A Corpus-based Study of the English Translation of Chinese Empty Words

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Declaration

I certify that this thesis is an original work written by myself with all quotes being appropriately referenced.

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Acknowledgement

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Abstract

This study aims to investigate the translation procedures adopted for the English translation of Chinese empty words. To begin with, the methods which translators adopt to tackle empty words are identified by examining examples in a specially-constructed parallel corpus, which includes Chinese literary texts and their English translations. Eventually, eight translation procedures (1) Match; 2) Paraphrase; 3) Shared Match; 4) Implicitation; 5) Amplification; 6) Grammatical Conveyance; 7) Borrowing; 8) Omission) and one non-procedure (Mismatch) are identified. It is noted that Grammatical Conveyance is a procedure which could be deemed as a newly-identified method. As a further step, the proportion of these procedures/non-procedure is investigated to identify the most-/least-adopted ones (Match and Amplification respectively) and to discuss category-specific ones (Shared Match and Borrowing). In addition to identifying the procedures for translating Chinese empty words into English, this research also makes contributions in the following two aspects. Firstly, this study, to my knowledge, is the first research which examines all Chinese empty words at a time to identify the ways translators tackle them. Secondly, it is known from the results that difficult-to-tackle empty words are found in the categories of Adverb and Particle. In other words, not all empty words are difficult to translate as former scholars have described.
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Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 General Introduction

My interest in identifying the translation procedures adopted for the English translation of Chinese empty words was triggered when reading former scholars’ articles and books, in which they discuss translation procedures or translation strategies on the basis of materials in European language pairs or Chinese-English translation. I always wondered if I could contribute to the research of translation between Chinese and another language, and since the other language I have mastered is English, I decided to examine Chinese-English translation. Meanwhile, since Chinese is very different from European languages in terms of grammar, culture, writing system, and wording, I assumed that it may be possible to discern new translation procedures, and this was the other factor that motivated me to conduct this study.

Taking this topic as the title of my doctoral study is the realisation of my aspiration, and in order to make it specific, I intend to focus on the English translation of Chinese empty words. My idea to adopt Chinese empty words as the research objects was inspired by David Pollard’s article, “Empty Words: Modal Adverbs” (2001: 216-222). In this paper, Pollard discusses the way to translate modal adverbs, which belong to the class of empty words, as well as pointing out the difficulty in tackling them. This prompted me to wonder how translators deal with these kinds of ambiguous words, and I expect the results of my research to provide the answer. It is worth adding that, to my knowledge, no former scholar has ever examined the English translation of all Chinese empty words at a time. Since my research will be the first of this kind, it is expected to make a valuable contribution to translation studies.
Throughout the research, I endeavour to obtain fruitful findings from an investigation into English translations collected from the renowned Hong Kong journal, *Renditions*, and their Chinese source texts. I construct a corpus to deal with this great quantity of texts and the analysis is based on examples extracted from this database. I identify translation procedures from these examples and further investigate my findings from certain aspects: Have any new procedures been identified? How is the frequency of use of translation procedures distributed in the seven empty word classes? What phenomena worth discussing can be identified from the research results? It is anticipated that these questions will have been answered by the end of this research.

Last but not least, it is important to state in the beginning that, since I categorise the examples on the basis of my understanding of the translation and its context, it cannot be denied that readers may have dissimilar opinions of the classification of some of them. For example, one may consider a certain example to belong to the category of Paraphrase in the context, whereas another may find it more appropriate to classify it in the category of Match. This happens because humans may have dissimilar ideas about things, especially when those things are based on personal understanding. Take the categorisation of Chinese empty words for example (see 2.3.2). Scholars agree with the greater part of the categorisation but have dissimilar ideas about a small part of it. Because they all support their arguments with reasons, it is hard to say that one of them is absolutely right and the others are wrong. What can be said is that we prefer one of them and respect the others, and the same applies to the categorisation of the examples in my research. I consider it appropriate to respect everyone’s opinions.
1.2 Structure of this Thesis

This thesis is divided into six chapters, the first of which is the Introduction, in which the research background and the thesis structure are provided.

In Chapter 2, relevant existing literature is reviewed in detail. From defining translation studies, translation strategies and translation procedures to discussing twelve theorists’ studies on translation procedures, from stating the use of corpora to explaining what Chinese empty words are and the difficulty in translating them, as much information as possible is offered for readers to acquire sufficient knowledge in the relevant areas to understand the reasons for conducting this study and to easily grasp my research process and results.

Chapter 3 explains the methodology adopted to conduct this research. In this chapter, my research methodology is provided with the above-mentioned twelve scholars’ methods being consulted. Because a corpus is especially constructed for my study, the construction process, from choosing suitable materials to aligning those texts in the corpus, is also elaborated. Meanwhile, the questions I expect the results of this research to answer are also stated in this chapter.

Having established the corpus, examples extracted from this database are examined and classified into different kinds of translation procedures. In the end, eight translation procedures and one non-procedure are identified. In Chapter 4, these nine treatments are discussed in detail and elucidatory examples are presented and discussed.

Chapter 5 discusses the comparisons between former theorists’ translation procedures/non-procedure and those identified in this research. Besides, the frequency of use of the translation procedures is also investigated. This chapter touches upon the most-adopted procedure and the least-adopted one and explains how the nature of different empty words affects the use of procedures.
Having discussed the translation procedures/non-procedure identified in the English translation of Chinese empty words, a conclusion is provided in Chapter 6. This research is summarised in this chapter, the research questions are answered and the contribution made by this research is stated. The research limitations are also discussed and some recommendations are made for future research in this field.

On the whole, this thesis begins with providing readers with necessary background knowledge, and this is followed by explaining the process of constructing the research corpus and the way the examples are analysed and categorised into different translation procedures categories. Then, the translation procedures/non-procedure are identified and expounded with examples, followed by a comparison of my treatments with those of former theorists and a thorough examination of their frequency of use. Finally, the results of this research are restated, together with its contribution to translation studies.
Chapter 2 Literature Review

2.1 Translation Studies, Translation Strategies and Translation Procedures

Since my research relates to the English translation of Chinese empty words and the procedures adopted to translate them, it is essential to firstly define translation procedures. In order to provide the appropriate background information, I will begin with a general description of translation studies, followed by an in-depth definition of the procedures used.

2.1.1 Explaining Translation Studies

Translation has been practised for thousands of years by people all over the world, and Hatim & Munday have delimited the scope of translation in order to clarify it:

1. The process of transferring a written text from SL to TL, conducted by a translator, or translators, in a specific socio-cultural context.
2. The written product, or TT, which results from that process and which functions in the socio-cultural context of the TL.
3. The cognitive, linguistic, visual, cultural and ideological phenomena which are an integral part of 1 and 2.

(2004: 6)

Besides, Bassnett (2002: 11) and Wilss (1996: 45) regard translation as the activity of converting a text from one language into another, in which similarities in the meaning, style, function and structure of the ST and the TT have to be created. Although some theorists do not hold this view, others believe that the term *translating* indicates the process of such a conversion, while *translation* refers to the product, “which is deemed to offer the user a reliable image of its parent text” (Hermans 2008: 10).

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Because translation is an important means of communication between people who speak different languages, many scholars, practising translators and religious figures have presented a variety of arguments and remarks all in an attempt to produce the best possible translations based on their experience and observation. From Cicero, St Jerome, Dryden, Dolet, Tytler to Schleiermacher, numerous arguments and ideas have been proposed in the western world to find the best translation strategy. Those theorists support either word-for-word translation or sense-for-sense translation. According to Mary Snell-Hornby (1988: 36) and George Steiner (1998: 275), the focus of the translation theory in the past two thousand years has been the age-old dichotomy of faithful versus free translation, and although translation theory had been discussed for such a long time, it was not been treated as being a serious academic subject until about sixty years ago (Munday 2008: 5). As Bassnett depicts:

“Since 1965, great progress has been made in Translation Studies. The work of scholars in the Netherlands, Israel, Czechoslovakia, the Soviet Union, the German Democratic Republic and the United States seems to indicate the emergence of clearly defined schools of Translation Studies, which place their emphasis on different aspects of the whole vast field. Moreover, translation specialists have benefited a great deal from work in marginally related areas. The work of Italian and Soviet semioticians, developments in grammatology and narratology, advances in the study of bilingualism and multilingualism and child language-learning can all be utilized within Translation Studies.”

(2002: 16)

Bassnett’s description illustrates that, in the beginning stage, translation studies works with related disciplines, from which analyses of literature, linguistics, semiotics and translation per se are conducted. Even now, interdisciplinary efforts are still being made in this field of study, and researchers are seeking the possibility of incorporating it in new domains, such as computer science (corpus-based studies and machine-
translation-related studies), psychology (studies of translators’ behaviour) and education (studies of translator training).

Bassnett adopts the term, “Translation Studies”, to denote translation- and translating-related research. This term was first proposed in 1972 by the US scholar, James Holmes, in his seminal article, “The Name and Nature of Translation Studies”, and this designation has been widely used in the English-speaking world and beyond (Munday 2010: 421). Holmes divides the discipline into several different categories and delimited their territory, and later, his definitions were widely regarded as providing “a solid framework for organising academic activities within this domain” (Baker 2001: 277). In his publication, Descriptive Translation Studies and Beyond, Toury further converts Holmes’ ideas into a graph to give readers a clear perspective of them (1995: 10):

![Figure 2-1 Toury’s Map of Translation Studies Based on Holmes’ Categorisation](image)

In this figure, translation studies is divided into pure translation studies and applied translation studies. Pure translation studies covers two fields: descriptive translation
studies and theoretical translation studies. The former aims to “describe the phenomena of translating and translation(s) as they manifest themselves in the world of our experience”, while the goal of the latter is to “establish general principles by means of which these phenomena can be explained and predicted” (Holmes 1972). Theoretical translation studies has two branches, namely, general and partial translation studies. As Munday puts it:

By “general”, Holmes is referring to those writings that seek to describe or account for every type of translation and to make generalizations that will be relevant for translation as a whole. “Partial” theoretical studies are restricted according to the parameters discussed below [i.e. product-oriented, process-oriented and function-oriented].

(2008: 10)

As can be seen from Figure 2-1, the field of partial translation studies encompasses several branches. This means that, when conducting studies in this field, researchers undertake their investigations on various bases. For instance, some analyse the translation methods adopted in literary novels (text-type restricted) and some explore the theories for computer-assisted translation (medium-restricted), etc. The same situation is seen in terms of descriptive translation studies. Researchers can design different methodologies for different sub-fields, e.g. identifying certain existing patterns in the English translation of Chinese texts (product-oriented) and investigating translators’ decision-making processes (process-oriented). Applied translation studies covers different themes. As implied by the word “applied”, applied translation studies examines translation from a practical perspective; it includes studies which investigate the way to train student translators or design suitable
translation curricula (the field of translator training), studies which consider translation tools, such as dictionaries and software for machine translation (the field of translation aids), studies which discuss the relationship between socio-cultural contexts and translators’ translation styles, their roles and suitable strategies (the field of translation policy) and studies which analyse translated texts (the field of translation criticism). According to Rabadán, applied translation studies is a field of study that “would presumably provide the tools (conceptual and otherwise) needed to establish assessment criteria or decide on pedagogical implementation” (2008: 103).

As can be perceived from the above definitions, pure translation studies seeks to identify patterns in the process or product of translation, while applied translation studies is “concerned with translation activities that address a particular goal and a specific (group of) final user(s) and that imply doing something with, for or about translation according to some standard of quality” (Rabadán 2010: 7).

According to the definitions of Holme’s categorisation, I would say that my research belongs to the field of product-oriented descriptive translation studies because I analyse existing translations and their originals and attempt to identify the ways Chinese empty words are translated.

Having elaborated on Holme’s categorisation of translation studies, I would like to provide another definition proposed by Toury, one of the most renowned theorists. In his publication *Descriptive Translation Studies and Beyond*, Toury explains that translation studies deals with three types of issues:

1) all that translation CAN, in principle, involve;
2) what it DOES involve, under various sets of circumstances, along with the REASONS for that involvement, and
3) what it is likely to involve, under one or another array of specified conditions.

(1995: 15)
By presenting these three points, Toury defines translation studies in a general way, and this version can serve as a substitute for those who find Holmes’s intricate map somewhat difficult to digest.

After defining translation studies, I would like to add that some theorists prefer to call this field of study “translation theory”, which is deemed by Holmes to be a branch of translation studies. Among them, there are Popović (1976) and Newmark (1981) (Shuttleworth & Cowie 1997: 184-187). For example, Newmark expresses the following opinion in the article, “The Linguistic and Communicative Stages in Translation Theory”:

“Translation theory in a wider sense is usually known as “translation studies”, or as “translatology”, the comprehensive study of translation…Whilst translation studies has a more extensive compass, and is concerned with diluted aspects of the subject, I see “translation theory”, or “translatology”, when the term is not used in a pretentious context, as a stricter discipline.”

(2009: 20)

As Newmark sees it, translation studies is a general term which covers not only investigations purely into translation, but also those with interdisciplinary efforts. Therefore, he favours the designation, “translation theory” or “translatology”, which solely refers to research into the process and product of translation.

However, Holmes believes that translation studies is a more appropriate term for the study of translation because theory formation is not the only factor which is worth investigating in the domain of translation (Holmes 2004: 182). As can be seen from these two theorists’ viewpoints, the use of the term translation studies or translation theory mainly depends on the fields covered. Translation theory is a better choice for those who lean toward a more specific definition, while translation studies is more appropriate to those who prefer a broader meaning.
Nowadays, translation studies has become a more widely-accepted term, while translation theory is taken to be an extension of scholars’ analyses of phenomena which occur in translating and translation, with one of its core tasks being to investigate the age-old issue of equivalence. Besides the debate over literal vs. free, many scholars begin to combine translation studies and another discipline to bring new thoughts and novel research methods to the study of translation. To name a few well-known examples, Catford (1965) starts linguistic discussion about the shifts that take place when the text of one language is converted into another. The shifts mentioned here refer to the changes and alterations which translators have to make for the sake of the difference in grammatical structures or wording between the source and the target language. Even-Zohar (1978) proposes the theory of polysystem and argues that every society has its own polysystem, which consists of many sub-systems, such as literature, politics, religions, economy, etc. Sub-systems within a polysystem mutually affect each other, and “their relations are not haphazard but largely determined by their position in the whole to which they belong” (Chang 2010: 258). Sub-systems possess different statuses; some are closer to a central position, and others are more peripheral. Meanwhile, the same sub-system may occupy dissimilar positions in different societies. In addition, polysystems (i.e. different societies) as a whole also relate to one another and have different statuses. Based on this concept, Even-Zohar investigates how the status of the target polysystem and that of translation as a sub-system influence translators’ translation strategies. Sager (1993) compares the difference between human translation and machine translation. Diaz-Cintas (2008) discusses subtitler training as the audiovisual translation industry is expanding day by day.
2.1.2 Explaining Translation Strategies and Procedures

As the word itself implies, a strategy is a plan of action designed to achieve a specific goal, having taken the current situation into account. Strategies are developed on the basis of the contexts, and thus, they influence the results (Pan 2011: 117). According to Lörscher (1991: 71; 2005: 599), translators turn to strategies when they encounter problems in translating, and Wilss maintains that translation is a problem-solving activity (1996: 47), which indicates that translators will face numerous problems when tackling texts. Combining the two scholars’ remarks could infer that strategies are frequently adopted in the activity of translation, and thus, they play an important role in translation.

Besides, Baker provides more information about strategies in her definition:

Strategies of translation involve the basic tasks of choosing the foreign text to be translated and developing a method to translate it. Both of these tasks are determined by various factors: cultural, economic, political.

(2001: 240)

It can be seen from Baker’s description that strategies are designed to deal with texts and are affected by external factors, including culture, economy and politics. Based on this, it could be reasoned that strategies are ever-evolving since types of texts and external factors are changing all the time. For instance, audiovisual translation is a kind of translation which has not been seen until relatively recently, and new strategies have been created in order to deal with texts in this domain. This is why Chesterman says that translation strategies are “not fixed for all time, however, but open-ended and amenable to adaptation, variation and mutation” (1993: 87).

Based on former theorists’ opinions, Lörscher concludes that “strategies operate on a large scale in order to achieve superordinate, fundamental goals” (1991: 69).
Since strategies are general policies, they must cover several aspects, as well as “sub-strategies”, and these sub-strategies are translation procedures (or techniques or methods, different theorists may adopt different terms). In terms of the process of choosing sub-strategies, Xu & Mu conduct a detailed dissection and list the following three essential steps:

1) To make clear a translation purpose (The translation is done for what and for whom?);
2) To decide a source text (Which text is to be translated? And why this text?), and
3) To choose a strategy [and, further, a procedure] (How to translate the text? Why translate in this way?).

(2009: 12)

The first two of these three steps are easy to understand, although arguably they would occur in the opposite order. As for the third step, it requires a brief explanation. At this stage, translators choose suitable strategies for the texts they are tackling. However, as explained by Lörscher, such strategies are normally used on a larger scale (e.g. translating sections or whole texts), and suitable procedures need to be selected when dealing with smaller-scale items (such as sentences and words). Since strategies concern larger-scale units and procedures concern smaller-scale ones, it is reasonable to suppose that a strategy is always determined before choosing a procedure. Therefore, the third step is said to be a step to choose a strategy and, further, a procedure.

Despite the fact that translation strategies are influenced by the three factors proposed by Baker and encompass three main steps, these strategies basically fall within a dichotomy: word-based vs. sense-based, literal vs. free, form vs. content, foreignisation vs. domestication (Venuti 2008: 16), documentary vs. instrumental
(Nord 1991: 72-73), overt vs. covert (House 1997: 66-69) and author-centred vs. reader-centred (Hatim 2001: 135-137). There are several different types of translation procedures in the two categories, which, as described by Xu & Mu, are ways for translators to choose to resolve problems they encounter when translating.

Before discussing translation strategies and procedures more deeply, I would like to spend some paragraphs on translators’ decision-making process. The process of clarifying a purpose, deciding a source text, choosing a strategy and choosing a procedure is a series of decisions to be made; they are “consecutive situations…imposing on the translator the necessity of choosing among a certain (and very often exactly definable) number of alternatives” (Levý 1967/2001: 148). Then, according to what do translators make decisions? Why do they choose procedure A instead of procedure B? In order to investigate translators’ decision-making processes, Levý sets the choice of the lexical unit “young man” as an example:

![Figure 2-2 The Ways to Convey the Idea of “Young Man”](image)

In the figure above, Levý describes the choices which are available in English to convey the idea of “young man”. Among so many terms, it is the translator’s responsibility to choose the most suitable one by taking into account the text types and forms. From this, we could further infer that the use of procedures is also influenced by these two factors. For example, when translating manuals, meaning-based procedures are more appropriate than word-based ones because manuals are written to instruct users; thus, it is essential that the information is conveyed.
Meanwhile, translators’ experience may also influence their decision because translators will rely on past experience to determine whether or not a translation (or pattern/theory) is applicable (Robinson 2003: 108). To support this, Bell’s model of translation process (1991: 21) can be adopted.

![Figure 2-3 Bell’s Model of Translation Process](image)

It can be seen from this model that translators analyse and synthesise materials on the basis of memory. Here, memory refers to knowledge gained from past experience. Therefore, when memory (i.e. experience) changes, the way translators analyse and synthesise changes accordingly.

2.1.3 Introducing Translation Strategies and Procedures

As mentioned in the previous section, strategies concern larger-scale items (e.g. sections or whole texts) and procedures deal with smaller-scale ones (e.g. sentences and words). In order to compile a list of all possible translation strategies/procedures, former theorists have spent much effort analysing. Although the focus of my research is to identify the translation procedures adopted to translate Chinese empty words, I also aspire to introduce the strategies and procedures proposed by former scholars.
because they are connected to each other. In addition, although “procedure” is the term adopted in this research, it should be noted that some theorists use other terms, such as technique, method and strategy (although this was defined in Section 2.1.2 as being related to tackling larger-scale units). In order to respect these theorists’ word choices, when quoting or summarising from them, I will not replace them with “procedure(s)”. Nevertheless, the word “procedure” will be used throughout the remainder of my thesis to discuss my own analysis since it is my preferred term.

