fields. By doing so, the introduction gives readers a macro view of the research and interdisciplinary development of the groundbreaking era. These papers are particularly

representative and well chosen since they pioneered the experimental research tradition of interpretation, whose methodology and variables are still being actively explored to the present day.

IS has been struggling for decades to work out theories that comfortably explain the interpretation mechanism. Indeed, as early as 1975, Seleskovitch had written about the close ties between interpretation training and theories. In her succinct paper "Language and Memory: A Study of Note-taking in Consecutive Interpreting", many of her reflective observations about the sense activation of notes, the work of memory with no reference to notes, and the need to focus on speech acts in interpretation, shed light on research to come in the next few decades. As an insightful piece of work, her ideas led to the quest for a cognitive theoretical model of information processing during interpreting in the 1990s (Gile 1997; Moser-Mercer 1997).

Drawing on Gerver's notion of processing capacity, Gile developed his Effort Models in the 1980s and 1990s to explain interpretation failure. He attributed interpretation inadequacies to the cognitive limitations of multi-tasks of comprehension, memorizing and delivering in interpretation events. As he puts it (p. 166), "...the effort models explain frequent errors and omissions associated not with such lack of knowledge but with cognitive load." And more specifically (p. 173), he observes that "processes occurring during interpreting involve, simultaneously, speech perception and production, content analysis, decision making, storage, retrieval, and comparison of sounds and other information in various components of memory." Being a prolific interpretation researcher, and an advocate for sound methodological design, his effort model succeeds in identifying the sophisticated stages of pre-interpretation. Each of these stages alone can potentially be a specific research issue in IS.

It is of course an ambitious project to attempt to highlight the

essential turns of thought in interpretation over 50 years in a single volume. The degree of coverage of various kinds of interpretation reflects the concerns of the field, at least academically. Simultaneous and consecutive interpretation have almost equal share in the volume, whereas Sign Language Interpreting and Liaison Interpreting are touched on only briefly. Papers on interpretation pedagogy have been deliberately omitted, which seems a justified move, since they bear less importance in charting research directions.

As to the arrangement of the Reader, I have one reservation. The part on "Examining Expectations and Norms", which includes three articles on interpretation norms and users' expectations, represents in my opinion an area of marginal importance in the core of IS. This research focus, of course, brings a new perspective to the discipline; for example, a list of items which concern the users of interpretation services is identified. It does not, however, have the capacity to broaden our scope in theoretical pursuits, or advance IS significantly in its development.

Despite such a concern, the book is of enormous value, primarily to interpretation researchers and academics. Its contribution is three-fold. First, the book includes five seminal articles that have been translated and published in English for the very first time. Second, it ties up various loose ends in IS, and systematically charts the growth of academic research over a span of several decades. The editors certainly put considerable effort into bringing historical perspectives to the seven categories used in the book. Third, the second half of the volume documents the influence of neighbouring disciplines, such as pragmatics, text-linguistics, discourse analysis, and sociolinguistics on broadening the scope of interpretation research. The editors have made a judicious choice in including these contributions to IS in the Reader.

It is a highly enriching experience reading this book. For researchers in the field in particular, this publication offers a panoramic overview of

the developments in IS to date. No other book on interpretation so far has provided such a significant all-round contribution to the discipline.

About the Author

Rachel Lung obtained her Ph.D in English Language and Linguistics at the University of Essex, in England in 1996. She then taught translation and interpretation (Chinese and English) at City University of Hong Kong until mid-1999. Since then, she has been working in the School of Professional and Continuing Education of the University of Hong Kong. Her research interests include interpretation and sociolinguistics.

書 話



本季刊每期均刊載書評 (Book Reviews) 或書話 (Book News)，名目按稿件性質而定，旨在流通訊息，鼓勵討論評鑑。歡迎來稿提供翻譯出版物的消息簡介，經本刊書評及書話編輯審訂，當整理發表。書話一欄也歡迎書刊的作者或出版機構來稿或寄來出版物，適合者當安排介紹或邀約有關的專家學者撰寫書評。

書評及書話編輯

本來都是夢裏遊 夢裏開心夢裏愁 ——跨越三個世紀的兩段文字因緣

《阿麗思漫游奇境記》。路易斯·加樂爾著、趙元任譯。北京：商務印書館，2002。

要數百年來影響最大的一百部外文中譯，趙元任的這個譯本，榜上不可無其名。初版八十年後，北京的商務印書館在去年“正值作者加樂爾誕辰 170 周年，譯者趙元任誕辰 110 周年”，重新排印出版，以茲紀念。這樣的一番心意加上不少功夫，於是廣大讀者可以只花十數元人民幣便擁有這個至今最像樣的版本。

去年年底在這個版本問世以前，趙譯可謂聲名響而書蹤渺，起碼有十多年是如此。北京商務在 1988 年曾把趙譯的《阿麗思漫

游奇境記》和《阿麗思漫游鏡中世界》以中英對照印行出版，附原版插圖及十數條注腳。此版字體及插圖都略為細小，尚幸還算清晰，書版不大不厚，極便一般讀者，可惜此本已絕版多時。更早一點的版本要數70年代台灣的兩個譯本，分別於1973年由大林書店和1974年由正文書局出版，後者為中英對照本，曾廣泛流傳，但校對不精，連趙氏的譯序也排得錯字連篇。至於1922年和1950年的商務版，現在都成了翻譯史的文獻了。

趙元任在1949年後和台灣的學術界較多聯絡，和中國內地則要到1973年重訪北京後才恢復正式接觸。1981年他重訪大陸時，更獲鄧小平接見。80年代開始趙譯由原來的出版社一再重印，而後出轉精，看來其來有自。這個最新版的版面、字體、插圖都較大，〈譯者序〉移作附錄，問題不大；沒有附上原文供對照，也不能算缺憾，反正英文原書不難找，要用心來讀的話，更不能缺少Martin Gardner的*The Annotated Alice* (London: Penguin, 2000)；此版的小瑕疵反而在那大量已公認為藝術品的原版插圖以外，“配以今人重繪的彩圖”，聽來已凶多吉少，更每幅都佔全版，也幸好如此，一翻便過。

趙譯的影響，胡適（1922）、趙家璧（1934）、陳原（1997）等人都談過，至於譯文的成就，後出數十年的譯本還未能完全超越，不少地方還要向趙氏致敬。至於加樂爾的原文，百多年來未嘗給冷待過。最近英國廣播公司邀請聽眾選出一百部最愛讀的書，由十多萬票選出來的名單中當然少不得*Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*。

* * * * *

《走到鏡子裏》。路易斯·加樂爾著、趙元任譯。北京：商務印書館，2002。

英國廣播公司邀請聽眾投票選出的百部好書中，加樂爾的*Through the Looking-Glass and What Alice Found There*榜上無名，事屬意料之內。阿麗思在鏡中漫遊，經歷比前集在兔子洞的諸般怪事少了點妙趣，多了的是深沉的情味和深刻的道理，只能叫人偶或莞爾，不懂西洋象棋的話，書緣還要再淺一些。對趙元任和他的讀者來說，這是一大不幸。

趙元任在1921年譯畢《奇境記》後，旋即動手翻譯這個後篇，可惜在1931年出版前夕，排好版的清樣毀於上海商務印書館所受的日軍炮火，到了60年代末，才由趙元任自行安排在美國出版。1988年北京商務版題為《阿麗思漫游鏡中世界》，書名應該是得到趙氏認可的。現在這個最新的重排本恢復趙氏原來的譯名《走到鏡子裏》。