What also needs to be mentioned in advance is that I do not intend to explain all the strategies/procedures proposed by theorists. Those that are self-explanatory and those that have been discussed and occur again in later sections will not be elucidated.

2.1.3.1 Vinay & Darbelnet’s Seven Translation Procedures

When it comes to translation procedures, one of the best-known lists of translation procedures is presented by Vinay & Darbelnet in their seminal paper, “A Methodology for Translation” (translated by Sager & Hamel 2008: 128-137). Based on Malblanc’s concept (1944), Vinay & Darbelnet introduce seven procedures which are divided into the two categories shown in Table 2-1.

It can be seen from the table that the translation procedures are listed according to their degree of directness and obliqueness with borrowing being the most direct and adaptation the most oblique. Having taken into account different contexts, translators choose different procedures to produce the most appropriate translation. Nevertheless, it is not uncommon that source information cannot be rendered into target texts intact; under such circumstances, translators just choose certain procedures to produce the most suitable translation they can (Pym 2010: 14).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Procedure</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Direct Translation</td>
<td>Borrowing</td>
<td>Direct use of the source term in the translation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Calque</td>
<td>Translating without changing the lexis or structure.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Literal Translation</td>
<td>Direct transfer of an SL text into a grammatically and idiomatically appropriate TL text.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oblique Translation</td>
<td>Transposition</td>
<td>Change in word class with the meaning of the message unchanged.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Modulation</td>
<td>Variation of the form of the message.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Equivalence</td>
<td>Use of a completely different stylistic and structural target word/phrase/sentence to convey the same idea.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Adaptation</td>
<td>Creation of a new situation that can be considered as being equivalent in the target society.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2-1 Translation Procedures Compiled by Vinay & Darbelnet

Seeing this many procedures, one may wonder how they are applied in the activity of translating. In fact, since every sentence in a text is composed differently, unless the translator deliberately sticks to a certain method, he/she has to adopt different procedures to produce a proper translation. For example, when the term “the President of Taiwan” is translated into Chinese by Chinese translators, it becomes 台湾地区领导人 (Taiwan di qu ling dao ren: Taiwan area leader). They do not use the Chinese correspondent, 台湾总统 (taiwan zong tong: Taiwan president), because China sees Taiwan as part of its territory. Since it is just an area of China, it is impossible to have a president who is the leader of a sovereign country. Therefore, we see the use of adaptation in this case. Additionally, if this example is examined with Baker’s definition of translation strategies, it can be seen that such a deviation is determined by the political factor. This is a way to ensure that the translation is “acceptable” (Toury 1995: 56-57) to the target society.

1 Throughout this thesis, the Chinese characters and words mentioned will be provided with romanised spelling and their lexical meaning. The romanisation system adopted in this thesis is Hanyu Pinyin.
As a further investigation into translation procedures, Vinay & Darbelnet discuss the six prosodic features derived from the seven procedures (Pym 2010: 14), namely: 1) Amplification; 2) Reduction; 3) Explicitation; 4) Implicitation; 5) Generalization; 6) Particularization. Among these, Amplification refers to a situation in which extra information is added to the translation. For instance, “the charge against him” becomes “l’accusation portée contre lui” (back translation: the charge brought against him). Pym’s example shows that there are five words in the translation, and “brought” is an idea which is not seen in the ST, so, this translation is amplified. Conversely, Reduction refers to a situation in which less information is given in the translation.

The third effect is Explicitation, which may be confusing when it is presented with Amplification. Basically, Explicitation is different from Amplification in that the former refers to a situation in which the information hidden in the ST is made explicit; that is to say, no extra information has been added in the translation. An example is the conversion of “students of St. Mary” into “étudiantes de l’école St. Mary”. As Pym explains, the French translation makes it clear that St. Mary is a school and its students are all female; in this way, the translation becomes explicit for the readers. As for Implicitation, it is simply an effect which is opposite to the above-mentioned situation; that is, some information is hidden in the translation, maybe because this particular information is so common that it is unnecessary to mention it.

Generalization and Particularization are also two mutually opposite effects. Generalization refers to a situation in which a specific (or concrete) source term is converted into a general (or ambiguous) target term. For instance, if a culture does not contain the word “chicken”, it is likely that the translator will replace it with its hypernym, “bird”, and this is a kind of generalization. As for Particularization, this is the opposite of Generalization.
In summary, it could be said that translation problems arise when translators cannot translate certain words or sentences in a straightforward way; that is to say, the ST meaning cannot be converted into TT intact. In this situation, the ST meaning is bound to be adjusted to some extent to produce the optimal translation, and these adjustments will result in the six prosodic features listed above.

2.1.3.2 Nida’s Five Techniques of Adjustment

After Vinay & Darbelnet, Nida also comments on translation procedures in his book *Toward a Science of Translating* (1964), in which he elaborates on five types of correspondences and five techniques of adjustment for translating based on an investigation into the English translation of the Bible written in Hebrew, Aramaic and Greek (pp. 193-240). In his discussion, “technique” contains a meaning which is similar to “procedure”.

Firstly, Nida’s five types of correspondence represent equivalence in five different forms, the first of which is phonological correspondence, which refers to equivalence in sounds. For example, the Japanese food “ramen” (Japanese soup noodles) and its Chinese translation “拉 麵” (*la mian*) match each other phonologically because they both consist of two syllables and share a similar pronunciation. It can be seen from this example that phonological correspondence is achieved by transliteration. The second correspondence is morphological correspondence, which concerns equivalence in word formation, word classes and word categories. For example, in terms of the Chinese translation of “doggie”, this word is generally translated into “小狗” (*xiao gou: little dog*). Nevertheless, the idea of doggie can still be rendered by adding morphemes, such as 仔 (*zai*). Although 狗仔 is a term which is less common than 小狗, it is a good example of morphological correspondence, because, in this context, both “-ie” and “仔” render the same
meaning and are diminutive suffixes. The third kind is syntactical correspondence which is related to equivalence in sentence structure. This correspondence is achieved when the ST and the TT are shown in the same phrase, clause or discourse structures. The fourth kind is lexical correspondence, which refers to word-for-word equivalence, and to form this correspondence, the source term and the target term must be similar in meaning, form and sound. Therefore, it could be put that this correspondence is also seen in the example “ramen”. Dynamic correspondence is the last kind discussed by Nida, and, contrary to lexical correspondence, dynamic correspondence reminds translators that “not everything that exists in one language…should necessarily be duplicated in the other” (Nida 1964: 224-225). This correspondence is based on a functional viewpoint. For example, the English idiom “eat like a horse” can be literally translated into “吃得像馬一樣”, and with this translation, Chinese readers may still be able to grasp the meaning with the help of the context. However, some translators would choose a dynamic way and translate this idiom into “吃得像馬一樣多” (eat as much as a horse) or “食量很大” (eat a lot). Although the two translations are dissimilar to the source idiom, they function well in Chinese texts.

Because correspondences are not the focus of this thesis, I have only briefly explained Nida’s five types of correspondence. However, more detailed and exhaustive descriptions can be found in Nida’s book (1964: 193-225).

When a translator meets a correspondence problem in tackling a certain part of a text, he/she will have to find a method to resolve it. In his book, Nida provides five techniques for translators to adopt, which I have compiled and listed in Table 2-2.

Table 2-2 is an exhaustive list, which indicates situations in which any of the five techniques can be adopted. It seems to me that the table is sufficiently clear in most parts, so further explanation is unnecessary. However, there is one row which
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Technique</th>
<th>Applicable to</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Additions | 1. filling out elliptical expressions  
            2. obligatory specification  
            3. additions required because of grammatical restructuring  
            4. amplification from implicit to explicit status  
            5. answers to rhetorical questions  
            6. classifiers  
            7. connectives  
            8. categories of the receptor language which do not exist in the source language  
            9. doublets |
| Subtractions | 1. repetitions  
               2. specification of reference  
               3. conjunctions  
               4. transitionals  
               5. categories  
               6. vocatives  
               7. formulae |
| Alterations | 1. sounds  
              2. categories  
              3. word classes  
              4. order of elements  
              5. clause and sentence structures  
              6. semantic problems involving single words  
              7. semantic problems involving exocentric expression |
| The use of footnotes | 1. to correct linguistic and cultural discrepancies  
                           i. explain contradictory customs  
                              ii. identify unknown geographical or physical objects  
                              iii. give equivalents of weights and measures  
                              iv. provide information on plays on words  
                              v. include supplementary data on proper names  
                           2. to add information to help understand the historical and cultural background of the document in question |
| Adjustments of language to experience | 1. new cultural events |

Table 2-2 Nida’s Five Techniques and their Applications (1964: 226-240)
may require more information, namely the adjustment of language to experience. This

technique refers to a situation in which a new idea is brought to the target culture, and

both the translator(s) and the information receptor(s) (i.e. people in the target culture)

spend time (days, weeks or even years) forming a basis to translate this new idea.

Nida takes a cultural event as an example. Centuries ago, some Christian missionaries

went to southern Mexico to spread Christianity, and before their arrival, the local

people, i.e. the Tzeltals, did not have any words or phrases related to this religion.

Nevertheless, years of interaction have given birth to translations with local colours,

e.g. “to turn one’s heart toward God” (to trust God) and “to be sad before God” (to

feel convicted of sin). This illustrates that the translation of Christian phrases was

affected by the local culture and the local language. On the other hand, Christianity

also brought the Tzeltal language new words, such as templo, ministro, anciano and

diacono (Spanish words for temple, minister, elder and deacon). To sum up, it could

be said that this technique is a method which takes time and requires contributions

from both the translator(s) and the information receptor(s). What is more, compared

with the first four techniques, the influence of this technique is on a larger scale

because it potentially brings changes to the target culture.

Basically, these five techniques are procedures employed by translators in order

to achieve four purposes: 1) enabling the form of the message to be adjusted to the

requirements of the structure of the receptor language; 2) producing semantically

equivalent structures; 3) providing equivalent stylistic appropriateness and 4) carrying

an equivalent communication load (1964: 226). Although these techniques can be

regarded as being methods to resolve translation problems, Nida also maintains that

the source meaning/idea may not be able to be kept intact. Since straight translation is

impossible, what translators do is to produce the “closest natural equivalent” (1964:

226).
The reason Nida spends a chapter discussing the five techniques of adjustment may be that the Bible contains numerous culture-specific and religion-specific terms and examples. Meanwhile, there is usually a great linguistic, cultural and temporal gap when this book is introduced to a culture in which Christianity has never existed. Under such circumstances, its translators have to care about whether or not the target readers can understand the translation. In order to help readers understand, adjustments are needed. As Nida puts it, the adjustments mentioned here are only minor changes in situations where modifications are required; radical alterations are only made “when a close formal equivalent is utterly meaningless and when it carries a wrong meaning” (p. 226).

2.1.3.3 Newmark and Munday’s Translation Methods Arranged in Two V Diagrams

In 1988, more than twenty years after Nida’s publication, Peter Newmark released a book entitled, *A Textbook of Translation*, in which he arranged translation methods into a V diagram:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SL emphasis</th>
<th>TL emphasis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Word-for-word translation</td>
<td>Adaptation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literal translation</td>
<td>Free translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faithful translation</td>
<td>Idiomatic translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semantic translation</td>
<td>Communicative translation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

By arranging translation methods into a V diagram, Newmark helps readers acquire an idea of the degree of literalness and freeness of these eight methods.

To Newmark, the eight methods relate to the translation of whole texts, and there are procedures which are applicable to the translation of sentences or even smaller language units (p. 81). These procedures are literal translation, transference,
naturalisation, cultural equivalent, functional equivalent, descriptive equivalent, synonymy, through-translation, shifts or transpositions, modulation, recognised translation, translation label, compensation, componential analysis, reduction and expansion, paraphrase, combination of two or more procedures, notes, additions and glosses (pp. 81-93). It can be seen from Newmark’s procedures that he acknowledges the concepts proposed by Catford (transference and shifts) and Vinay & Darbelent (modulation) in addition to his personal findings.

What is also worth mentioning in this section is that Munday also proposes a similar diagram on the basis of ideas of former scholars, including Christiane Nord (phonological translation), Nida & Taber (formal), Hatim & Munday (literal), Nida (functional) and J. Michael Walton (translocation) (2009: 7-9).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>More derivative</th>
<th>More primary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phonological translation</td>
<td>Creative/Primary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word-for-word</td>
<td>Translocation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literal</td>
<td>Free—Adaptation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal</td>
<td>Functional</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When comparing the two V diagrams, it can be seen that the main difference is that Munday adds two methods, which he sees as being more extreme than adaptation, namely Translocation and Creative/Primary. Translocation is proposed when Walton discusses drama translation in his book *Found in Translation: Greek Drama in English* (2006: 182-183). The method of translocation is used when a play written in one language is converted into an adapted version in another language. The reason for this procedure being regarded as more extreme than adaptation may be that translocation refers to whole-text adaptation, while adaptation can apply to whole texts, sections, paragraphs, sentences and words.
As for Creative/Primary, this means to “transcreate”. Haroldo de Campos, a Brazilian poet translator, proposes that the word “transcreate” refers to a situation in which translators incorporate source texts (e.g. poems) with worthwhile elements in the target culture, which is like creating new texts on the basis of the source texts. In this way, translators are not faithful to the STs; they create TTs, which, in some cases, even become more valuable than their source counterparts.

It can be seen from the definition of the two extreme methods that they are actually two kinds of text-level adaptation. The difference may be that the scale influenced by the two methods is larger than the procedure of adaptation (sentence-level).

2.1.3.4 Malone’s Trajectories

Malone calls the act of converting one language into another a trajection, and in his book, *The Science of Linguistics in the Art of Translation* (1988: 15-70), he discusses translation patterns from several aspects. He proposes ten kinds of trajections and classifies them into six categories, which are shown in Table 2-3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Trajectory</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Matching</td>
<td>Equation and Substitution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zigzagging</td>
<td>Divergence and Convergence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recresence</td>
<td>Amplification and Reduction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repackaging</td>
<td>Diffusion and Condensation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reordering</td>
<td>Reordering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recoding</td>
<td>Recoding</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2-3 Ten Trajectories Porposed by Malone

Among these, there are no divisions under the last two categories, so the category names themselves are the trajections. Besides, Malone sees the last trajection as a complex one and the remainder as being simple.
It is easy to understand the meaning of some of the trajectories, while others require further explanation. To begin with, Malone adopts the notion that “the source text is rendered by the target text in the most straightforward way” to describe Equation, while Substitution refers to the use of a target term “deemed as being other than the most straightforward counterpart available” (p. 16). Secondly, divergence and convergence refer to a situation in which a word in a language can only find a more general counterpart in another language. Malone provides an example in his book (p. 36). The pronoun “you” in English has two counterparts in German, “Sie” and “du”, so when translating this pronoun from English to German, it is a process of divergence, while convergence exists the other way round. Thirdly, the differences between amplification/reduction and diffusion/condensation are similar to those between amplification/reduction and explicitation/implicitation discussed in the paragraphs about the six prosodic features in Section 2.1.3.1. Lastly, the reason why recoding is deemed to be a complex trajectory is that it involves a combination of two trajectories taking place at different compositional levels. For instance, when the Old Irish *dha triochatt* (two thirties) is translated into the English *sixty*, a combination of Substitution and Condensation can be seen (p. 75). This is because the form of “2 X 30” is omitted and is condensed into an alternative equivalent 60.

2.1.3.5 Fawcett’s Compilation of Russian Approaches

In his book, *Translation and Language: Linguistic Theories Explained* (1997: 27-52), Fawcett compiles a list of translation techniques proposed by scholars from three different countries/cultures (Shveitser and Retsker from Russia, Vinay and Darbelnet from Canada and Malone from the US). The ideas of Russian scholars have not been discussed in this thesis so far, and also I do not understand Russian, so Fawcett’s remarks can be a good resource to know Russian theorists’ viewpoints.
According to Fawcett, Retsker, in his book, *Teoria perevoda i perevodcheskaia praktika (Theory of Translation and Translation Practice)* (1974), observes that translation can be divided into two categories: correspondences and transformation, which his compatriot, Shveitser, renames “Analogy” and “Adequacy”. Analogy covers the situation of one-to-one correspondence (so-called equivalence in Retsker’s definition) and that of one-to-many correspondence (so-called variant and contextual correspondence in Retsker’s definition because translators have to choose the most suitable meaning among many). In other words, when there is a correspondent (or are many correspondents) for translators to choose to replace source terms, Analogy is seen.

On the other hand, if no correspondent can be found, it becomes a translation problem, and a technique needs to be adopted to resolve it. The problem-solving techniques are used to produce adequate translations, hence the category name, Adequacy. As a further step, Retsker lists seven techniques to attain Adequacy, and these are condensed into four by Shveitser: 1) Concretization; 2) Logical Derivation; 3) Antonymic Translation; 4) Compensation.

The first technique refers to the use of hypernyms or hyponyms as the translation; that is, generalising or particularising the source meaning in an effort to find an adequate substitute in the target language.

The second technique refers to a situation in which different languages tend to denote the same thing from different logical perspectives. Fawcett provides an easy-to-understand example in his publication (p. 30). Whereas English people say “shorter working hours”, German and French people say “Senkung der Arbeitszeit” and “réduction de la semaine de travail” (reduction in work time/working week). According to Fawcett, the English sentence expresses the result or effect of an action,
while the German and French sentences focus on the cause\(^2\). It can be seen from this example that, when there is no correspondent in the target language, translators can try to deal with the sentence from another perspective. Although the target sentence is expressed from a different perspective, the idea/meaning to which it refers is still the same.

The third technique is Antonymic Translation, which means that the ST is translated into a TT which has an opposite meaning. A good example is the conversion of “est une valeur déjà ancienne” (a French sentence: is an already old value) into “by no means a new value” (p. 31). Again, it is acceptable to directly translate this French sentence into “is an already old value”, but Shveitser provides a different translation to explain this third technique.

The last technique is Compensation, which refers to making up for the loss of a source text effect by adding extra word(s) to the target text to create a similar effect (Baker 2001: 37; Pym 2007: 281). In other words, when translators cannot find suitable target terms to cover all the information or fulfil the function(s) contained in, or brought by, the source terms, they can choose terms which partly match the source ones and, at the same time, add extra words to compensate for the lost meaning/function(s).

Shveitser discusses two kinds of correspondences and four ways to achieve transformation. His remarks and Shveitser’s revision present an idea of the attitude of Russian researchers to translation procedures.

2.1.3.6 Chesterman’s Three Types of Translation Strategies

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\(^2\) This is one of the possible German and French translations for “shorter working hours”. Although it is acceptable to directly translate this English sentence, the author offers the translation in an attempt to explain the nature of logical derivation.
The seventh scholar to be mentioned is Andrew Chesterman (1997: 92-116), who discusses translation strategies on the basis of his findings from investigating German-English translation texts. Chesterman stresses that there are two groups of strategies: comprehension strategies and production strategies. The former is related to “the analysis of the source text and the whole nature of the translation commission” (p. 92), while the latter, which is the major focus of Chesterman’s book, is about the means translators use to produce appropriate translation. Chesterman divides production strategies into three types, each of which consists of ten strategies (see Table 2-4).

In order to avoid confusion, I should explain in advance that the word “strategy” in Chesterman’s publication has a meaning which is similar to “procedure” in this thesis. I have not changed Chesterman’s argument to “three types of procedures” because I respect his choice of term.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Syntactic strategies</th>
<th>Semantic strategies</th>
<th>Pragmatic strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>G1: Literal translation</td>
<td>S1: Synonymy</td>
<td>Pr1: Cultural filtering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G2: Loan, calque</td>
<td>S2: Antonymy</td>
<td>Pr2: Explicitness change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G3: Transposition</td>
<td>S3: Hyponomy</td>
<td>Pr3: Information change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G4: Unit shift</td>
<td>S4: Conversed</td>
<td>Pr4: Interpersonal change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G5: Phrase structure change</td>
<td>S5: Abstraction change</td>
<td>Pr5: Illocutionary change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G6: Clause structure change</td>
<td>S6: Distribution change</td>
<td>Pr6: Coherence change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G7: Sentence structure change</td>
<td>S7: Emphasis change</td>
<td>Pr7: Partial translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G8: Cohesion change</td>
<td>S8: Paraphrase</td>
<td>Pr8: Visibility change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G9: Level shift</td>
<td>S9: Trope change</td>
<td>Pr9: Transediting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G10: Scheme change</td>
<td>S10: Other semantic changes</td>
<td>Pr10: Other pragmatic changes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2-4 Three Types of Translation Strategies in Chesterman’s Book

Chesterman’s compilation contains a total of thirty strategies, which cover a wide variety of translation types. Chesterman not only introduces strategies which have been proposed by former scholars, but also adds new ones on the basis of personal observations. These strategies will be clarified in the following paragraphs; however,
as mentioned at the beginning of Section 2.1.3, strategies that have been explained in previous sections or are self-explanatory will not be elucidated.

Syntactic strategies are employed when translators produce appropriate translations by making changes in words, clauses, sentences or grammar. The only two strategies in which the syntactic structures remain unchanged are Literal Translation and Loan/Calque. Since translators adopt these two strategies when they want to stick strictly to the STs, it is unlikely that syntactic structures will be altered.

As for other strategies of this type, they all represent certain kinds of shifts. Cohesion Change refers to an alteration in “intra-textual reference, ellipsis, substitution, pronominalization and repetition, or the use of connectors of various kinds” (p. 98). An example is borrowed from Chesterman’s book:

ST: Diese Ausgabe… (German)
TT: In the present issue… (English)

This conversion shows a change in the intra-textual reference because the translator used “definite + adjective” to replace “demonstrative”.

The strategy below Cohesion Change is Level Shift. Levels encompass phonology, morphology, syntax and lexis, and as long as translators use one level to replace another, it is counted as a level shift. For instance:

ST: Wir…ersuchen Sie, … anzukreuzen.
[We…ask you to mark…]
TT: Please mark…
According to Chesterman, the request is made in a polite tone which is achieved by lexis (a particular verb) + syntax (main verb plus infinitive). However, its English translation is only “please”. Therefore, a level shift has occurred.

The last strategy of this type is Scheme Change. Schemes refer to rhetorical devices, such as parallelism, repetition, alliteration and metrical rhythm. Sometimes, translators adopt a new scheme in the translation because they consider the new scheme to be more appropriate to the target culture. Besides, it is also possible that translators remove the original scheme or create a scheme in the TTs. In this situation, it is said that the strategy of Scheme Change is employed. For example:

ST: Kulturfans
TT: Culture vultures

Chesterman argues that no scheme is seen in the German ST, whereas a rhetorical device, phonological similarity, is identified in its English TT. This reveals that a scheme is created in the TT.

As for semantic strategies, these relate to changes which occur in a lexical aspect. For example, the use of Synonomy means that the ST is replaced by a TT which is not directly equivalent but contains a similar meaning. Converses “are pairs of (usually) verbal structures which express the same state of affairs from opposing viewpoints, such as buy and sell” (1997: 103). If the translation conveys more (or less) abstract information, it could be said that the strategy of Abstraction is used. For example, due to the use of “corners” in the TT, the conversion “aus aller welt (from around the world) → from all corners of the globe” sees a shift from abstractness to clarity. The ninth strategy of this type is Trope Change (i.e. changes in figures of speech, such as metaphor, synecdoche, anaphora and chiasmus), the situation of
which is similar to that of Scheme Change. Translators change, remove or add tropes to the TTs in an attempt to make them appropriate. In addition to the nine semantic strategies, Chesterman states that there are still other semantic changes, e.g. changes in sense or in deictic direction. Perhaps these changes are not as common as the other nine strategies, so they are classified as “Others”.

Pragmatic strategies are procedures translators adopt when they decide the way in which to deal with the source information. When doing this, translators will take into account the appropriateness of the translation to the target readers. Generally, strategies of this kind have a larger-scale influence on translation, and hence, syntactic and semantic changes may be involved. For example, the first strategy, Cultural Filtering, works like domestication or adaptation and aims to produce outputs which trigger the same functions or cultural images in the target society. One example from Chesterman is the translation of Flughafen Wien into Vienna International Airport (p. 108). The word “International” is added by the translator because Vienna International Airport is the term English people use to call that airport. The addition of “International” makes the translation natural.

Interpersonal Change refers to alterations in “the formality level, the degree of emotiveness and involvement, the level of technical lexis and the like: anything that involves a change in the relationship between text/author and reader” (p. 110). For instance:

ST: Sehr geehrte Fluggäste!
[Very esteemed flight passengers!]
TT: Dear passengers…

In the English translation, the high status that passengers receive is not retained. In this case, it can be said that there is an Interpersonal Change.
Unlike Interpersonal Change which relates to the relationship between text/author and reader, Illocutionary Change is a strategy which alters the speech acts. For example, when a source sentence is written with an imperative tone but translated with a tone of request, it can be said that there is a change in its illocutionary act. Partial Translation refers to a situation in which part of the ST is translated while the other part is ignored. This strategy is seen when translators only translate the sounds of the STs, do gist translation and so on. As for Visibility Change, this concerns a change in the presence of the authors and translators. For example, translators may give footnotes, provide information in brackets or add glosses, all of which will enable readers to sense that there is a translator behind the publication they read. Thus, invisible translators become visible. Lastly, there are still other patterns which do not belong to the nine kinds listed, and Chesterman categorises them all as “Other Pragmatic Strategies”. Examples include Layout Change and the choice of dialect.

The thirty strategies proposed by Chesterman include a wide range, but not an exhaustive listing, of translation procedures. He groups these strategies into three types, which belong to three different aspects. As he puts it, “If syntactic strategies manipulate form, and semantic strategies manipulate meaning, pragmatic strategies can be said to manipulate the message itself” (p. 107). It can be noted that his strategies cover every aspect which can be manipulated for producing appropriate translations.

2.1.3.7 Loh’s Translation Principles and Techniques

The last three scholars’ contributions to be presented are efforts made by two Chinese theorists and one Taiwanese researcher who propose their findings on the basis of English-Chinese translation. Although translation studies and translation procedures in the Chinese-speaking world are the topic of the next section, these three
scholars’ findings are discussed here so that readers can easily compare all the theorists’ translation procedures without having to turn the page. Besides, although all scholars’ contributions are introduced according to the years in which their work was published (from the earliest to the latest), it is decided to discuss western scholars first and Chinese-speaking scholars later. Therefore, despite the fact that Loh’s book was published in 1958, which is earlier than most of the contributions above, his techniques are only presented in 2.1.3.7.

In the publication, *Translation: Its Principles and Techniques* (1958a; 1958b), Loh explains the way to do English-Chinese translation. The two volumes of his publication are divided into three parts: 1) translation of words and expressions; 2) study of two languages and translation; 3) principles of translation.

In the first part, Loh discusses five ways to translate nouns, the first of which is transliteration. Examples include “London → 倫敦 (*lun dun*)” and “radar → 雷達 (*lei da*)”. It can be noted that the pronunciation of the two nouns is similar to that of their sources.

The second way is semantic translation, examples of which include “the Mediterranean Sea → 地中海 (the sea in the middle of the land)” and “machine gun → 機關槍 (machine gun)”.

The third way is a combination of transliteration and semantic translation, and a good example of this is the conversion of “vitamin” into 維他命 (*wei ta ming*). The pronunciation of this translation is similar to that of its source, and the lexical meaning of 維他命 is “sustain his life”, which informs the people in the target society that a vitamin is a substance which is important to life. In Taiwan, this translation procedure is very common when translating names of medicines, e.g. koligin (tablets

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3 Two examples are given of the first and the second way because both of these can be adopted to tackle proper nouns and common nouns. The other three ways cannot be used to tackle proper nouns.
that help relieve anxiety) ➔ 可利靜 (ke li jing: can help sedate); sweicon (tablets that
tackle peptic ulcers, gastritis, flatulence and stomachache) ➔ 助胃康 (zhu wei kang:
help stomach healthy).

The fourth way is transliteration with semantic translation at the beginning or
the end. For example, czar/tsar is translated into 沙皇 (sha huang) in Chinese. The
first character 沙 imitates the sound of czar, while 皇, which refers to emperor in
Chinese, lets the information recipients know the status of a czar.

As for the fifth way, this is a symbolical translation with a semantic explanation
at the end. For example, the Chinese translation of “pyramid” is 金字塔 (jin zi ta).
The two characters 金字 indicate that the pyramid has a shape which is similar to 金
(gold), while 塔 conveys the idea that a pyramid is like a tower.

In addition to the above-mentioned five ways to translate nouns, Loh also
discusses ways to translate other kinds of words, including relatives, demonstratives,
indefinites, interrogatives, articles, verbs, modifiers, numerals and connectives.
Basically, Loh makes an exhaustive investigation into the grammatical differences
between English and Chinese and explains to readers how to translate appropriately.
For example, articles in sentences such as “The earth moves round the sun” and “A
dog growls when it is angry” should be omitted in Chinese, while those in sentences
such as “I met a man in the street yesterday” and “She was a fine musician” should be
retained. Another example relates to the Chinese translation of English tenses. As Loh
argues:

“1. For past verbs do not use any character or sign, or in other words, translate
the past verbs just in the same way as you translate the present verbs.

…. 
2. For future verbs, as the sense requires, use “要”, “會”, “就”, “便”, “將” or no sign in affirmative sentences; “一定要”, “好不好？”, or “好嗎？”, or “請” in interrogative sentences; and “不行” or “不好” in negative sentences.”

(1958a: 113)

Loh’s remarks tell us that the Chinese translation of the English past tense is easier than tackling its future tense. In order to translate the English future tense, the nature of the sentence has to be determined first, and then suitable supplementary words need to be chosen to make the translation natural. The reason for adding independent words is that Chinese verbs themselves do not inflect to reveal tenses, and the idea of past, present and future can only be conveyed by neighbouring words.

In the second part of Loh’s publication, he talks about the characteristic features of Chinese and English from three perspectives: word-formation, morphology and syntax. However, since this is not related to translation equivalence or translation procedures, it is not addressed here.

The third part is about principles of translation, and Loh mentions six principles which can be adopted to produce an adequate translation. These are: 1) Omission; 2) Amplification; 3) Repetition; 4) Conversion; 5) Inversion; 6) Negation. Because the first two principles have been explained in previous sections, they are ignored here. Nevertheless, Loh argues that the principle of Repetition is useful, chiefly for clarity, emphasis, force and giving life to the discourse (1958b: 150). Basically, it is a device for achieving a stylistic effect (Zhang & Pan 2009: 360). For example:

ST: What we want, first and foremost, is to learn, to learn and to learn.
TT: 我們首先需要的是學習，學習，再學習。

This is an example extracted from Loh’s book (1958b: 157), and it can be seen that “to learn” appears three times in the original sentence in an attempt to emphasise it. If
the translator did not care about the emphatic tone, he/she could have adopted the technique of Omission and deleted repeated “to learn”. Nevertheless, the repetition is kept in order to achieve the stylistic effect of emphasis.

As for Conversion, it means that “a certain part of speech is not necessarily to be turned into one of the same part of speech in another language” (p. 184). An example is the conversion of “A toast against Aggression” into “為反侵略乾杯” (For against Aggression [we] toast). Toast means 乾杯 in Chinese, but 乾杯 is actually an act (a verb), rather than a noun, so it is put at the end of the Chinese sentence.

Inversion is produced by the grammar differences between English and Chinese. For example, “She has lost her all” is translated into “她一切都丟了” (She all has lost). Here, the idea of “all” moves to the front of the target sentence; hence, an inversion takes place. Nevertheless, I would like to stress that this is just one of the possible translations, and all these procedures represent a decision made by the translator according to the context. In fact, it is also possible to translate this English sentence without changing the word order: “她失去一切” (She has lost her all). Loh uses this translation simply to explain the technique of Inversion.

The last technique is Negation, which refers to “translating a negative sentence with an affirmative one, or vice versa” (Zhang & Pan 2009: 364). This technique is invoked because of the differences between Chinese and western languages. For example:

ST: I don’t think he is coming.

TT: 我覺得他不會來。

BT: I think he is not coming.

According to English grammar, negation should not be put after the verb “to think”, so “don’t” appears before “think”. However, there is no such a rule in Chinese, so it is
quite natural to put “不會” (don’t) after 覺得 (think). Here, it can be seen that the part which is affirmative becomes negative and the part which is negative becomes affirmative.

In summary, Loh “proposed a taxonomy of linguistic changes in translation and related them to translation principles and techniques” (Zhang & Pan 2009: 352). He conducted an extensive study and produced detailed translation guidelines for translators.

2.1.3.8 Liu’s Four Expediences for the Transfer of ST into TL

In his article, “Translation Theory from/into Chinese” (2001: 1027-1047), Miqing Liu not only presents a brief introduction of China’s translation history but also discusses ways to achieve equivalence. Based on Nida’s concept, Liu explains four levels of formal equivalence.

1. Correspondence
   e.g. by the sixth sense → 憑第六感覺 (ping di liu gan jue: by the sixth sense)

2. Similarity
   e.g. by the sixth sense → 憑直覺 (ping gan jue: by the intuition)

3. Approximity
   e.g. lack of historical sense → 缺乏歷史眼光 (que fa li shi yan guang: lack of historical vision)

4. Non-equivalence in form
   e.g. contrary to all sense → 荒謬絕倫 (huang miu jue lun: extremely ridiculous)

(p. 1036)

These four examples appropriately define the four levels of formal equivalence. In the first level, correspondence is attained by translating “by the sixth sense” into Chinese word-for-word. Because 第六感覺 (or 第六感) is a common term in Chinese, this translation is natural and adequate. As for the second level, “the sixth sense” is
replaced by 直覺, which refers to “intuition”. Although intuition is similar to the sixth sense, they are after all two different terms. Therefore, this kind of case is described as Similarity, not Correspondence. In the third level, the word which is tackled with a somewhat different translation is “sense”. If “historical sense” is literally translated, it will be “歷史感覺”. Nevertheless, “歷史感覺” is an awkward term in Chinese. As a result, the translator chooses “眼光” (vision), a word which conveys approximately the same meaning and reads naturally in Chinese. The last level is the most extreme in which the idea behind the ST is conveyed, but no formal equivalence is seen. “Contrary to all sense” means that something is totally beyond our common sense. The translator uses a beautiful Chinese idiom “荒謬絕倫” to replace it, but this idiom does not correspond to the ST form.

When literal translation does not work, Liu offers two alternative paths, i.e. the adjustments proposed by Nida in 1964 and four expediencies for transferring SL into TL. Because Nida’s concept has already been discussed in 2.1.3.2, only the four expediencies will be discussed here.

The four expediencies proposed by Liu are: 1) Description; 2) Rephrasing; 3) Addition; 4) Transliteration. Description means to “decode the sign [the ST] by way of describing the message content” (2001: 1043). For instance, the word “Scotch” can refer to “Scotch whisky”. Nonetheless, the literal translation of “Scotch” is “蘇格蘭人” (Scottish people), which will certainly confuse Chinese readers. Hence, the method of Description can be adopted here to translate this term into “蘇格蘭威士忌酒” (Scottish whisky alcohol). In this way, readers know that this is a kind of alcohol called whisky from Scotland. The second expediency is Rephrasing, which deals with STs by replacing them with more acceptable TL correspondents. The example given by Liu is the translation of “chewing gum”. The literal translation of “chewing gum” is 咀嚼糖. Although this translation looks fine, it is actually a strange translation
because there is already a fixed translation for “chewing gum” in Chinese; that is, 口香糖. In order to produce more acceptable TLs, translators have to check whether there are fixed translations for certain STs; otherwise, it is likely that the TTs become less natural. Addition is the third expediency, which refers to “adding a category or generic word to improve intelligibility and acceptability” (p. 1043). Liu introduces a traditional Chinese musical instrument “二簧” (er huang) as an example. A transliteration of 二簧 into “er huang” will certainly cause confusion, and Liu points out that this problem can be resolved by adding a word – “erhuang melodies” (although I would prefer another translation, “the string instrument erhuang”). In this way, readers will be able to know the nature of erhuang. The last expediency is Transliteration, which means to translate STs by their sounds. Like Addition, examples related to this have been discussed in previous sections. To give a simple example, “dim sum” is a foreign word which refers to Cantonese-style small-portioned food or snacks. This term is transliterated from its Chinese counterpart “點心” with a Cantonese pronunciation. By using transliteration, the translator overcomes the difficulty of finding a corresponding word in English and introduces a foreign colour to the TL.

In summary, Liu’s expediencies are basically concepts which have been discussed by former researchers. However, his research materials are Chinese-to-English and English-to-Chinese translation. Since this research is about Chinese-English translation, Liu’s research results are potentially valuable to me.

2.1.3.9 Su’s Adaptive Strategies

The last scholar to be discussed is Fu-hsing Su. Su (2005: 377–404) investigates the way in which translator students tackle English phrases and groups them into six adaptive strategies. The strategies he introduces are obtained from former theorists,
such as Mona Baker, Miqing Liu (劉宓慶), Zinan Ye (葉子南) and Pei-ji Zhang (張培基). Similar to some of the previously-mentioned scholars, Su’s analysis excludes situations in which a straightforward conversion between the ST and the TT is possible. He only focuses on the strategies those students adopt to resolve translation problems. Besides, Su also uses “strategy” instead of “procedure” in his paper, and in order to respect his choice of term, I will retain it when discussing his research results.

The six adaptive strategies are: 1) Paraphrasing; 2) Conversion in the Part of Speech; 3) Amplification; 4) Omission; 5) Shifting and 6) Division, most of which have been elucidated in the previous paragraphs. The two which need further explanation are Conversion in the Part of Speech and Division. Conversion in the Part of Speech refers to the changes in word classes. The idea of this strategy is actually the same as that of Transposition, proposed by Vinay & Darbelnet and Chesterman. As for Division, this strategy refers to the method whereby translators segment a word, a phrase or a sentence which is difficult to tackle. By dividing it into segments, it may be easier to produce appropriate outputs. One more thing to mention is that this strategy is more common when translating long sentences because such texts are more complex than words or phrases.

2.1.3.10 Brief Concluding Remarks on Theorists’ Contributions to Translation Procedures

The reason for introducing former theorists’ contributions to translation procedures is that this is the focus of this research. Before conducting my own study, it is important to consult past findings. The above-mentioned twelve scholars have made brilliant contributions to the compilation of translation procedures. It can be noted that those procedures generally fall within two categories: literal translation and free translation. When a procedure is literal, it can be so extreme that the source term
is borrowed as its translation or is translated phonologically\(^4\) (e.g. Borrowing and Phonological translation). Meanwhile, the most extreme case of free translation can be creation of a new situation on the basis of the source idea (e.g. Adaptation, Translocation, Creative/Primary and Adjustments of Language to Experience). In addition to this, there are three more dichotomies: amplification vs. reduction, explicitation vs. implicitation, and generalisation vs. particularisation\(^5\). Except for Vinay & Darbelnet, a greater number of theorists (Nida, Malone Retsker, Shveitser, Loh and Su) regard them as translation procedures. Apart from these procedures, Malone (Reordering), Loh (Conversion, Inversion and Negation) and Su (Shifting) propose that changing sentence structures can also be a method to produce appropriate translations. As can be seen, different theorists hold dissimilar opinions on translation procedures. For example, the six prosodic features which are discussed in Vinay & Darbelnet’s publication are regarded as being translation procedures by six other scholars. This may be because those six scholars do not only talk about methods to resolve translation problems but also investigate the changes which take place in the composition of texts (e.g. word classes, sentence structures, grammatical structures, pragmatic structures, etc.). They perceive that changing the composition of the text can also be a way to resolve translation problems. From this, we can see that every theorist does investigations from various perspectives. In Chapter 5, I will compare my treatments with these twelve theorists’ procedures.