這個譯本比《奇境記》多了數十年琢磨之功，譯筆的遣詞造句都比較穩妥自然，《奇境記》時見把原文（當然還有阿麗思這個小女孩）弄得怪上加怪，《走到鏡子裏》卻爽暢明快，時夾方言，姿采橫生。趙氏自然知道這個譯本水準高得多，他說此本“把雙關語譯成雙關語，韻腳譯成韻腳，在《阿麗思漫游奇境記》裏我沒能做得這麼好”。

《走到鏡子裏》譯筆之圓渾秀美，具見於卷末結語詩的最後六行（“本來都是夢裏游……”），情真辭淺而意深，任何人讀了都不會打算動手另外再譯。

稿約凡例

《翻譯季刊》為香港翻譯學會之學報，歡迎中、英文來稿及翻譯作品（請附原文及作者簡介）。有關翻譯作品及版權問題，請譯者自行處理。

一、稿件格式

1. 請郵寄電腦檔案及列印本。
2. 來稿請附 200-300 字英文論文摘要一則，並請注明：
(1) 作者姓名；(2) 任職機構；(3) 通訊地址／電話／傳真／電子郵件地址。
3. 來稿均交學者審評，作者應盡量避免在正文、注釋、頁眉等處提及個人身份，鳴謝等資料亦宜於刊登時方附上。
4. 來稿每篇以不超過一萬二千字為宜。

二、標點符號

1. 書名及篇名分別用雙尖號（《》）和單尖號（〈〉），雙尖號或單尖號內之書名或篇名同。
2. “ ” 號用作一般引號；‘ ’ 號用作引號內之引號。

三、子目

各段落之大小標題，請依各級子目標明，次序如下：

一、／A.／1.／a.／(1)／(a)

四、專有名詞及引文

1. 正文中第一次出現之外文姓名或專有名詞譯名，請附原文全名。
2. 引用原文，連標點計，超出兩行者，請另行抄錄，每行入兩格；凡引原文一段以上者，除每行入兩格外，如第

一段原引文為整段引錄，首行需入四格。

五、注釋

1. 請用尾注。凡屬出版資料者，請移放文末參考資料部份。號碼一律用阿拉伯數目字，並用（）號括上；正文中之注釋號置於標點符號之後。
2. 參考資料
文末所附之參考資料應包括：(1) 作者／編者／譯者；(2) 書名、文章題目；(3) 出版地；(4) 出版社；(5) 卷期／出版年月；(6) 頁碼等資料，務求詳盡。正文中用括號直接列出作者、年份及頁碼，不另作注。

六、版權

來稿刊登後，版權歸出版者所有，任何轉載，均須出版者同意。

七、書評

中文書評格式與中文稿例同。

八、贈閱本

論文刊登後，作者可獲贈閱本三冊。書評作者可獲贈閱本兩冊。凡合著者，以均分為原則。

九、評審

來稿經本學報編輯委員會審閱後，再以匿名方式送交專家評審，方決定是否採用。

十、來稿請寄：香港薄扶林道香港大學亞洲研究中心轉《翻譯季刊》主編劉靖之教授。

Guidelines for Contributors

1. The *Translation Quarterly* is a journal published by the Hong Kong Translation Society. Contributions, in either Chinese or English, should be original, hitherto unpublished, and not being considered for publication elsewhere. Once a submission is accepted, its copyright is transferred to the publisher. Translated articles should be submitted with a copy of the source-text and a brief introduction of the source-text author. It is the translator's responsibility to obtain written permission to translate.
2. Abstracts in English of 200-300 words are required. Please attach to the manuscript with your name, address, telephone and fax numbers and email address where applicable.
3. In addition to original articles and book reviews, review articles related to the evaluation or interpretation of a major substantive or methodological issue may also be submitted.
4. Endnotes should be kept to a minimum and typed single-spaced. Page references should be given in parentheses, with the page number(s) following the author's name and the year of publication. Manuscript styles should be consistent; authors are advised to consult the *MLA Handbook* for proper formats.
5. Chinese names and book titles in the text should be romanised according to the "modified" Wade-Giles or the pinyin system, and then, where they first appear, followed immediately by the Chinese characters and translations. Translations of Chinese terms obvious to the readers (like *wenxue*), however, are not necessary.