2.2 Introducing Corpora and Corpus Research

\(^4\) When two languages share similar writing systems, it is possible that a word is borrowed directly (e.g. fajita). However, when the writing systems of the two languages are different, phonological translation needs to be employed (e.g. \(\text{sushi} \rightarrow \text{sushi}\)).

\(^5\) Different theorists use dissimilar terms to call the three kinds of dichotomies. Here, Vinay & Darbelnet’s terms are adopted simply because they are the first to be discussed in my thesis.
It can be seen from the last paragraph in Section 2.1.1 that translation studies can work well with other fields, such as linguistics, literary criticism and multimedia. Apart from these three domains, there are many others with which translation studies can be merged. Among these, computer science is one of the most important disciplines. The advent of computers has helped improve human life in many ways, such as enabling more precise medical treatment, making it easier to save data and quicker to analyse it, providing unmanned machines for dangerous missions, etc. Similarly, computers have generated great convenience in the academic world, too. They help scholars and researchers save a great deal of time in searching and analysing enormous amounts of data. Moreover, some research types are derived from the use of computers. The most of these worth discussing in translation studies is corpus research because this is the research tool adopted by this thesis.

Initially introduced in the domain of linguistics, corpus research takes advantage of computers’ capacity to save huge amounts of data and enable “fast, accurate, and complex analyses” (Biber, Conrad & Reppen 2002: 233). In the field of translation, corpora have become a powerful tool for descriptive studies, which aims to systematically dissect the three empirical phenomena in translation studies, i.e. the product, the process, and the function of translation (Laviosa 2002: 10). From the smallest details in the chosen texts to the largest cultural patterns, both internal and external to the texts, corpora make it possible for researchers to discern the phenomena among a sea of data (Tymoczko 1998: 653).

Before the advent of computer-operated corpora, researchers had to construct corpora and search for the wanted information manually. Vanderauwera’s investigation into English translations of Dutch novels can serve as an example. After conducting the analysis by hand, Vanderauwera remarked that “serious and systematic research into translated texts is a laborious and tiresome business” (1985: 53)
Now, although researchers still have to spend time compiling texts into corpora, they no longer have to suffer from time-consuming data searches. By simply entering a keyword researchers can see all the matches on the computer screen within seconds.

A corpus is a large collection of natural language texts, compiled according to certain principles, saved in a machine-readable form and selected to manifest the state or variety of a language via the extensive use of computer techniques (Baker 1995: 225; Biber, Conrad & Reppen 1998: 4; McEnery 2003: 449; Sinclair 1991: 171). The compiled texts are deemed as samples of a language (or two languages when comparisons are made between source and target texts), from which researchers attempt to identify some meaningful patterns or phenomena, e.g. translation norms, universals, and the influence of interference. All these phenomena can be revealed by corpora because corpus data “reflect the way in which language is actually used” (Aarts 2002: 6) and offer information about the frequency and evidence of language/translation typicalities from a descriptive perspective (Stubbs 2001: 151; Malmkjær 2005: 131-132).

Although corpora are so convenient, they are not applicable to all kinds of research. In some cases, the use of corpora is not ideal and may even be frustrating, and researchers in these particular fields would prefer to make manual examinations. Relevant examples are given by Granger:

If the research focus is a particular form – the preposition *in*, the adverb *actually* or all adverbs ending in *–ly* –, it is highly advantageous to have an electronic corpus and a monolingual text retrieval software tool such as *WordSmith* Tools, which makes it possible to extract all the occurrences of a given form quickly and reliably and to visualise them in context, or a bilingual concordancer…However, if the research focus is on a semantic category such as agency or causality, or a semantic structure, such as complex noun phrases, automatic retrieval becomes more difficult, if not simply impossible. In some
cases, attempts at automatic retrieval bring up so much irrelevant material that researchers may prefer to opt for a purely manual investigation... In addition, automatic retrieval and subsequent concordance display is not ideally suited for phenomena such as tense usage, the analysis of which requires a much larger context...

(2003: 23)

Granger’s remarks illustrate that corpora are useful only when exploring words or parts of words (e.g. suffixes). If the research materials relate to some grammatical rules, syntactical structures or semantics, corpora may not be able to elicit the desired results from the data. Therefore, researchers should take into consideration the nature of their studies and decide whether or not the use of corpora is constructive to their analyses.

2.2.1 Corpus types

After decades of development, a variety of corpus types have been established. With regard to studies, there are two kinds of corpus research: corpus-based and corpus-driven (Tognini-Bonelli 2001: 10-11). The former discusses topics which have been validated by corpus evidence, whereas the latter adopts the methodology of corpus linguistics to identify meaningful findings from the corpus and turn them into research results (Teubert & Cermakova 2004: 57).

In addition to dividing corpus studies into corpus-based and corpus-driven, the second kind of categorisation is to classify them by their aims. In this case, corpora can be divided into nine different types, which are shown in Table 2-5.

It can be seen from this table that corpora are adopted to identify the changes and diversities within a single language, to find out the translation features between translated and non-translated texts, to examine translation patterns and to serve as a tool to assist in training activities. Overall, it is widely sub-categorised for a variety of academic purposes.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Corpus Type</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Aim</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Monolingual Corpora</td>
<td>Texts produced in one language</td>
<td>To analyse the naturalness or to measure deviation from norms between a language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparable Corpora</td>
<td>Translated texts and non-translated texts which are all in the same language</td>
<td>To identify the nature of translated text in general and the nature of the process of translation itself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parallel Corpora</td>
<td>Source texts and their translation(s) (alignment needed)</td>
<td>To examine translation strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Texts written by learners of a foreign language, such as student essays</td>
<td>By comparing with corpora of texts written by native speakers, researchers can examine what learners know and do not know in an attempt to facilitate training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learner Corpora</td>
<td>Texts of a language in different times</td>
<td>To examine language changes and diversity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monitor Corpora</td>
<td>Internet Texts</td>
<td>To find out if a word or a phrase we have heard really exists and in which kinds of texts it occurs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet as Virtual Corpus</td>
<td>Texts of a specific type, such as such as newspaper editorials, scientific articles, or casual conversations</td>
<td>To make observations about that particular language in that specific field</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specialised Corpora</td>
<td>Texts of many types, possibly in both spoken and written forms</td>
<td>To make observations about that particular language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Corpora</td>
<td>Spoken texts of many types compiled into various kinds of corpora, including monolingual, comparable or parallel</td>
<td>To make observations from spoken texts</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although Table 2-5 shows clear definitions of every corpus type, the fact that parallel corpora can be either unidirectional or bidirectional needs to be added. As Olohan puts it:

Parallel corpora can be unidirectional, i.e. source texts in language A and target texts in language B, or bidirectional, i.e. source texts in language A and translations in language B, and source texts in language B and their translations in language A. the latter configuration means that the corpus may also encompass a “comparable corpus” element, i.e. source texts in language A can be compared with source texts in language B, if the corpora are compiled according to criteria that facilitate direct comparison of data.

(2004: 24)

Moreover, Olohan also points out that the availability of source texts and their translations has a great influence on the degree of difficulty in compiling and using parallel corpora (2004: 25).

Apart from the previously-mentioned nine types, corpora can also be divided into dichotomous categories: synchronic vs. diachronic (Bowker & Pearson; Laviosa) and static vs. dynamic (Bowker & Pearson; Olohan). Synchronic corpora, as the name implies, are composed of texts produced within a restricted period of time, and they are adopted to investigate language use during that period of time. On the other hand, diachronic corpora consist of texts produced over a long period, and the aim of such corpora is to analyse the evolvement of a language over a long period of time. With regard to being static or dynamic, the former refers to corpora which stop augmenting once they have been established, whereas the latter are constantly having new texts added and are ideal for diachronic studies.
2.2.2 Applying corpora in research fields

Section 2.2.1 presented a detailed discussion about corpus types, and it was shown that corpora are given dissimilar natures and structures according to the aim of constructing them. So, when did corpora begin to be applied in research fields?

Corpus research dates back to the 1960s, since when numerous important corpora have been set up in the domain of linguistics. A few examples are given in the following two paragraphs.

The year 1960 saw the publication of the Survey of English Usage, which was the first large-scale language-data-collecting project for grammar research undertaken by Randolph Quirk (Teubert & Cermakova 2004: 51-53). Subsequently, the Brown Corpus was introduced in 1967 by Henry Kucera and W. Nelson Francis at Brown University, USA, and this remarkable database led to the launch of the Lancaster-Oslo/Bergen Corpus (LOB Corpus) in 1978, as an outgrowth of UK-Norway cooperation. In 1963, in another part of the UK, John Sinclair and other scholars undertook a project called English Lexical Studies, which analysed lexemes and collocation for the first time. In 1977, the International Computer Archive of Modern English (ICAME) took the lead in the international cooperation in English corpus linguistics (Thomas & Short 1996: 6-7) with the purpose of collecting and distributing information relevant to computer-processable English language materials and linguists’ research results. Taking the University of Bergen as a base, the ICAME made use of the resources obtained and established an archive of corpora with charging access. Later, the ICAME released to users the Lancaster-IBM Spoken English Corpus (SEC) in 1987 and the renowned British National Corpus (BNC) in 1995. The British National Corpus and the Bank of English (developed by Collins COBUILD) are the two corpora which were established in the 1990s and contain a sea of data. According to McEnery (2003: 452), their sizes are 100,000,000 words and
300,000,000 words of modern British English respectively. It would have been impossible to achieve such sizes in the pre-electronic age. Meanwhile, McEnery also points out that multilingual corpora and parallel corpora have been used ever more widely since the 1990s.

In the late 20th century and the early 21st century, the USA also saw the release of several important corpora. For example, the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) was launched in 1990 by Mark Davies of Brigham Young University. Boasted as being “the largest freely-available corpus of English, and the only large and balanced corpus of American English” (Corpus of Contemporary American English), the COCA collects 189,431 texts from 1990 to 2012; these texts constitute 450 million words and are from different categories: spoken, fiction, popular magazines, newspapers and academic journals. After the COCA, there is another well-known corpus, called the American National Corpus (ANC). The ANC was first released in 2003 by the Linguistic Data Consortium with the goal of making this corpus comparable to the British National Corpus. This corpus is available in two versions: commercial and non-commercial. The non-commercial version, i.e. Open ANC, includes more than 14 million words and can be downloaded from http://www.americannationalcorpus.org/OANC/index.html.

Having briefly discussed the establishment of some important corpora in the UK and the USA, I would like to talk about the situation in the Chinese-speaking world. Chinese-speaking researchers also make great efforts to construct professional corpora. In Taiwan, the best known corpora are established and maintained by the state-run Academia Sinica, the members of which have constructed corpora for ancient Chinese, modern Chinese and regional dialects. Besides, some universities have also set up corpora, such as the National Taiwan University’s Corpus of Formosan Languages and the National Chung Cheng University’s Taiwan Child
Language Corpus. In China, the first computer-based corpus was the Modern Chinese Literature Corpus, released by Wuhan University in 1979 (Feng 2002: 45). In 1991, the State Language Work Committee launched a project to construct the Chinese National Corpus in an attempt to promote linguistic research in Chinese. Since then, large-scale corpora have been established by several Chinese Universities; for example, Beijing University (Tagged Modern Chinese Corpus), the City University of Hong Kong (Corpus for Linguistic variety in Chinese Communities) and the Institute of Linguistics Chinese Academy of Social Science (Spoken Chinese Corpus).

The preceding paragraphs briefly described the establishment of corpora in the USA, the UK, Taiwan and China. Given the fact that these corpora were built by linguists, it is not difficult to note that they are mainly applied in linguistic studies. However, translation researchers can still conduct analyses on the basis of these corpora, mainly adopting them for comparison analyses. However, some corpora are also constructed especially for translation studies. The database of these corpora is created and used for two major kinds of comparisons, namely, translated texts vs. non-translated texts and source texts vs. target texts.

What is worth mentioning is that corpora were not seen to be used in the domain of translation studies until the 1990s. The reason for this thirty-year delay is twofold: 1) at that time, linguists over-emphasised language forms and ignored their socio-cultural background, and 2) traditional corpus linguists believed that languages used in translations were different from normal languages (Liao 2000, qtd. in Xu & Mu 2009: 347). Nevertheless, in 1993, Mona Baker pioneered the incorporation of corpora into translation studies in her seminal article, “Corpus linguistics and translation studies: Implications and applications”. Based on the findings of former scholars’ studies (Blum-Kulka 1986; Shleisinger 1991; Vanderauwera 1985), she proposed six translation universals, which included: 1) explicitation; 2) simplification
or disambiguation; 3) normalization or conservatism; 4) avoidance of repetitions; 5) exaggeration, and 6) in translated texts, certain features that occur much more frequently in translated texts than in non-translated texts (1993: 243-245). In addition to producing academic papers relevant to the application of corpora, Baker also led the construction of the Translational English Corpus (TEC), which was the first corpus of its kind in the world. Following Baker, numerous researchers have conducted translation research with the application of corpora, e.g. Wallace Chen’s analysing explicitation in translated Chinese (2006), Min-Hsiu Liao’s study of interaction in English and Chinese popular science writings (2008), Ting-hui Wen’s researching simplification in modern Chinese translated mystery fiction in Taiwan (2009) and article contributions in books such as From the Colt’s Mouth-- and Others: Language Corpora Studies: In Honour of Anna-Brita Stenström (edited by Leiv Egil Breivik and Angela Hasselgren in 2002), Translation Universals: Do they Exist? (edited by Anna Mauranen and Pekka Kujamäki in 2004), and Using Corpora in Contrastive and Translation Studies (edited by Richard Xiao in 2010).

This section has touched upon the establishment of corpora in linguistics and the combination of corpora and translation studies. In summary, the application of corpora in translation studies can be divided into two major categories: translated texts vs. non-translated texts and source texts vs. target texts. The focus of my research is not on the former, but on the latter, i.e. a parallel corpus is used. Meanwhile, Chinese empty words are taken as research subjects due to their said-to-be ambiguous meaning (to be discussed in the following sections). It is expected that the patterns according to which translators translate these empty words can be analysed and categorised.

The reason why I intend to investigate the translation of empty words with the help of a corpus is that it can save me a great deal of time. As mentioned in the
beginning of Section 2.2, corpus research takes advantage of computers’ capacity to save huge amounts of data and enable “fast, accurate, and complex analyses” (Biber, Conrad & Reppen 2002: 233). Therefore, I consider a corpus to be an ideal tool to achieve my aim of examining all empty words at a time, which has never been done before. There are hundreds of Chinese empty words (see Section 2.3.2 for detailed discussion), and since I will collect twenty examples from each word, it can be estimated that a great deal of data will be gathered. In this situation, a corpus will greatly facilitate my research progress. One additional thing to mention is that, to my knowledge, this is the first corpus-based study in this area, so the research results will make an original contribution to this field of study.

2.3 Explaining Chinese Characters and Chinese Empty Words

Since this thesis relates to the translation procedures adopted in the English translation of Chinese empty words, it is necessary to provide non-Chinese readers with the basic knowledge of Chinese characters and empty words.

2.3.1 What are Chinese characters?

First seen on turtle shells and animal bones, the birth of Chinese characters dates back to at least the 14\textsuperscript{th} century B.C. Throughout around 3500 years of development, the Chinese writing system has become systematic and sound. Moreover, this system has kept growing as time has gone by. \textit{Shuowen Jiezi}, a book explaining Chinese characters published in the 1\textsuperscript{st} century A.D., contained a total of 9353 characters. Then, the Kangxi Dictionary, which was a standard Chinese dictionary published in 1716, contained 47,043 Chinese characters. Lastly, according to Xu, the number of Chinese characters reached around 60,000 by the year 1990. The possible reason for the increase in the total number of characters is twofold: 1) living languages change
with time and the arrival of new cultures, so more and more Chinese characters are being created to denote new things; 2) experts’ efforts in collecting and recording Chinese characters have accumulated over time and so the number keeps increasing. Despite the fact that the number of Chinese characters keeps increasing, they always fall within six categories according to the way they are created: 1) 象形 (xiangxing: imitative drafts\(^6\) or pictographs) – rough sketches to represent the object; 2) 指事 (zhishi: indicative symbols or ideographs) – figures that suggest the meaning; 3) 會意 (hueiyi: logical aggregates) – combinations of two or more simpler characters to convey combined meaning of all those characters; 4) 形聲 (xingsheng: phonetic complexes) – combinations of two or more simpler characters. Among these simpler characters, only one represents the meaning of this 形聲 character, and the others relate to the pronunciation of that character; 5) 轉注 (zhuanzhu: mutually explanatory characters) – synonymous characters are adopted as explanations to each other, and 6) 假借 (jiajie: borrowing) – use of a character in a sense which is not its original meaning, this happens owing to either error or convention.

In Chinese, the smallest meaningful unit in the writing system is a 字 (zi: character), and when one or more characters are put together, a 詞 (ci: word) is created. The relationship between 字 and 詞 in Chinese is similar to that between a morpheme and a word in English. A morpheme is the smallest linguistic unit which has a semantic meaning, while a word is created by one single morpheme or a combination of two or more morphemes. In English, there are unbound morphemes (or free morphemes) and bound ones. The former are those which can stand as independent words (e.g. cat), while the latter consist of morphemes which are added to independent words (e.g. “un”easy and dog“She”). In Chinese, bound and unbound

\(^6\) Translations of the six categories and their definitions are based on Wieger’s book *Chinese Characters* (1965: 10-12).
morphemes are also seen, and Chinese morphemes can be bound or unbound according to situations. For example, 木 (mu) is a bound morpheme when it is adopted to signify 樹“木” (tree), whereas it is a free morpheme when it is adopted to indicate the feeling of numbness (我的舌頭木了 → my tongue is numb.) (more discussion can be seen in Packard (2004: 67-76). This phenomenon can also be found in English. For example, “cat” itself is a free morpheme (i.e. as an independent lexical item), but it becomes a bound morpheme in the term “catgut” (i.e. as a constituent of a compound word).

Although the Chinese writing system is based on characters, I do not call my research subjects empty characters; instead, I refer to them as empty words. The reason is twofold: 1) all the former theorists whose publications were consulted (Hong (2007), Huang (2008), Kuo (2006), Pollard (2001), Wang (1994 & 2003), Wong (2001), Zan et al. (2007)) use word(s) instead of character(s) although some call them empty words and others call them function words; 2) Wang Huan has compiled an empty words list, which is going to be taken as the basis for this research. In the list, 595 items are composed of two or more characters, while 341 items are single characters. Due to the greater amount of the former, word is adopted as the unit, but, in this case, it covers both single-character items and plural-character ones. What is also worth mentioning is that, I avoid using “Chinese function words” because this term reminds readers of the function words in English, which are different from the words in this discussion.

2.3.2 What are Empty Words?

In English, words fall into two categories: function words, which possess purely grammatical functions, and content words, which have statable lexical meaning. Similarly, there are also two kinds of words in Chinese: solid (or substantive) words
and empty words. As scholars define them, solid words have a clear and substantive meaning, e.g. 虎 (hu: tiger), 漂亮 (piaoliang: beautiful), 太陽 (taiyang: sun) and 跑 (pao: run). On the contrary, the meaning of empty words is not always easy to capture. Although there are still empty words with a clear meaning (e.g. adverbs and prepositions and interjections), there are others which either convey different ideas in different contexts or only function as modal words to constitute certain tones. For instance, when 給 (gei) is used as an empty word, it does not possess the full lexical meaning of “give”. Instead, it either means “for” or acts as a tone reinforcer. For example, 給他拿些吃的 (gei ta na xie chi de) means “Get some food for him”, while 你給我閉嘴 (ni gei wo bi zui) means “You, shut up!”. 給 means “for” in the first example, but, according to the Online Dictionary compiled by Taiwan’s Ministry of Education (http://dict.revised.moe.edu.tw/), it functions as a tone reinforcer in the second one to indicate that “I really want you to shut up”. The two examples clearly manifest that the meaning of such an empty word can only be ascertained when it is read within the context. This responds to Wilss’ comment:

“The use of a word may be complex because it has a variety of meanings (e.g. “balls”), or a large collocational range (e.g. development), or because it permits connotational extensions, depending on which salient features of a word or a phrase constitute the focal point of attention (e.g. “snail” in the English, French, and German cultural setting; in English, snails move slowly, in France, they are a delicacy, in German, they are slimy creatures)”

(1996: 108)

Wilss’ description indicates that contexts are important for us to determine the meaning of a word, and the importance of contexts is even greater in the case of empty words, because the meaning of many empty words greatly depends on their neighbouring words.
To clearly define Chinese empty words, Ma (2004) speaks of four functions fulfilled by such words in his publication, *Research Methodology on Modern Chinese Empty Words* (2004). Firstly, empty words help clarify the relationship between solid words. For example:

A. 木頭和桌子都搬走了。 (Wood and tables were all moved.)  
B. 木頭的桌子都搬走了。 (Wooden tables were all moved.)

The empty word in Sentence A is “和” (*han* or *he*), which means “and”, while the empty word in Sentence B is “的” (*de*), which is a possessive like “of”. In the translations, the empty words are bold-marked (“and” and “-en”), and it can be clearly seen that a change in the empty word will completely alter the relationship between the two solid words. In the first sentence, wood and tables are two separate items, whereas wood becomes an adjective which qualifies tables in the second sentence.

Secondly, empty words help add certain grammatical meaning to solid words. For example:

A. 他拿過兩個蘋果。 (He took two apples.)  
B. 他拿著兩個蘋果。 (He is holding two apples.)

The empty word in Sentence A is “過” (*guo*), which is used to form the past tense, while the empty word in Sentence B is “著” (*zhe*), which is used to convey the idea that the action is ongoing. Collocating with these two empty words, the verb “拿” (*na*) conveys two different ideas.

Thirdly, empty words help change the ideas behind solid words. For example:

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1 Because I am from Taiwan, the pronunciation is based on Taiwanese Mandarin.
A. 吃 (to eat)
B. 吃的 (something edible; food)

Ma explains this function with the empty word “的” (de). Here, 的 is a particle which converts the verb “吃” (chī) into a noun.

Lastly, empty words help convey certain tones. For example:

A. 今天一定會下雨。 (It will surely rain today.)
B. 今天也許會下雨。 (It may rain today.)

The existence of 一定 (yi ding) in the first sentence constitutes a tone of affirmation, while 也許 (ye xu), in the second sentence, makes the statement a conjecture.

According to Ma, words which possess one of the above-mentioned four functions should be deemed as empty words, and it can be seen from the examples that such words usually do not contain a full lexical meaning themselves.

Bao (1988: 356) and the Center for Research on Chinese Folklore and Ancient Writing at Beijing Normal University stress that solid words can constitute complete sentences, whereas empty words cannot but be used as connectives or tone reinforcers, depending on the solid words with which they collocate. To exemplify, I create two sentences:

A: 陽明山景色優美。 (Yangming Mount’s scenery is beautiful.)
B: 老實說，必定看起來很。 (Honestly, for sure it looks very.)

Sentence A consists of solid words only, and it is grammatically correct and meaningful. Sentence B, however, does not give us any idea, but is simply a meaningless cluster of empty words. This is because empty words are
supplementary/tone-reinforcing words; they lose their meaning of existence in the absence of solid words, i.e. the words being supplemented or reinforced.

Despite the fact that empty words alone cannot constitute sentences, they are never less important than solid words (Ma 1985: 1; Ma 2004: 5; Zan, Zhang, Chai & Yu 2007: 107). In Chinese, sentences consisting of only solid words are not common, and empty words exist in most sentences. Sometimes, there are even sentences in which empty words cannot be omitted. There is a good example of this in Xiandai Hanyu Xuci Jiexi Cidian (Bao 1988: 358).

他寫的信 (the letter he wrote)
他寫了信 (he wrote a letter)
他寫著信 (he is writing a letter)
他不寫信 (he does not write the letter)
他寫過信 (he wrote a letter)
給他寫信 (write a letter to him)

The six empty words in the six sentences are indispensable because they give these sentences different meanings (the meanings of these six examples are not totally mutually different because the second and the fifth empty word bring a similar idea). If they are removed, these sentences will all become 他寫信 (he writes a letter), which convey a dissimilar idea from the original ones. The role of the existence of empty words is, hence, established. Also, readers will not be able to comprehend a sentence if they fail to grasp the empty word(s) in it.

Since empty words possess a certain importance in Chinese sentences, numerous scholars have conducted relevant analyses. Modern Chinese prevailed with the May Fourth Movement, which took place in 1919 and became a watershed for empty words research (Zan, Zhang, Chai & Yu 2007: 108). Before this movement, classical Chinese was the major form used by Chinese intellectuals, so it was the sole valid
object of research. Guo (2003: 49) points out that studies of empty words in classical Chinese dates back to the time before the Qin Dynasty (221 B.C.–207 B.C.). From that period of time to the Song Dynasty (960 A.D.–1279 A.D.), empty words are discussed in many books and articles, but are not explored as major subjects. Since the Yuan Dynasty (1279A.D.—1368A.D.), scholars began to pay special attention to empty words, and this trend culminated in the Qing Dynasty (1683A.D.—1895A.D.). Following the collapse of the Qing Empire, there were many revolutions and reforms in China in several aspects, one of which was the replacement of classical Chinese with modern Chinese as the major communication method. At the same time, such a change aroused scholars’ interest in probing into the definitions and use of empty words in modern Chinese. Thus, from the May Fourth Movement onward, classical Chinese and modern Chinese both became the objects of research for studies of empty words. Moreover, the steep rise in international interaction in recent decades has greatly increased activities of translating and interpreting. Under such circumstances, some scholars have conducted analyses on the translation of empty words (mainly in modern Chinese texts) into different languages in an effort to study empty words from a new perspective and provide translators with solutions or suggestions when translating empty words. Since the investigation into modern Chinese empty word translations is the main issue in this thesis, this will be discussed in Section 2.3.3.

Although the difference in nature between solid words and empty words is widely recognised, small dissimilarities can be noticed between theorists’ ideas on the categorisation of empty words. In terms of empty words in classical Chinese, prepositions, particles, conjunctions and interjections are always counted as empty words, while onomatopoeia, adverbs and auxiliary verbs are regarded as the same kind by some scholars (Kuo 2006: 8-9).
As for empty words in modern Chinese, Bao (1988) classifies solid words into nouns, verbs, adjectives, numerals, measure words, and pronouns, but Wong (2001: 209) adds auxiliary verbs to this category. Additionally, in Bao’s opinion, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, particles, and interjections belong to empty words. Yet, apart from these five word classes, Ma (2004) adds modal words, Wong adds onomatopoeia and Wang (1994) adds compounds and structures. Basically, scholars agree on the greater part of the categorisation and possess dissimilar ideas on a small part of it, i.e. the addition/omission of onomatopoeia, compounds (i.e. set combinations, mostly made up of three characters), and structures (usually made up of two characters with a certain character or phrase inserted between them, or after either of them). The differences in this small part are caused by the differences in theorists’ viewpoints, and there is no absolute right or wrong. In addition, although the meaning of adverbs is not so elusive, they are still regarded as empty words by many scholars (e.g. Bao, Ma, Wang and Wong). To Ma, adverbs are also empty words because they can fulfil the four functions which were discussed several paragraphs back. Besides, Wang points out the difference between Chinese adverbs and English adverbs:

Not every word which can function as an adverbial is necessarily an adverb. Serving as an adverbial is also one of the grammatical functions of a Chinese adjective. Thus, although 偶然 [ouran: “occasional, accidental”] and 偶爾 [ouver: “sometimes”] are similar in meaning, 偶然, because it can serve as an adverbial or as an attributive, is an adjective; while 偶爾, since it can only serve as an adverbial, is an adverb.

(1994: 2)

From Wang's explanation, we know that Chinese adverbs are words which can only function as in an adverbial sense, and there are Chinese adjectives which can be used
as both adverbials and attributives. Therefore, identifying an adverb in Chinese requires some effort in determining how many functions the word possesses.

In my research, Wang’s empty words list is adopted as the basis of this research because I considered it to be a more suitable reference between the two lists which I obtained before conducting the analysis of my corpus data. The other list is compiled by Wong (2008), and this list is not as ideal as Wang’s because Wong does not explain the word class of each empty word. If I chose Wong’s list, I would have had to spend extra time seeking such information in order to analyse the frequency of use of translation procedures in different word classes. Having considered the time it would have taken to construct a corpus and analyse the data, I determined to adopt Wang’s list. Meanwhile, because Wang’s list is taken as the basis, the empty words being examined in this thesis are classified according to his categorisation, which includes adverbs, conjunctions, prepositions, particles, interjection, compounds and structures.

Unlike solid words which are innumerable, the number of empty words is strictly limited. According to Ma (2004: 5), Shi (2010: 59) and Wong (2001: 210), there are approximately seven hundred empty words in modern Chinese. As for Wang’s compilation (1994: 9-25), there are 930-940 empty words\(^8\); this number is obtained by roughly calculating the number of empty words in his list. In such a small amount of empty words, four features can be identified:

1) most empty words convey ambiguous ideas;
2) most empty words can constitute sentences only when they are combined with solid words;
3) except for interjections, most empty words cannot be taken as an answer to a question;

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\(^8\) The different numbers in Ma’s, Shi’s, Wong’s and Wang’s publications come from these scholars’ different ideas about the small part of the categorisation, as mentioned in the previous paragraph.
4) the same empty word should not occur twice in a row in a sentence. (it makes the sentence meaningless and confusing)

(Bao 1988: 356-357)

The first of these four features is the most notable. Some empty words are so ambiguous and elusive that it is difficult to determine their exact meaning out of the context. Take the particle 左右 (zuoyou: around; beside) for instance:

A: 現在是下午五點左右。 (It is around 5 pm.)
B: 我想與他常伴左右。 (I want to be with him forever.)

In sentence A, 左右 stands for the idea of approximation, whereas it signifies the idea of being together in sentence B. Moreover, 左右 means control/influence when it is taken as a verb. This example demonstrates the ambiguity of empty words and the importance of the context. Because of this feature, translators face a higher degree of difficulty when translating empty words than tackling solid words. In this research, I would like to examine how great the degree of difficulty is in dealing with empty words. Nevertheless, before doing this, former scholars’ ideas about empty word translation need to be discussed.

2.3.3 Translating Empty Words and Empty Word Translation Research

As indispensable components of Chinese sentences, the use frequency of empty words is very high in Chinese texts. However, unlike solid words which are easier to translate due to their relatively fixed/clear meaning, empty words, according to former theorists, can only be disambiguated when they are read within the context. Moreover, if the empty words are ambiguous, translators will need more time to determine the meaning and find their correspondents in English. Therefore, translating empty words
is a relatively thorny task, and the degree of difficulty encountered in this respect will be investigated in this research.

One of the former scholars who have discussed the difficulty in translating empty words is David Pollard. In 2001, Pollard published an article which discussed the translation of modal adverbs, which belong to the category of empty words. As he defines them, modal adverbs are adopted "to convey the speaker’s or writer’s comment on what he is saying – for instance to express concession, reservation, confidence – or to anticipate a reaction from the listener or reader” (p. 216). For example:

我可不要他遲到。 (I WOULDN’T want him to be late.)

According to Pollard, the empty word 可 (ke) does not mean “but” or “approve” but functions as a tone reinforcer which “adds a colouring” to this statement. Therefore, it is wrong to translate this empty word with “but” or “to approve”. In English, there is no correspondent, so a possible solution is to use “WOULDN’T”. By capitalising it, a reinforced tone can be constituted. All in all, it is hard to translate some empty words because they are ambiguous in meaning and may not always have obvious equivalents in the target language, but translators use various methods to overcome any difficulties they face.

In addition to Pollard, several scholars also examined the English translation of Chinese empty words from different perspectives. For example, Wong (2001) illustrates the nature of empty words and suggests that translators make a thorough study of empty words and Chinese grammar in an attempt to translate these words well. Hong (2007), based on the concept that empty words are those without a fixed meaning, discusses the meanings and translations of the empty word 呢 (ne: a word
which signifies the tone of questioning or functions as a tone reinforcer). She lists the meanings for which *ne* stands and tries to determine a suitable translation for each meaning. Furthermore, the relevance theory is also mentioned in Hung’s article, in which Hung stresses that the existence of *ne* can make a sentence more relevant to the dialogue.

In addition to academic papers, scholars have also produced books and dictionaries about empty word translation, such as *Xin bian Han Ying Xu Ci Ci Dian: A new Chinese-English Dictionary of Function words* (Wang 2003, an older version was released in 1994) and *Chinese-English: A Translation Handbook of Function words* (Wong 2008). Both of these two books compile a list of empty words and show readers how to translate them.

To sum up, several scholars have contributed their ideas to the study of Chinese empty word translation from two major perspectives: the nature of empty words and the way to translate some of them. Nevertheless, the papers and books published so far only focus on either general discussions and definitions of empty words or the translation of some empty words. As yet, no study has examined all empty words at a time to identify the features of empty word translation. Thus, my study aims to conduct research from this perspective and expects to shed new light on the study of empty word translation. For example, are all empty words difficult to translate? How do translators tackle different empty words? These two questions will be answered by the end of this thesis.
Chapter 3 Aims and Methodology

3.1 Research Aims

This research aims to analyse the ways in which all Chinese empty words are translated and to identify the translation procedures being adopted. This task is undertaken on the basis of a specially constructed Chinese-English parallel corpus. Furthermore, the frequency of use of different translation procedures among different empty word classes is also examined in an attempt to discover if the most-adopted procedures are different in different word classes. To sum up, it is hoped that the research in this thesis will be able to answer the four following research questions:

1. What are the translation procedures for translating Chinese empty words into English?
2. How is the frequency of use of translation procedures distributed in the seven empty word classes?
3. Is the most-/least-adopted procedure different between different word classes?
4. What phenomena that are worth discussing can we identify from the research results? For example, are Chinese empty words really difficult to tackle?

3.2 Research Materials

“Since translation strategies and choices at all linguistic levels are all highly sensitive to the particular conjunction of genre and subject matter realized in a given source text, it follows that if a corpus is to adequately serve any such purpose, it cannot simply be compiled from a random collection of data. Rather it needs to be designed as a representative and balanced sample of the data that exists (it is rarely possible to build a corpus that includes everything). If, for example, the goal is to create an MT system for pharmaceutical texts, then the selection of data for the corpus must represent that domain and not the domain of chemistry. Moreover, it must strike a balance between the various types of
text that talk about pharmaceuticals – patient information leaflets, research papers, etc. – and between data from the various major manufacturers”

(Hartley 2009: 110)

As Hartley points out, the content of the corpora should be relevant to the research domain. If corpora are created with content which is not representative of the study, the analysis results will not be meaningful and convincing.

In order to try to identify all the translation procedures for translating Chinese empty words, a huge database is created (so that the possibility of some procedures being neglected is reduced to a minimum level). The first task to be accomplished is to gain access to a great number of Chinese texts. Furthermore, corresponding translations of these Chinese texts are required in order to discern the procedures adopted to translate empty words in the texts. In addition, the number of translators is also crucial. After all, different translators may use dissimilar translation procedures; thus, taking translations from only one or two translators, and merely analysing the empty word translations in them, will not be sufficiently representative. As a result, the translation works chosen by this research should be produced by many different translators. In order to meet the preceding requirements, translations in Renditions, a Chinese-English translation journal, are adopted as the research materials. The whole corpus consists of sixty two English texts collected from the first sixty three issues of Renditions (later issues are not included due to limited access at the time the data was being collected) and sixty two of their source texts. In total, the Chinese part contains 493,929 characters, and the English part contains 371,862 words.

First published in 1973 by the Research Centre for Translation of the Chinese University of Hong Kong, Renditions has been in circulation for thirty eight years with a great number of translation publications, covering Chinese poems, drama, prose, fiction and literary reviews in either classical or modern Chinese. As a
renowned journal with a wide circulation, *Renditions* receives numerous contributions from a great number of translators. In order to select quality contributions, the Research Centre has established a professional stylesheet, which can be seen on its website\(^9\). Contributions should be in British spelling and punctuation, and the house style is based on New Hart's Rules (2005), the Chicago Manual of Style (2003), and the New Oxford Dictionary for Writers and Editors (2005)\(^{10}\). Initially, contributions are evaluated by anonymous academic reviewers with translation experience, who may offer suggestions to qualified contributors for a first revision. Subsequently, revised contributions are further checked and edited by experienced editors in the Research Centre\(^{11}\), and new suggestions are given for a second revision. After contributions have been revised for the second time, they are rechecked by the same editors before being published in the journal. Such a strict schedule ensures that the English translations in *Renditions* are of a very high quality, which is the first reason why this journal is chosen. The second reason is that, for the past thirty nine years, *Renditions* has received contributions from many translators, and this large number of translators is also a criterion this research attempts to meet.

Having made the decision to choose the translations in *Renditions* as the research materials, we need to further specify the text genres to include in the study. In this research, translations of prose, drama, fiction and literary reviews written in modern Chinese are selected as the research materials. For the reason that poems touch upon form, rhythm, style, elegance, meter, etc, if they were taken into the research, these elements would become variables. All of these poetic elements are important concerns that translators must not ignore when translating; hence they have an influence on their translation strategies and, further, on procedures. Nevertheless,

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\(^9\) [http://www.renditions.org/renditions/guidelines.html](http://www.renditions.org/renditions/guidelines.html)

\(^{10}\) A detailed description can be seen on [http://www.cuhk.edu.hk/rct/renditions/guideline.html#style](http://www.cuhk.edu.hk/rct/renditions/guideline.html#style)

\(^{11}\) A list of editors can be accessed on [http://www.cuhk.edu.hk/rct/renditions/editorial.html](http://www.cuhk.edu.hk/rct/renditions/editorial.html)
these elements do not play a significant role in translations of other genres, which means that translators of poems and those of other genres have dissimilar concerns when they want to choose suitable translation procedures. Therefore, poetry translations are ruled out of this research in order to reduce complications as much as possible.

In addition, translations of classical Chinese texts are also eliminated because the empty words list taken as reference in this research is a list for modern Chinese empty words. Since the modern Chinese empty words list is to a great degree different from a classical Chinese empty words list, it is more appropriate to rule out classical Chinese texts.

The last point to mention is the background of the translators. Chinese-speaking translators generally have a better understanding of Chinese as a language, whereas those whose mother tongue is not Chinese may not possess the same level of comprehension. In this situation, there is a difference in the ability of the two groups of translators to comprehend and to produce, which will also complicate the research. In order to avoid this, the focus should only be on one group of translators. Therefore, in this thesis, only those whose mother tongue is English are chosen, and translations contributed by Chinese-speaking translators are excluded. However, I must confess that obtaining every translator’s personal information is a very difficult task. In order to distinguish translators' mother tongues, I tried to gain access to every translator’s background information from the internet or by seeking help from the Research Centre for Translation of the Chinese University. However, in spite of my efforts, the information obtained was not complete. Despite this, the research must carry on, and therefore, the broad assumption is made that translators whose names are Chinese speak Chinese as their mother tongue, and those whose names are western speak English as their mother tongue. Although this categorisation is approximate, it is
taken as a tentative solution. In the future, it is expected that other researchers or I could devise a way to overcome this limitation.

Based on the above-mentioned discussions, translations selected as research materials in this research have to meet all of the following three criteria: 1) belong to the genres of prose, drama, fiction or literary review; 2) have modern Chinese as their source texts; 3) are dealt with by translators whose mother tongue is English. After screening translations in the first sixty three volumes of *Renditions*, sixty two texts are selected because they conform to these criteria.

3.3 Constructing the Research Corpus

Having collected the research materials, I began to construct a corpus for this research. To begin with, all the suitable translations were scanned into PDF images, after which the source texts of these translations were collected either from the internet or from libraries. Furthermore, those sourced from libraries were also scanned into PDF images, and subsequently, these images were further converted into WORD documents through ABBYY FineReader, a piece of optical character recognition software which enables users convert PDF images for editing in Word, Excel, PowerPoint, etc.

Having completed the conversion task, the converted texts were manually checked for errors, and, after correcting the errors, the texts were compiled into ParaConc, which is parallel corpus software specifically used for comparing and analysing source texts and their translations.