6. There should be a separate reference section containing all the works referred to in the body of the article. Pertinent information should be given on the variety of editions available, as well as the date and place of publication, to facilitate use by the readers.
7. All contributions will be first reviewed by the Editorial Board members and then anonymously by referees for its suitability for publication in the *Translation Quarterly*. Care should be taken by authors to avoid identifying themselves on the first page, in the top or bottom margins, or in endnotes. A separate cover page with the title of the article, the name of the author and his/her institutional affiliation should be provided.
8. Book reviews are to follow the same format as that for submitted articles; they should be typed and doubled-spaced, giving at the outset the full citation for the work reviewed, plus information about special features (like appendices and illustrations) and prices. Unsolicited book reviews are as a rule not accepted.
9. Contributions should be submitted in both soft and hard copies, to Professor Liu Ching-chih, c/o Centre of Asian Studies, University of Hong Kong, Pokfulam Road, Hong Kong.
10. Contributors of articles will receive three complimentary copies of the journal, but these will be shared in the case of joint authorship. Book reviewers will receive two complimentary copies.

《翻譯季刊》徵求訂戶啟事

香港翻譯學會出版的《翻譯季刊》是探討翻譯理論與實踐的大型國際性學術刊物，學會會長劉靖之教授出任主編，學術顧問委員會由多名國際著名翻譯理論家組成。資深學者，如瑞典諾貝爾獎評委馬悅然教授、美國學者奈達博士及英國翻譯家霍克思教授都曾為本刊撰稿。《翻譯季刊》發表中、英文稿件，論文摘要（英文）收入由英國曼徹斯特大學編輯的半年刊《翻譯學摘要》。欲訂購的單位或個人，請與

香港翻譯學會義務司庫

黃紹顏女士聯絡

地址：中華商務聯合印刷（香港）有限公司

香港大埔汀麗路36號中華商務印刷大廈14字樓

電話：+852 2666 4888

傳真：+852 2666 4889

電郵：treasurer@hkts.org.hk

網址：http://hkts.org.hk

Subscribing to *Translation Quarterly*

Translation Quarterly is published by the Hong Kong Translation Society, and is a major international scholarly publication. Its Chief Editor is the Society's President, Professor Liu Ching-chih, and its Academic Advisory Board is composed of numerous internationally renowned specialists in the translation studies field. The journal has previously included contributions from such distinguished scholars as the Swedish Nobel Prize committee judge Professor Göran Malmqvist, the American translation theorist Dr. Eugene Nida, and the English translator Professor David Hawkes. *Translation Quarterly* publishes contributions in both Chinese and English, and English abstracts of its articles are included in *Translation Studies Abstracts*, edited by UMIST, UK. Institutions or individuals who wish to subscribe to the journal please contact:

Ms Candy Wong

Honorary Treasurer, The Hong Kong Translation Society

Address: C & C Joint Printing Co. (H. K.) Ltd.
14/F, C & C Building, 36 Ting Lai Road

Tai Po, Hong Kong

Tel: +852 2666 4888

Fax: +852 2666 4889

Email: treasurer@hkts.org.hk

Website: http://hkts.org.hk

Translation Quarterly 《翻譯季刊》
Subscription Order Form 訂閱表格

填妥下列表格，並連同劃線支票或電匯單影印本郵寄：

香港新界大埔汀麗路 36 號中華商務印刷大廈 14 字樓
 香港翻譯學會義務司庫黃紹顏女士收

Please complete the following order form and send your cheque payment or a copy of remittance advice to

Ms. Candy Wong, Hon. Treasurer
 The Hong Kong Translation Society Ltd
 14/F C & C Building
 36 Ting Lai Road
 Tai Po, NT
 Hong Kong

You may also fax at +852 26664889 attn: Ms Candy WONG (黃紹顏)