The last step was to align every source text to its corresponding counterpart paragraph by paragraph on the platform of ParaConc. This was done to facilitate convenient empty words search. If the source texts and the target texts were not aligned, it would be very inconvenient to read certain parts of the translation and the
corresponding source text at the same time. Alignment is a way to facilitate the analysis. Having completed all the tasks, the research corpus was successfully established and empty words search was conducted.

Before ending this section, I would like to show the interface of ParaConc and demonstrate the way to operate it. Figure 3-1 shows the interface of ParaConc. After loading the source texts and the target texts, clicking the “Search” button on the top of ParaConc interface and choosing “Search” again produces a bar in which we can enter the word that we want to search. For example, I entered “的” into the bar, and then clicked “OK”. In a second, the search results were displayed on the screen.

![Figure 3-1 Interface of ParaConc with Search Results Displayed](image)

12 Sometimes, some Chinese characters become unrecognisable on ParaConc. It is due to some technical problem. When clicking open the document, you will see unrecognisable characters become recognisable. Besides, I did alignment paragraph by paragraph, and this is the reason why the column of the English translations sees so many repetitions. For example, from the second to the sixth, they are from the same paragraph, so we see the same paragraph in the bottom column. When clicking open the document of the target translation, you will be able to search corresponding parts.
When the results are shown, the layout of ParaConc becomes such that the source texts are displayed on the upper half of the screen, while their corresponding translations are shown on the lower half. When clicking on a sentence, that row will be marked in blue, and its corresponding translation will be marked in light grey at the same time. Besides, the keyword searched (in this case, “的”) will be placed in the centre and be marked in blue (in yellow when the row is highlighted in blue). Meanwhile, the neighbouring words of the keywords are also marked in different colours. This is to help researchers conduct analysis work which is related to the words close to keywords.

3.4 Research Methodology

As described in Section 2.3.2, the categorisation of Chinese empty words sees a similarity in the great part and dissimilarities in the small part. Because the empty words list compiled by Wang (1994) is taken in the research as the reference for empty words search, the categorisation in Wang’s dictionary is adopted as the standard. Therefore, in this research, empty words are divided into seven classes: 1) adverbs; 2) conjunctions; 3) prepositions; 4) particles; 5) interjection; 6) compounds; 7) structures.

After having access to an empty words list and adopting it as the search reference of this research, the search and compilation task could be undertaken. Initially, every empty word was searched on the ParaConc-run corpus, and corresponding examples in all search results were recorded in analysis tables as research examples. What needs to be pointed out here is that: 1) the total number of

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13 Two empty words lists were obtained before commencing my analysis: Wang’s list (1994) and Wong’s list (2008). Wang’s list was chosen because he explains the word class of each empty word in his book, which helps save my time in seeking such information.
examples from all empty words is tens of thousands, which is an overwhelming number for a single researcher; 2) the search results for every empty word are different; some may contain more than one hundred examples, while some contain fewer than fifty. These two concerns needed to be overcome beforehand. Because my research aimed to identify translation procedures for empty words as a whole, plus that I worked alone and did not have enough time to examine every example or to calculate the number of examples to be selected for each empty word, I needed to find a way to make my research workable within a four-year timeframe. In the end, I set that twenty was the maximum number for collecting examples of every empty word (even though the total number of entries for some empty words was greater than twenty), and these twenty examples were selected randomly, from which the translation procedures were identified. A random selection of twenty examples is the strategy I adopt to resolve the problem of too much data and insufficient time. Whether or not this solution is ideal will be discussed at the end of this research.

There were seven tables in total due to Wang’s classification of seven empty word categories. In these analysis tables, I listed important information, including Word Class, Text Title & Issue Number, Translator, Source Text, Published Translation, Translation for Comparison and Treatment. Every example was recorded with all the previously-mentioned information. At the end of this chapter, there is Table 3-1, which is an example of an analysis table based on the empty word 不曾 (bu ceng: never).

As can be seen, Table 3-1 tells us the word class of an empty word and the title and issue number of the text in which that empty word is shown. Furthermore, the name of the text translator is also recorded. In the column of source text, the empty word is marked in bold type for easy identification. Meanwhile, the published translation of the source text is placed alongside, and the translation of the empty
The word (if it can be identified) is also marked in bold type. The sixth column contains translations for comparisons which are done by me and are as close to the ST meaning as possible. Lastly, the treatment adopted is put in the last column. One thing to mention here is that the translations in the column of Translation for Comparison were done by me in an attempt to help readers make a comparison between the meaning of the source text and that of the translation. Nevertheless, only examples being discussed in the body text of this thesis are provided with comparison translations. This is because it is an onerous task to give every example a translation for comparison; also, such comparison translations are not needed to conduct analyses.

Having classified the examples into the seven tables, the procedures adopted by translators to tackle these examples were identified. Because my research was on Chinese empty words, I focused on the translation of these words, although the translation of other words was sometimes taken into consideration (e.g. cases of one of the procedures, Implicitation)\(^{14}\).

Having identified procedures for all examples, I further counted the number of examples of each procedure identified in every word category. In this way, the occurrences of all the translation procedures were converted into numbers so that I could calculate their frequency of use and identify the most-adopted and least-adopted procedure. Meanwhile, the use frequency differences may also reveal some other interesting phenomena.

Lastly, Figure 3-2 was created to summarise the research process.

\(^{14}\text{Because I examined empty word translation, my study was word-level-centred. Under this premise, it is likely that translation procedures for larger language units (e.g. clause, sentence, paragraph, etc.) were neglected.}\)
Figure 3-2 Flow Chart of the Research Process

1. Scanning suitable translations from *Renditions*
2. Collecting source texts from online or libraries, and scanning paper-based ones into .pdf images
3. Converting scanned .pdf images into WORD documents through OCR software
4. Checking errors manually
5. Adding texts to ParaConc and aligning them
6. Analysing empty words
7. Identifying translation procedures and categorising examples
8. Comparing procedure use frequency among the seven classes
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word Class</th>
<th>Text Title &amp; Issue Number</th>
<th>Translator</th>
<th>Source Text</th>
<th>Published Translation</th>
<th>Translation for Comparison</th>
<th>Treatment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adverb</td>
<td>Prologue/57</td>
<td>T. M. McClellan</td>
<td>可是有很多梦是人的思想所不曾考想到的…</td>
<td>…many dreams are of things the dreamer has never consciously thought of…</td>
<td>…many dreams are of things the dreamer has <em>never</em> consciously thought of…</td>
<td>Match</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverb</td>
<td>Dream the Seventy Second/57</td>
<td>T. M. McClellan</td>
<td>我们枉说有千年道行，竟是不曾看出…</td>
<td>And there we were saying how many thousands of years we’d spent refining our arts, yet we <em>couldn’t</em> tell the difference…</td>
<td>…yet we have <em>never</em> told the difference…</td>
<td>Mismatch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverb</td>
<td>Dream the Seventy Second/57</td>
<td>T. M. McClellan</td>
<td>所有那些来争取龙涎的鹰，一个不曾跑掉，全上了套头…</td>
<td>Not a single one of those dragon-drool-obsessed vultures escaped my trap…</td>
<td><em>Never</em> has a single one of those dragon-drool-obsessed vultures escaped my trap…</td>
<td>Implicitation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverb</td>
<td>A Strange Case of Nine Murders/62</td>
<td>Douglas Lancashire</td>
<td>…却也不曾遇到过几个…</td>
<td>I have <em>seldom</em> come across anything to equal it…</td>
<td>I have <em>never</em> come across anything to equal it…</td>
<td>Mismatch</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3-1 Extracts from the Adverb Analysis Table
Chapter 4 Discussion

The methodology of this research was elaborated in Chapter 3. A Hong Kong translation journal, *Renditions*, is chosen as the source of the research materials, and the texts included in my research corpus belong to the genres of prose, drama, fiction and literary reviews, and were originally written in modern Chinese and translated by translators whose mother tongue is English. 7581 examples from a corpus constructed on the basis of such specific texts have been recorded in seven tables representing seven different empty word classes: 1) adverbs; 2) conjunctions; 3) prepositions; 4) particles; 5) interjection; 6) compounds; 7) structures. After analysing these examples, nine different treatments, consisting of eight translation procedures and one non-procedure, have been identified. The eight procedures are: 1) Match; 2) Paraphrase; 3) Shared Match; 4) Implicitation; 5) Amplification; 6) Grammatical Conveyance; 7) Borrowing; 8) Omission, while the non-procedure is Mismatch. Mismatch means that the translation deviates from the original, so it cannot be regarded as a “procedure” as such as this term implies a consistent and deliberate pattern of behaviour.

My interest in identifying translation procedures in the English translation of Chinese empty words was triggered when reading the translation procedures proposed by Vinay & Darbelnet (original version written in French in 1958, and English version released in 1995), Nida (1964), Retsker (original work published in 1974 and discussed in English by Fawcett in 1997), Newmark (1988), Malone (1988), Chesterman (1997), Munday (2009), Loh (1958), Liu (2001) and Su (2005). These scholars have presented their ideas of translation procedures, which have been touched upon in the Chapter of Literature Review. Nevertheless, the SL and TL texts

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15 An article discussing the translation procedures identified in this research will be published in *Babel* in 2013.
these scholars adopted for analyses are mostly in European languages. Vinay & Darbelnet focus on English-French translation, Nida investigates the English translation of the Bible written in Hebrew, Aramaic and Greek, Retsker studies English-Russian translation, Newmark’s research materials are mainly texts in German, English and French, Malone includes a number of European languages as examples for different trajectons, Chesterman’s strategies are based on German and English texts and Munday’s V diagram is a compilation of several scholars’ concepts which are created on the basis of texts in European languages, too. Among the references I was able to access, only Loh, Liu and Su based their work on English-Chinese translation. Thus, I consider it to be worthwhile to conduct research in this respect to obtain new findings and shed new light on the study of the procedures adopted for translation between these two languages and, at the same time, seek possible wider implications.

Although my study is done on the basis of these twelve scholars’ concepts, the procedures named in this research are not necessarily the same as theirs. This is because their research objects cover translation at both word-level and sentence-level, whereas my study only focuses on the translation of words. Besides, I have to ensure that my procedures fit my research examples. In the following sections, the identified procedures will be discussed one by one, and those procedures will be compared with those of former scholars in Chapter 5.

4.1 Match

An example is classified into the category of Match when it contains an independent target word(s) which closely corresponds to its source empty word. Table 4-1 contains some examples of this procedure. In this research, because of the disagreements that the much-used term “equivalence” has given rise to, the term
“match” is adopted instead of equivalence. Despite the fact that Vinay & Darbelnet adopt the word “equivalence” as one of their procedures to refer to translations which have completely different stylistic structures from the originals but render the same situation, it is not uncommon for equivalence to remind readers of another broader concept, that is, “the nature and the extent of the relationships which exist between SL and TL texts or smaller linguistic unit” (Shuttleworth & Cowie, 1997: 49). As one of the most debated issues in translation academia, equivalence has been discussed for thousands of years by numerous philosophers, scholars and translators, from the well-known and age-old literal translation vs. free translation, to the recently-proposed intralingual, interlingual and intersemiotic translation (Jakobson, 1959), formal equivalence vs. dynamic equivalence (Nida, 1964), formal correspondence vs. textual equivalence (Catford 1965), Kade’s total, facultative, approximate and zero equivalence (1968), Koller’s (1979) five kinds of equivalence (denotative equivalence, connotative equivalence, text-normative equivalence, pragmatic equivalence, formal-aesthetic equivalence) and the skopos theory by Reiss & Vermeer (1984). Some contemporary theorists even aim to dispense with the concept entirely. So many scholars have tried to define and find ways to achieve equivalence, but their ideas and the paths they have paved are dissimilar. For some, equivalence refers to two words/phrases which are identical, symmetrical and reversible. Nevertheless, because the target texts can never be identical to their source texts, other theorists hold that equivalence is attained as long as the source meaning is rendered and the function is fulfilled. With such a definition, a text will have several different translations which are equivalent in dissimilar ways, and translators will have to choose what they consider to be the best one according to the context (House, 2009: 29-30). Since the debate about equivalence is still ongoing, I avoid this word in my thesis and use the word “match”, which is less controversial.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word Class</th>
<th>Text Title &amp; Issue Number</th>
<th>Translator</th>
<th>Source Text</th>
<th>Published Translation</th>
<th>Translation for Comparison</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Structure</td>
<td>Marx Enters the Confucian Temple/51</td>
<td>Matthew Finbeiner &amp; Timothy Wixted</td>
<td>而這力量的形式起初是以國家為單位…</td>
<td>Moreover, this force will first take the state as its unit…</td>
<td>Moreover, this force will first take the state as its unit…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interjection</td>
<td>Waves Scour the Sands/63</td>
<td>Fran Martin</td>
<td>嘿嘿，那天你怎麼說走就真走…</td>
<td>Hey, how come you ran off so suddenly the other night?</td>
<td>Hey, how come you ran off so suddenly the other night?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preposition</td>
<td>Good morning, Friends/31</td>
<td>Mark Kruger</td>
<td>算命的腦子比電子計算機還快…</td>
<td>The fortune teller’s mind worked faster than a computer…</td>
<td>The fortune teller’s mind worked faster than a computer…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverb</td>
<td>Father’s Last Two Days/38</td>
<td>Harriet Clompus</td>
<td>井上先生終於清清楚楚地領悟了…</td>
<td>Kiyoshi Inoue finally realized…</td>
<td>Kiyoshi Inoue finally realized…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compound</td>
<td>Dream the Fifteenth/61</td>
<td>T. M. McClellan</td>
<td>怪不得你不在乎…</td>
<td>No wonder you treat money lightly…</td>
<td>No wonder you treat money lightly…</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4-1: Examples of Match\(^{16}\)

\(^{16}\) The seventh column, Treatment, is omitted because this is a table in which all examples in this table are from the category of Match.
In Table 4-1, there are five examples, and they are from different empty word categories in an attempt to create diversity. In the following sections when discussing other procedures, five examples selected from different empty word categories will also be introduced. What also needs to be stressed is that the five examples I selected in each section are those which I considered to be worth discussing because they represent certain kinds of situations.

As can be seen, the translations of the five empty words achieve a very high level of correspondence. Moreover, it could even be said that the translations of the first three examples match their source counterparts in both lexical level and textual level. 嘿 (hei: hey) and its translation “hey” are a very close match. Both of them are interjections to attract other people’s attention and are usually found at the beginning of a sentence. What is more, they are also pronounced in the same way. Such a close match is rare in English-Chinese translation.

In addition to the closely matching example, there are also examples in which the source empty words and their translations are almost the same, and the first and third examples belong to this kind. Although the word classes of 以...為…(yi...wei...) take…as…) and 比 (bi: than) are not totally the same as their translations, they (both source empty words and translations) are put in a similar place in a sentence, are close in meaning and fulfil the same function. Hence, they are also classified into the category of Match.

As for the last two examples, they are still counted as belonging to the category of Match because they convey the same meaning and fulfil the same function. 終於 (zhong yu: finally) gives the idea that someone has spent a great deal of effort and time and, in the end, found the answer to a question or gained whatever he/she wanted. “Finally”, in English, has the same implication, so this is classified as an example of Match. With regard to the last example, the empty word 怪不得 (guai bu de: no
wonder) is synonymous to another Chinese word 難怪 (nan guai: no wonder), and it is common to think of 難怪 when seeing 怪不得. Thus, the two words are always treated in the same way by English translators. Meanwhile, 難怪 is always translated as “no wonder” because this English phrase is the most common among all English words/phrases which have the same meaning as 難怪. It could even be said that it is a pattern for Chinese-English translators to replace 難怪 with “no wonder”. Under such circumstances, translators tend to connect 怪不得 with 難怪 and then convert it into “no wonder”. This is why this example is counted as Match.

From the five examples, it can be noted that examples that are regarded as using the procedure of Match are those which:

1. retain the lexical form;
2. convey a meaning very close to that of the original;
3. fulfil a function very similar to that of the original.

The first criterion means that an ST and its TT share the same lexical form, e.g. both the Chinese empty word 嘿 (hei) and its English counterpart, “hey”, are composed of just one word, are exclamations and are always put at the beginning of a sentence.

The second criterion refers to a situation in which the meaning of the ST and that of the TT are very close. Here, meaning refers to the message the source text expresses. For instance, the Chinese empty word 雖然 (sui ran) means “although”, so it can be said to have a very close meaning as “although”. Lastly, a correspondent of an ST should always fulfil a function which is very similar to that of the original. Here, function signifies the purpose/reaction that the source text aims to attain/arouse. For example, both 嘿 and “hey” are used to attract listeners’ attention. If these three criteria are all met, the TT very closely matches its ST. Nevertheless, due to the fact that Chinese is very different from English, it is difficult to meet the first criterion.
Thus, in my research, I define that match between Chinese empty words and their English translations refers to cases in which at least the second and third criteria are met.

4.2 Paraphrase

If a translator chooses to translate a source empty word in a different way without producing an extremely dissimilar (or even wrong) meaning and altering the function, this is counted as an example of Paraphrase. Five examples are listed in Table 4-2, from which it can be noted that, although the translations are not matches of the source empty words, the meanings and functions of these words are partially retained.

In the first example in Table 4-2, the empty word 不必 (bu bi: no need) means that it is not necessary to do something, while its translation “do not” only suggests that you stop doing something. If we translate “do not” back into Chinese, it will not be 不必, but 不要 (bu yao: do not want). Nevertheless, although the idea of there being “no need to do something” is not brought into the target text, that of asking those who have died in an untimely manner not to wail is still rendered. This example is, hence, regarded as an example of Paraphrase.

The empty word 那麼 (na me: they are two modal words without a clear meaning) is to connect a cause and effect, so it is a connective. One of the best translations of 那麼 is “then”, and “then” is actually the most common translation of this empty word. In this example, however, “well” is adopted as its translation. According to the Shorter Oxford English Dictionary (2007), “well” is an interjection which is used to “express the resumption or continuation of talk” (p. 3606). It can be seen from this definition that “well” does not render the meaning of 那麼, but it fulfils the function of connecting the preceding and following sentences by its implication
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word Class</th>
<th>Text Title &amp; Issue Number</th>
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<th>Source Text</th>
<th>Published Translation</th>
<th>Translation for Comparison</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adverb</td>
<td>Dream the Seventy Second/57</td>
<td>T. M. McClellan</td>
<td>各冤魂不必不必不必悲号...</td>
<td>Do not wail so mournfully, you who have untimely died.</td>
<td>No need to wail so mournfully, you who have untimely died.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conjunction</td>
<td>Good Morning, Friends/31</td>
<td>Mark Kruger</td>
<td>那麼，這是一個農民了？</td>
<td>Well, was he a peasant?</td>
<td>Then, was he a peasant?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compound</td>
<td>Marx Enters the Confucian Temple/51</td>
<td>Matthew Finbeiner &amp; Timothy Wixted</td>
<td>不得不先說明我思想的出發點...</td>
<td>I must first explain the starting point for my thought...</td>
<td>I have no choice but to first explain the starting point for my thought...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preposition</td>
<td>A Strange Case of Nine Murders/62</td>
<td>Douglas Lancashire</td>
<td>天來同貴興商量道...</td>
<td>Tianlai and Guixing discussed the matter...</td>
<td>Tianlai talked the matter over to Guixing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structure</td>
<td>Paperboy/43</td>
<td>Rosemary Haddon</td>
<td>後來聽說，到大家走完為止，用了和父親同樣的決心拒絕了蓋章的，一共有五個...</td>
<td>Later, I heard that after everyone had been called forward, there were only four others who had refused to stamp their seal with the same determinations as my father...</td>
<td>Later, I heard that until everyone had been called forward, there were only four others who had refused to stamp their seal with the same determinations as my father...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4-2: Examples of Paraphrase

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17 In line with the focus of this research, when producing translations for comparisons, I only change the translation of empty words and try not to leave other parts unchanged. This is because the focus of this thesis is empty words.
that something is going to be mentioned after what has been said before the “well”. As a result, it is considered that the procedure of Paraphrase was used here.

In the third example, 不得不 (bu de bu: do not want to but have to) means that someone has to do something even though he/she is not willing to do it. One of the best translations is “have no choice but to” because this phrase not only reveals necessity but also indicates that this person has to do something whether or not he/she is willing to do it. Nevertheless, the translation of 不得不 in this example is “must”, which is a strong modal verb in which context the person being referred to is obliged to follow the request/demand. Therefore, it can be said that this translation only retains part of the original idea. However, “must” enables readers to know that the person mentioned in this sentence has to do something without exemption, so it conveys the original idea in a different way; thus, this example is counted in the category of Paraphrase. What is worth mentioning is that some may consider that “must” is a modal verb which indicates that the subject who receives this message is unwilling to do something, so this example should be classified into the category of Match. Nevertheless, a close look at the meaning of “must” will be able to clear this doubt. According to the Concise Oxford English Dictionary (2008), “must” means “be obliged to”, and it “expresses insistence” (p. 944). Besides, it is also used to emphasise that “you think it is a good idea for them to do [something]” (Cambridge Dictionaries Online). From the three definitions, we see that this modal verb is used when a person is obliged to do something, and it does not indicate whether the person is willing or unwilling to do that. A speaker uses “must” in an attempt to recommend something (e.g. “You must see this movie, and you will find it entertaining”) or to mention obligations (e.g. “Drivers must stop when the traffic light turns red”). In the second situation, drivers are obliged to follow this traffic rule, but we do not assume
that “all” drivers are unwilling to obey. Nevertheless, people use 不得不 “only” when they are unwilling. Therefore, I do not regard “must” as a match.

The fourth empty word is 同 (tong: to), which is a word with several different definitions. According to the online Chinese Dictionary compiled by Taiwan’s Ministry of Education (1994), 同 can be used as a verb (to gather/share together, to unite or to support), adjective (identical), adverb (identically), preposition (to or and) and noun (harmony, an agreement or a surname). In this example, 同 functions as a preposition to indicate that Tianlai speaks to Guixing, and its English counterpart is usually “to”, but the translator adopted “and” as its translation. Since “and” is a conjunction used to connect two clauses or indicate that two things/persons do/receive the same action jointly, it does not imply that one person does something to the other. Therefore, rather than classifying this example into the category of Match, it belongs to the category of Paraphrase because “Tianlai and Guixing” gives readers the idea that the two people are talking to each other; hence, the idea of Tianlai talking to Guixing is conveyed.

The last example is from the category of Structure. 到…為止 (dao…weizhi: till…as an end) sets a stop point of an event and is followed by a description of what happens afterward, so its most suitable English translation is “until”. In this example, “after” was adopted by the translator; this word conveys the idea that following an event, another event takes place. It is not considered that “after” renders the original idea of “till…as an end”, so this example is not counted in the category of Match. Nevertheless, “after” still works well to let readers know that a certain event takes place after a previous one, so this is classified as an example of Paraphrase.

It can be seen from the five examples that the meaning of the original empty words is usually altered when using the procedure of Paraphrase. However, the meaning of these translations is still to some extent similar to the original. For
instance, the translation “must” in the third example fails to convey the idea that someone is reluctant to do something but he/she still has to do it because he/she has no other choice.

Besides, by comparing the examples in Table 4-1 and those in Table 4-2, the differences between the procedures of Match and Paraphrase can also be noted. In the category of Match, there are still some examples in which target terms correspond to their source counterparts to an extremely high degree (e.g. 嘿 and 啊). On the other hand, no such correspondence exists in translations which adopt the procedure of Paraphrase. In addition, if examples in the category of Paraphrase are examined with the three criteria mentioned in section 4.1 (lexical form, meaning and function), they are found not to retain the lexical forms and do not render the original meaning, but they always fulfil the function. For instance, “do not” in the first example let readers know that those who have untimely died are asked not to wail, while “after” in the last example indicates that another event follows a previous one. To sum up, it can be said that examples in the category of Paraphrase bear less resemblance to their originals compared to those in the category of Match, but still always fulfil their function. What is worth adding here is that, the retention of the source function and the production of a similar meaning in the translation can be seen in most of the following procedures (Shared Match, Implicitation, Amplification, Grammatical Conveyance and Borrowing).

4.3 Shared Match

An example is classified into the procedure of Shared Match when the translator translates two or more source words with only one English word. In other words, translations belonging to this category cover not only the meaning of the empty words, but also that of the other words. I coined Shared Match in an attempt to let readers
know that this procedure is about a match which is shared by plural words. Table 4-3 provides a clear picture.

In the first example, 從 (cong: from, ever) is the empty word included in Wang’s empty words list. When the meaning of “ever” is used, 從 often appears with 沒有 (mei you: not), 不 (bu: not) or 未 (wei: not) to form the idea of “never”. It could be said that 從, with the meaning of “ever”, is generally combined with one of the preceding three words to constitute a negative statement. The collocations 從沒有, 從不 or 從未 are very common in Chinese, and, for most of the time, translators take “never” as their English translation instead of using “not (沒有) ever (從)”. Although achieving correspondence in both form and meaning is often considered to be most appropriate, it is interesting that, in cases like this, adopting the procedure of Shared Match makes the translation more natural than sticking to the procedure of Match. The following is a good example of this.

A: Translation by the procedure of Match:
   There has **not ever** been any suggestion of wealthy men or officials…
B: Translation by the procedure of Shared Match:
   There has **never** been any suggestion of wealthy men or officials…

When taking a close look at these two examples, if we translate the empty word by the procedure of Match, its translation, “not ever”, may mislead readers to consider that the author wants to emphasise a situation in which something has never happened. In contrast, the translation by the procedure of Shared Match not only retains what happens to be the correct meaning, but also prevents such a misunderstanding.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word Class</th>
<th>Text Title &amp; Issue Number</th>
<th>Translator</th>
<th>Source Text</th>
<th>Published Translation</th>
<th>Translation for Comparison</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adverb</td>
<td>A Strange Case of Nine Murders/ 62</td>
<td>Douglas Lancashire</td>
<td>從沒有坐擁厚資，名列縉紳…</td>
<td>There has never been any suggestion of wealthy men or officials…</td>
<td>There has not ever been any suggestion of wealthy men or officials…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preposition</td>
<td>Prologue/57</td>
<td>T. M. McClellan</td>
<td>每當我寫到腕痠墨枯的時候…</td>
<td>Whenever my hand grew stiff from writing and my ink dried up…</td>
<td>Every time when my hand grew stiff from writing and my ink dried up…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Particle</td>
<td>Marx Enters the Confucian Temple/51</td>
<td>Matthew Finbeiner &amp; Timothy Wixted</td>
<td>有許多人都把我當成物質主義者…</td>
<td>There are many who would make a materialist of me.</td>
<td>There are many who would see me as a person believing in materialism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Particle</td>
<td>A Race of Generals/19&amp;20</td>
<td>Lucien Miller</td>
<td>…他只是做著樣子罷了…</td>
<td>He merely pretended that he was playing.</td>
<td>He merely pretended that he was playing, that’s all…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverb</td>
<td>The Cat Specialist/32</td>
<td>Janice Wickeri</td>
<td>莫書記急忙追上去…</td>
<td>Mr Mo, the Party secretary, scurried after him.</td>
<td>Mr Mo, the Party secretary, ran after him hurriedly…</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4-3: Examples of Shared Match
Although it cannot be denied that there are many ways to convey the idea of 從沒有 in English (e.g. have not….in one’s life, have no experience in), the first way that most translators would think of is certain to be “never”. Meanwhile, “never” is also the English word which retains the idea of 從沒有 in the most straightforward way (the two alternatives written in the brackets three lines above either see extra information (in one’s life) or paraphrase (have no experience), which is why my example only compares “not ever” and “never”.

The empty word in the second example is 當 (dang: when). This word is used to indicate the time, the same as its English counterpart “when”. Here, 當 and 每 (mei: every) are two independent empty words which are put together to form a common Chinese collocation. When speaking or writing in Chinese, some words will be omitted from collocations to either avoid wordiness or make the collocations more colloquial. For instance, 中國 (zhong guo: China) is the shortened form of 中華人民共和國 (zhong hua ren min gong he guo: People’s Republic of China), 公投 (gong tou: referendum) refers to 公民投票 (gong min tou piao: citizen referendum) and 總之 (zong zhi: to sum up) is the shortened form of 總而言之 (zong er yan zhi: sum and say it). In the second example in Table 4-3, 每當 is the shortened form of 每次當 (mei ci dang: every time when), and this collocation is generally translated as “whenever” in English. Since “whenever” is a word and it covers the meaning of 每 and 當, this example is counted in the category of Shared Match.

In the third example, the empty word 者 (zhe: people) is often added to an action or a state to refer to people who perform that action or are in that state. In this example, 者 is integrated with 物質主義 (wu zhi zhu yi: materialism) and becomes a term. This is one of the reasons why the translator took “materialist” as its English translation. The other reason is that, in English, it is common to add “–er”, “–or” and “–ist” to refer to the person who performs the action mentioned in the context. For
instance, a footballer is a person who plays football and a controller is a person who is in charge of controlling something. But, although the suffixes “-er”, “-or” and “-ist” are correspondents to 者 in the lexical form, the meaning and the function, they can only be added to the end of other words and cannot stand as independent words. To evaluate them according to the definition of Match (see 4.1), examples adapting suffixes to produce corresponding translations cannot be classified into the category of Match; thus, they are categorised into the category of Shared Match. It is undoubted that the procedure of Match can be employed in such cases; “those (who)” and “a person (who)” match 者 and are independent words. However, if “those (who)” or “a person (who)” is adopted, the translation may become lengthy. For instance, in this example, the meaning of 物質主義者 can be simply and clearly conveyed by “materialist”. Nevertheless, “a person believing in materialism” is the result if we want to stick to the procedure of Match. By comparing the two translations, it can be seen that sticking to the procedure of Match may not work well in cases like this.

In the fourth example, it is the empty word 罷了 (ba le: that’s all) that is included. The meaning of 罷了 is close to 只是 (zhi shi: just), and it is not uncommon for the two collocations to appear together. This may be why the translator chose to translate the two collocations altogether into “merely”. Since “merely” covers the translations of the two collocations, this example was regarded as adopting the procedure of Shared Match. Nevertheless, a natural translation can also be produced if this sentence is translated by the procedure of Match (see the Translation for Comparison), even though the translation becomes a little wordy at the same time.

According to the Concise Oxford English Dictionary, the word “scurry” means “to move hurriedly with short quick steps” (p. 1295). Therefore, I consider that this word conveys the meaning of both 急忙 (ji mang: hurriedly) and 追上去 (zhui shang
qu: run to someone) in the last example of Table 4-3. When doing translation, the translator may come across words the meaning of which can be rendered by only one single word in the target language. For instance, 悄悄說 (qiao qiao shuo: literally “softly softly say”) corresponds to whisper, 輕輕碰 (qing qing pong: literally “lightly lightly touch”) to brush, 瞎扯 (xia che: literally “blindly talk”) to chit-chat and, in this example, 急忙追上去 to scurry. The one-word translations in these examples are sufficient to construct the whole image. Although there are corresponding translations for each word in the preceding examples (e.g. 急忙追上去 can be translated into “run after someone hurriedly”), it is not wrong to simply adopt one word for translation. In such cases, it is again the translator’s duty to choose the best procedure according to context.

The procedure of Shared Match is a procedure which is adopted to make translations concise (although this may not be always a goal that a translator pursues). When analysing the five examples in this category, I often compared translations by this procedure with those by the procedure of Match. This was done in an attempt to investigate whether or not match should always be the top aim in translating. From the comparisons, it can be seen that the procedure of Match does not suit some cases, such as the empty words 從 and 者. In these cases, it is more appropriate to use the procedure of Shared Match. Based on this, we could say that there is not always a target match for every source word; even if there is one, it may not always be a suitable translation. Translators have to take into consideration contexts to produce suitable translations.

Before ending this section, I would like to point out that the concept of Shared Match is similar to that of Implicitation in Vinay & Darbelnet’s seven translation procedures (1958) and that of Condensation in Malone’s ten trajectories (1988). The two concepts proposed by the three theorists also refer to the situation in which one
target word is sufficient to cover the ideas of two or more source words. The reason I coined Shared Match as a new term to represent this kind of translation is that I considered the meaning of the new term (Shared Match) to be easier to catch than the older ones. When readers see “Shared Match”, they know that this procedure is about a match which is shared by multiple words. Meanwhile, Implicitation, which is the topic of the next section, is given a different definition from that of Vinay & Darbelnet. An idea of the difference between them can be gained from the discussion in the next section.

4.4 Implicitation

Procedures in which there are always corresponding translations were discussed in the preceding three sections. However, in some cases, the meaning of words is not conveyed by corresponding translations, but by implicitation from another word(s). I regard such cases as adopting the procedure of Implicitation. The same as in the previous discussions, five examples of Implicitation are illustrated in Table 4-4, and the subsequent discussions will provide a clear idea of this procedure and the difference between it and the procedure of Shared Match.

Although the English phrase “take…as…” corresponds to the empty word 以…為… (yi…wei…), the translator did not adopt it in his product. Moreover, he even paraphrased the whole sentence by omitting the existence of 人 (ren: human). In the translation, 黑傘 (hei san: black umbrella) becomes the subject, and 以…為… is removed. Nonetheless, the idea of 以…為… can still be captured from the context in the translation:

In this country a reversed black umbrella was the sign of tidings of death.
When we read this sentence, we understand that a reversed black umbrella indicates that someone has died. In other words, when people see a person carrying a reversed umbrella, they know that someone is dead. Further thinking may produce the reasoning that people take a reversed black umbrella as tidings of death. The idea of 以…為… is, hence, rendered, and so this example was classified into the category of Implicitation. What has to be mentioned here is that this example does not belong to the procedure of Shared Match because there is no word in the translation which contains the idea of 以…為….

In the second example, the translator did not tackle the empty word 趁 (chen: take advantage of) in the translation, but he added another word “while” to connect the preceding and subsequent clauses. Although “while” was added as extra information, its meaning is dissimilar from 趁; thus, this example cannot be classified into the category of Paraphrase or that of Shared Match. Nevertheless, according to the Concise Oxford English Dictionary (2008), one of the definitions of while is “during the time that” (p. 1643), and with this definition, the translation in this example becomes:

Eat all you want during the time that there’s still food.

This gives the idea that the speaker wants the listener(s) to seize the time and eat. Further, seizing the time indicates taking advantage of the time. After reasoning, it is considered that “while” implies the idea of 趁; so, this example is deemed as an example of Implicitation.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Translation for Comparison</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Structure</td>
<td>The Message Man/52</td>
<td>David Pollard</td>
<td>鄉間報死訊的人都倒挾黑傘為標記...</td>
<td>In this country a reversed black umbrella was the sign of tidings of death.</td>
<td>In this country, people took a reversed black umbrella as the sign of tidings of death.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preposition</td>
<td>Ah Xiao’s Unhappy Autumn/52</td>
<td>Simon Patton</td>
<td>要吃趁現在...</td>
<td>Eat all you want while there’s still food.</td>
<td>Take advantage of the time, and eat all you want.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conjunction</td>
<td>On the Cross/37</td>
<td>Janice Wickeri</td>
<td>疑問從此消失。</td>
<td>That was the end of my doubt.</td>
<td>My doubt from now on vanished.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Particle</td>
<td>Prologue/57</td>
<td>T. M. McClellan</td>
<td>瓦瓶子裡，插著細瘦的白菊...</td>
<td>…I have arranged some scrawny white chrysanthemums in an earthenware vase…</td>
<td>…some scrawny white chrysanthemums have been arranged in an earthenware vase…</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4-4 Examples of Implicitation
The third example is from the category of Interjection, and the empty word included is 唉 (ai: alas). 唉 is an interjection used to express grief, sadness or pity. The English interjection “alas” matches 唉 because, when functioning as an interjection, “alas” is also an exclamation which expresses the same idea and is used in the same way. However, the translator did not translate 唉; instead, she combined 唉 and 說 (shuo: say) and translated them into the verb “sigh”. Although “sigh” implies that the speaker is performing the act of sighing, it does not mean that “sigh” itself can function as “alas”. That is to say, “sigh” is just a word which gives the idea that someone is performing that action. Even if “sigh” is taken as a noun, it refers to a sound which expresses sadness, relief or tiredness, and it is still not the same as 唉 as an interjection. Therefore, this translation was not categorised as adopting the procedure of Shared Match, but that of Implicitation.

The empty word 從此 (cong ci: from here, from now, from the time point) is frequently used by Chinese speakers. One of its best translations is “from now on” because this common phrase contains a similar meaning to 從此. Nonetheless, this English phrase was not adopted when the translator tackled this example. Instead, she used “the end of” to cover the idea of 從此 and that of 消失 (xiao shi: vanish). Despite the fact that “the end of” has neither the meaning of “from now on” nor “vanish” (so this example does not belong to the category of Shared Match, which requires that the translation has a meaning that is similar to the source words), it tells the readers that this particular moment was the last time the doubt lingered in this person’s mind and it has never occurred again. Based on this, readers can further reason that the doubt had vanished from that time on. Therefore, it is considered that the idea of “from now on” is implied by “the end of”; so, this example is classified into the category of Implicitation.
In the fifth example, the empty word 著 (zhe: it has no lexical meaning) is a suffix which always follows a verb or an adjective to represent a number of grammatical meanings. In this example, the 著 refers to a state, e.g. 掛著海報 (gua zhe hai bao: a hung poster) and 插著一朵花 (cha zhe yi duo hua: an arranged flower) and gives readers an idea that some scrawny white chrysanthemums have “been” arranged in an earthenware vase. Nevertheless, the translator did not deliberately put “been” in the translation, nor did he use any other word to correspond to 著. Although 著 was neglected (or ignored), this idea can still be captured by the image of this translation:

I have arranged some scrawny white chrysanthemums in an earthenware vase.

When we read this sentence, an image of chrysanthemums being arranged in an earthenware vase comes to mind. That is to say, these flowers were arranged in the vase and were kept in it; since they were kept in a vase, the idea of flowers being arranged in a vase is understood by readers. It is because of this reasoning that this example is classified into the category of Implicitation.

Having analysed the five examples ofImplicitation, the definition of this procedure should be very clear. If an example is regarded as belonging to this category, it must: 1) contain no direct correspondent(s) in the translation and 2) be able to give readers the correct idea/image through implication(s) from either a part of, or the whole, translation. Besides, the procedures of Implicitation and Shared Match are different in that examples of the former do not have word(s) which cover the meaning of the empty word and another word(s), whereas those of the latter do.
4.5 Amplification

Totally contrary to the procedure of Implicitation, the procedure of Amplification is a method which increases the amount of information explicitly provided. One of the reasons for adopting this procedure is that the source term is strange or novel to the target readers, so the translator has to provide more information to help them know what is going on and to fulfil the function. However, this reason is not applicable to the translation of empty words because empty words do not contain culture-specific ideas and neither are they strange or novel ideas to English people. Then, why is this procedure used by translators when translating Chinese empty words? The answer can be obtained by analysing the examples in Table 4-5.