閱年期及費用	本地(local)	中國大陸	澳門、台灣	海外(overseas)
一年(1 year)	HK\$240	RMB300	HK\$280	US\$45
二年(2 years)	HK\$450	RMB530	HK\$500	US\$80
三年(3 years)	HK\$650	RMB775	HK\$730	US\$110

USD1=HK\$7.80 GBP1=HK\$12.2 AUD1=HK\$4.0 EUR1=HK\$8.0

Starting from issue # _____ 期起訂閱

Payment method:

by cheque/bank draft: number _____ (Bank _____)

payable to **The Hong Kong Translation Society Limited**

by T/T to Hang Seng Bank Ltd., 4 Hankow Road, Tsimshatsui, Kowloon, Hong Kong

Account holder - Hong Kong Translation Society Ltd.

Account number- 024-295-003941-001

Office use				
------------	--	--	--	--

Signature _____ Date _____

名(Name)	
舊(Affiliation)	
止(Address)	

各人(Contact person)	
話(Tel.)	
真(Fax.)	

Translation Quarterly 《翻譯季刊》
Promotional Sale of Publications - Order Form

By fax to: Ms Candy Wong
 @+(852) 2666 4889

or by mail to: Ms Candy Wong
 c/o C & C Joint Printing
 14/F, 36 Ting Lai Road
 Tai Po, New Territories
 Hong Kong

* Price is subject to change without prior notice.

Title	No. of pages	Listed price	Promotional * price @	Local S & H	Qty	Total Amount
傳雷與他的世界(平裝)	338	HK\$75	HK\$40	HK\$8		
傳雷與他的世界(精裝)	338	HK\$115	HK\$60	HK\$12		
Translation Quarterly #1 1995	84	HK\$40	HK\$30	HK\$3		
Translation Quarterly #2 1995	94	HK\$40	HK\$30	HK\$3		
Translation Quarterly #3 & 4 1997	210	HK\$100	HK\$60	HK\$8		
Translation Quarterly #5 & 6 1997	240	HK\$120	HK\$72	HK\$8		
Proceedings of Conference on Translation Teaching held on 2-4 December 1997	570	HK\$120	HK\$120	-		
Translation Quarterly #7 & 8 1998	203	HK\$100	HK\$60	HK\$8		
Translation Quarterly #9 & 10 1998	192	HK\$100	HK\$60	HK\$4		
Translation Quarterly #11&12 1999	248	HK\$120	HK\$100	HK\$8		
Translation Quarterly #13&14 1999	264	HK\$120	HK\$100	HK\$8		
Translation Quarterly #15 2000	94	HK\$60	HK\$40	HK\$3		
Translation Quarterly #16&17 2000	160	HK\$120	HK\$100	HK\$8		
Translation Quarterly #18&19 2000/2001	234	HK\$120	HK\$100	HK\$8		
Translation Quarterly #20 2001	134	HK\$60	HK\$60	-		
Translation Quarterly #21&22 2001	148	HK\$120	HK\$120	-		
Overseas shipping & handling, if applicable (see below for rates)						
Total						HK\$

USD1=HK\$7.80 GBP1=HK\$12.2 AUD1=HK\$4.0 EUR1=HK\$8.0 HKD1=RMB1.065

For overseas purchases, please indicate your choice of delivery methods:-

Overseas S & H	Macau, Taiwan, China Mainland	Other Asia-Pacific countries	U.S.A., U.K., E.C.U. etc.
Surface mail	HK\$15/copy	HK\$20/copy	HK\$25/copy
Second class airmail	HK\$40/copy	HK\$40/copy	HK\$50/copy

Signature _____ Membership no. _____
 Name (in block letters) _____ Date: _____
 Contact person: _____ Telephone: _____
 Payment by cheque: cheque number _____ (Bank _____)

Office use			
------------	--	--	--

Mailing labels - please print or write your mailing address in block letters:

Name _____	Name _____
Address _____	Address _____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____