The first example contains the empty word 不料 (bu liao: not expect), which is often seen in a context in which something bad happens beyond one’s expectation. In English, common correspondents of this word are unexpectedly, unanticipated or to one’s surprise (but these correspondents do not only appear with bad happenings). Nonetheless, the translator of this example chose to bring more information to the target text, hence the translation:

But what no one had reckoned on was that joy would give way to sorrow…

In this sentence, “what no one had reckoned on” is the translation of 不料, and it is obviously that extra information is provided in this translation than “unexpectedly” or “to one’s surprise”. Because of this, this example is classified into the category of Amplification.
<table>
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<tr>
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<th>Published Translation</th>
<th>Translation for Comparison</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adverb</td>
<td>A Strange Case of Nine Murders/62</td>
<td>Douglas Lancashire</td>
<td>不料樂極生悲</td>
<td>But <strong>what no one had reckoned on</strong> was that joy would give way to sorrow…</td>
<td>It is <strong>unexpected</strong> that joy would give way to sorrow…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compound</td>
<td>Marx Enters the Confucian Temple/51</td>
<td>Matthew Finbeiner &amp; Timothy Wixted</td>
<td>我的思想對於這個世界和人生是徹底肯定的，就是說我不和一般宗教家一樣把宇宙人生看成虛無，看成罪惡的。</td>
<td>My thought vis-a-vis the world and human life is thoroughly affirming, <strong>which is simply to say</strong> that I am not like the standard religious thinker, who views life and the universe as being meaningless or as being evil.</td>
<td>My thought vis-a-vis the world and human life is thoroughly affirming, <strong>which is to say</strong> that I am not like the standard religious thinker, who views life and the universe as being meaningless or as being evil.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conjunction</td>
<td>Paperboy/43</td>
<td>Rosemary Haddon</td>
<td>否則，年老的母親怎能忍心把我送到這麼遠的地方來！</td>
<td><strong>If they had been any different</strong>, my ageing mother would never have agreed to my going so far away.</td>
<td><strong>Otherwise</strong>, my ageing mother would never have agreed to my going so far away.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structure</td>
<td>In the Hospital/8</td>
<td>Susan Vacca</td>
<td>這種沉重又顯得柔媚，又顯得傲慢…</td>
<td>…<strong>which gave her a dignity that was gentle and, at the same time</strong>, somewhat haughty.</td>
<td>…which gave her a dignity that was gentle <strong>and</strong> somewhat haughty.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interjection</td>
<td>Paperboy/43</td>
<td>Rosemary Haddon</td>
<td>哦忘記了。</td>
<td><strong>Oh yes</strong>, I almost forgot.</td>
<td><strong>Oh</strong>, I almost forgot.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4-5 Examples of Amplification
The empty word in the second example is 就是說 (jiu shi shuo: that is to say), and its correspondents are that is to say and which is to say. In the translation, this empty word was translated into “which is simply to say”, which contains the extra information “simply”. Therefore, this example is classified into the category of Amplification.

The third example is from the category of Conjunction, and the empty word included is 否則 (fo ze: otherwise). The same as its English counterpart “otherwise”, 否則 is a Chinese word used to refer to the failure to realise previously-mentioned conditions, and it is generally followed by a description of the consequence of the failure. Instead of restating the previous condition, people can avoid wordiness by putting 否則 in the texts. In this example, however, the translator chose to restate the preceding condition. This cannot be counted as an inappropriate decision because she did nothing but “decompress” the information which was compressed by 否則; and due to the act of decompressing, this example is deemed to belong to the category of Amplification.

In the fourth example, 又…又… (you…you…) is an empty word which is used to reveal that two states/situations exist at the same time (Online Chinese Dictionary). To render this, “and” alone can work well. Nevertheless, the translator added “at the same time” to the sentence. Therefore, it is considered that this translation creates extra information.

Lastly, in the fifth example, it can be seen that 哦 (ou: oh) is amplified into “oh yes”, and “yes” is actually an addition. Therefore, this example belongs to the category of Amplification. 哦 and “oh” match each other, and they function in a broadly parallel manner. As a result, we only have to put “oh” in the translation, then TL readers will receive the same information as SL readers. Perhaps, the translator of
this example did this to intensify the interjection, to produce a natural translation, or maybe she did this for no easily-discernible reason.

From these five examples, it can be seen that an example is taken to have employed the procedure of Amplification when there is additional information in the translation. As for the question proposed in the first paragraph of this section: why do translators amplify Chinese empty words in translations? Possible reasons are that they want to stress the meaning of an empty word, they consider that the translation reads more natural with the addition of those words and it may also be supposed that the amplification is done for no reason. With so many possibilities, I cannot say which one is exact and convincing on the basis of the data obtained from my research. Even if we conduct an analysis on the basis of larger contexts, we may only be able to make speculations because we cannot fully grasp translators’ thoughts simply by their products. Therefore, analyses done from different perspectives are needed.

Among others, Think Aloud Protocols (TAPs), Immediate Retrospections (IRs) and computer keystroke logging may be conducive to identifying the real reason(s). The first two terms are methods which researchers make use of to record interviewee’s thoughts. According to Fraser (1996), TAPs require subjects to verbalise at the same time when they are doing tasks, whereas IR subjects are asked to verbalise some time after the tasks have been completed. In translation, TAPs and IRs ask translators to provide their thoughts on the difficulty level of the translation task, the ways they resolve problems, why they choose to resolve certain problems in certain ways, etc. We could say that the two methods record all the “mental sounds” in translators’ heads in written or verbal forms when they are translating. By examining these mental sounds, researchers may be able to identify the reasons for some of translators’ behaviours. Likewise, the reason(s) translators amplify some ideas may also be able to be found through these two methods. With regard to
keystroke logging, this is performed with the help of a computer. It records translators’ every strike on computer keyboards, and the results enable researchers to analyse translators’ moves when translating. For example, did this translator replace a former translation with a new one? Did that translator amplify the information when he/she revisited that sentence? Did translators refer to the internet (such as Google) or an online dictionary for help when translating a certain word or sentence? Such information can provide another way to understand why translators make certain decisions and whether or not they make those decisions consciously.

Additionally, it needs to be pointed out that the procedure of Amplification does not cover the procedure of Compensation because they are treated as two different procedures. Compensation often occurs in a different place in the text from where the original feature occurred. As Hervey & Higgins put it (1992: 248), Compensation is “the technique of making up for the translation loss of important ST features by approximating their effects in the TT through means other than those used in the ST; that is, making up for ST effects achieved by one means through using other means in the TT”. Meanwhile, Baker (2001: 37-40), Newmark (1988: 282), Palumbo (2009: 21) and Shuttleworth & Cowie (1997: 25-26) propose similar definitions. To sum up, Compensation takes place when translators fail to find correspondents for the source words. In this case, translators produce counterparts which do not convey a corresponding meaning and then provide extra words in the target text in an attempt to retain the whole source information in the target texts. In other words:

\[
\text{Compensation} = \text{Translation which conveys incomplete source idea} + \text{Additional word(s) for making the idea completely conveyed}
\]
If the source word conveys 100% of the idea, the translation may convey 1~99% of the idea and the extra word(s) represents the remainder.

Different from Compensation, the procedure of Amplification refers to a situation in which translators have produced translations with a corresponding meaning and further provided readers with more information. It is like that their outputs convey 120% of the idea. For example:

Example A:
ST: 難怪引不起我們注意。
TT: …it was really little wonder that he failed to attract our attention.
CT: …it was little wonder that he failed to attract our attention.

Example B:
ST: 我堂哥是醫生。
TT: My elder male cousin on my father’s side is a doctor.

Example A belongs to the category of Amplification rather than Compensation because the additional information does not compensate but provides an extra idea. The CT (Translation for Comparison) is a literal translation of the ST. As can be seen, the translation functions well without the word “really”. Therefore, “really” is simply extra information here (making this sentence amplified). On the other hand, example B is an example of Compensation. Compared with English, there are more words in Chinese to denote relatives, such as 叔叔 (father’s younger brother or husband’s younger brother), 姑姑 (father’s sister), 舅舅 (mother’s brother), etc. When such words are translated into English, some information is lost, so additional words are needed to compensate if the translator wants to give target readers an idea of the identity of the person mentioned.
From the preceding explanations and examples, it can be seen that the procedures of Compensation and Amplification are different, and this is why Compensation is not included in the category of Amplification.

Before ending this section, I would like to further summarise the difference between Paraphrase, Shared Match, Implicitation and Amplification. A brief description of these four procedures can be given by revisiting their definitions:

Paraphrase: there is a translation the meaning of which is not similar to that of the original, but that translation still fulfils the original function (e.g. 不必 \(\rightarrow\) do not).

Shared Match: there is a translation which fulfils the original function and directly conveys the meaning of the ST word(s) and that of at least one other (e.g. scurried \(\Leftrightarrow\) 急忙 + 追).

Implicitation: there is no translation which directly conveys the meaning of the ST, so that the meaning of the ST is covered by a more general TL word or phrase. Meanwhile, the original function is fulfilled (e.g. In this country a reversed black umbrella was the sign of tidings of death \(\Leftrightarrow\) 鄉間報死訊的人都以倒挾黑傘為標記).

Amplification: there is a translation which fulfils the original function and directly conveys the meaning of the ST. Meanwhile, extra information is added (e.g. which is simply to say \(\Leftrightarrow\) 就是說).

4.6 Grammatical Conveyance

If the meaning of an empty word is conveyed by its grammatical nature, the translation is counted in this category. In Section 4.3, I have mentioned that examples which see the use of prefixes or suffixes may belong to the procedure of Shared Match. Nevertheless, some examples are ruled out of that category. For instance,
prefixes and suffixes are bound morphemes and can be further divided into derivational ones and inflectional ones. In English, all prefixes and some suffixes belong to the former kind, while the rest of the suffixes belong to the second kind. Suffixes such as in-, un-, -er, -ness, etc. are derivational bound morphemes the addition of which leads to the birth of new words (Malmkjær 2004: 359). That is to say, happy and happiness are seen as two different words, although clearly semantically related. As for inflectional bound morphemes (e.g. -ed, -ing, -er, etc.), the addition of such morphemes does not lead to the birth of new words but only adds extra grammatical information (such as tense, grammatical voice and number) to the already existing meaning. It is due to such a difference that I decided to classify examples in which inflectional bound morphemes are used in translation into the category of Grammatical Conveyance. The same, five examples are given in Table 4-6.

The first example is taken from the category of Particle, and the empty word included is 者 (zhe: people). Although this empty word was discussed in Section 4.3, it is necessary to reiterate that 者 is often added to an action or a state to refer to people who perform that action or are in that state. Here, 者 is used to refer to “those who are mentally ill”. In English, it is not uncommon to use “the + adjective” to refer to people who are in the state of that adjective (e.g. the poor and the rich). As long as readers know this grammatical rule, they know that there is a hidden noun. For example:

The rich (people) are asked to pay higher taxes.
This university only gives scholarships to the excellent (students).

In the two instances, people and students are omitted because they are unnecessary under this grammatical rule. The fact that the idea of 者 is conveyed by a grammatical
rule made me decide to classify this case into the category of Grammatical Conveyance, instead of that of Implicitation. Since the idea of 者 can be conveyed by a grammatical rule, I do not deem it as an example of Omission. Omission, according to the definition in my research, refers to the situation that there is no corresponding translation and the source idea is not implied. Now, let us move back to the example of 者, “the mentally ill” is adopted to refer to people who are mentally ill. Although the translator did not use “those who”, readers can still easily grasp the idea on the basis of their knowledge of this grammatical rule. Therefore, this example is classified into the category of Grammatical Conveyance.

The grammatical rule being used in the second example is the passive voice, which is constituted by an auxiliary verb and a participle. In many cases, we see the passive voice be rendered by “be (or get) + a past participle (which is generally formed by the addition of an inflectional bound morpheme)”. The passive voice is so common that it can be seen in almost every English or Chinese text. Now, let us analyse the translation of the empty word 被 (bei: a word to express the passive voice). This word precedes a Chinese verb to indicate that the action of the following verb is done to the person(s) concerned. For instance, 我被打 (wo bei da) refers to “I was beaten”, 他被骗 (ta bei pian) to “he was cheated” and 约翰被嘉奖 (yue han bei jia jiang) to “John was lauded”. In the example of 你的苹果被抢走了!, the translator also adopted the passive voice as the translation of 被. For the reason that the idea of 被 is conveyed by a grammatical rule (an auxiliary verb with a participle indicate the passive voice), and there is not an independent word which retains the message of 被 (an auxiliary verb alone will not be able to work), this example is deemed to belong to the procedure of Grammatical Conveyance.
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<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Published Translation</th>
<th>Translation for Comparison</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Particle</td>
<td>Poor Poor Dumb Mouths/19&amp;20</td>
<td>Lucien Miller</td>
<td>大半的精神性病者…</td>
<td>The majority of the mentally ill…</td>
<td>The majority of those who are mentally ill…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preposition</td>
<td>Leaving Home at Eighteen/39</td>
<td>Harriet Clompus</td>
<td>你的蘋果被搶走了！</td>
<td>Your apples have been nicked!</td>
<td>Your apples have been nicked!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structure</td>
<td>The Young Shen Nong/47&amp;48</td>
<td>Ian Chapman</td>
<td>在金光遍灑的朝陽路上，神農揹著藥籃子，一邊走一邊揮動手中的柳條或是管…</td>
<td>On the road bathed in golden light Shen Nong walks into the sun, his herb basket on his back, swishing a willow switch or reed cane…</td>
<td>On the road bathed in golden light Shen Nong, his herb basket on his back, walks into the sun while swishing a willow switch or reed cane…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Particle</td>
<td>Ruyi/25</td>
<td>Richard Rigby</td>
<td>老曹，什麼事啊？</td>
<td>What’s up, Cao?</td>
<td>What’s up, Cao?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compound</td>
<td>The Story of Grandfather Ching Fan/16</td>
<td>Stephen Field</td>
<td>這時轟轟隆隆震天動地的聲音越來越感到逼近了…</td>
<td>By this time the earth shaking roar could be felt drawing nearer and nearer…</td>
<td>By this time the earth shaking roar could be felt drawing more and more near…</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4-6 Examples of Grammatical Conveyance
The third example is from the category of Structure, and the empty word included is 一邊…一邊… (yi bian...yi bian...: to do two things at the same time), which is used to refer to a situation in which someone does two things at the same time. In this example, the two actions being performed at the same time are “walks into the sun” and “swishes a willow switch or reed cane”. In order to reveal the synchrony of these two actions, the translator employed a gerund, by which readers know that “walks into the sun” and “swishes a willow switch or reed cane” were performed at the same time.

In the fourth example, 啊 (a: a word without clear meaning) is a common particle in Chinese. This modal empty word is used to express the idea of pause, question, surprise, pity, contempt, anxiety, hatred, consent or reminding (Wang 2003: 2-4). When being employed as a particle, 啊 is simply a modal word without any meaning but fulfils the function of reinforcing the tone of sentences. Therefore, this word is dispensable, and the meaning of a sentence will not change without it. Now, returning to this example, since 啊 is a modal particle without a clear meaning, I could not find a match in English. This may be the reason that the translator produced an interrogative sentence without tackling 啊. In fact, it is not absolutely necessary to find a word to match 啊 in English because 啊 just expresses the tone of a question, and the interrogative sentence itself fulfils this function. Due to this grammatical nature of the interrogative sentence, it is concluded that the translator has translated this empty word by the procedure of Grammatical Conveyance. What is worth adding is that this example does not belong to the category of Implicitation because the idea of 啊 is not conveyed by another word(s), but by a question mark (an example is classified into Implicitation only when the source meaning is implied by a word, not a punctuation mark). Meanwhile, it does not belong to the category of Omission
because the idea is implied (by a question mark) (see 4.8 for the definition of Omission).

The last empty word discussed here is 越來越… (yue lai yue…: more and more). If “more and more” had been used as the translation, this example would have been classified into the category of Match. Nevertheless, the translator took “nearer and nearer” as the translation of 越來越. “–er” is a suffix which, like “more and more”, expresses the idea that the level of a certain state is rising. However, based on the two points mentioned in the first paragraph of this section, translations in which “–er” is used are deemed to belong to the procedure of Grammatical Conveyance. After discussing why this example was classified into the category of Grammatical Conveyance, why the translator adopted “–er” instead of “more and more” as the translation should also be investigated. The answer is that, according to grammar, adjectives with fewer than two syllables (e.g. rich → richer, big → bigger, small → smaller, etc) should take “–er” as the way to become comparatives; “more” is only for those which have more than three syllables (e.g. beautiful → more beautiful, serious → more serious, stupid → more stupid, etc). In this example, there is only one syllable in the adjective “near”, so it is ungrammatical to use “more and more” (“more and more near” is placed in the comparison translation only to provide an example which sticks to the procedure of Match, but it does not mean that such a translation should be considered acceptable or correct).

The procedure of Grammatical Conveyance has been discussed in this section, and five examples have been investigated. From these examples, it has been seen that the meaning of some Chinese words can be conveyed by English grammar. Lastly, the reasons translators adopt this procedure can be listed as follows: 1) by using this procedure, translations become concise (e.g. the case of 者); 2) there is no correspondent in English for the Chinese empty word, but the meaning of that word
can be rendered through English grammar (e.g. the cases of 被 and 啊); 3) to avoid ungrammaticality (e.g. the case of 越来越…) and 4) it is just a choice made by the translators (e.g. the case of 一邊…一邊…).

4.7 Borrowing

Sometimes, translators phonetically transcribe empty words and take it directly as the translation. Such cases are classified into the procedure of Borrowing. As with previous cases, five examples (all from the category of Interjection) are listed in Table 4-7.

The first empty word discussed is 哎 (ai: alas). According to the Online Chinese Dictionary compiled by Taiwan’s Ministry of Education, 哎 is a word used to express surprise, grief or pity. If we want to choose an English interjection with a similar meaning, “alas” could be the best choice because it is an expression of grief, pity or distress. Despite the fact that there is an English correspondent, the translator decided to introduce the phonetic transcription of 哎 to the translation; thus, this example is classified into the category of Borrowing. By the way, although “ai” may be a new word to readers, the context will help readers capture its meaning.

In the second example, the empty word 哎呀 (ai ya: ah) is an exclamation of surprise or displeasure. In this example, 哎呀 provides the idea that something got away unexpectedly, and this may have displeased the speaker. When converting this word into English, “ah” can be used as the translation because “ah” expresses a similar idea. Although a matching word can be found in English, the translator of this example still chose to borrow the phonetic transcription of 哎呀 as the English translation. The translator may have thought that there was no English interjection which rendered both the lexical form and the meaning of 哎呀, plus interjections are
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interjection</td>
<td>Marx Enters the Confucian Temple/51</td>
<td>Matthew Finbeiner &amp; Timothy Wixted</td>
<td>哎！孔子到此卻突然長嘆了一聲…</td>
<td>“Ai!” Confucius at this point suddenly exhaled a long sigh…</td>
<td>“Alas!” Confucius at this point suddenly exhaled a long sigh…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interjection</td>
<td>Love in a Fallen City/45</td>
<td>Karen Kingsbury</td>
<td>哎呀！讓它跑了！</td>
<td>Aiya, it got away!</td>
<td>Ah, it got away!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interjection</td>
<td>Waves Scour the Sands/63</td>
<td>Fran Martin</td>
<td>嘿，這樣，我們重新作朋友好不好…</td>
<td>Ai, how about we start over, as friends?</td>
<td>Hey, how about we start over, as friends?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interjection</td>
<td>A Strange Case of Nine Murders/62</td>
<td>Douglas Lancashire</td>
<td>嘻！你們在我面前誇了嘴…</td>
<td>Heh! You were boasting to me…</td>
<td>Ah! You were boasting to me…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interjection</td>
<td>End of the Rickshaw Boy/10</td>
<td>Perry Link</td>
<td>啊... 哼，一進樹林…</td>
<td>…hng!...as soon as they looked in the woods…</td>
<td>…huh!...as soon as they looked in the woods…</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4-7 Examples of Borrowing
just exclamations which do not contain much meaning; so, she simply phonetically transcribe this empty word, expecting readers to be able to capture the idea from the context. Such a method is convenient because translators only have to romanise the original words and do not need to try to find correspondents.

According to the Online Chinese Dictionary, "ai" (ai: oh) expresses pity, regret or surprise. In addition, Wang (2003: 5-6) defines this empty word as an interjection to express contempt or displeasure. In the third example, however, "ai" is given a sixth meaning, which is a word to attract other people’s attention. Although the meaning of "ai" used here is different from the definitions in the Online Chinese Dictionary and Wang’s book, it is still taken as an idea that needs to be translated into English. In English, “hey” is a common interjection for attracting attention; hence, it appears to be one of the most suitable translations of "ai". Nevertheless, the translator’s translation is “ai”, a direct borrowing from the pronunciation of "ai". Again, this may be because he thought that the meaning of interjections could be easily perceived when they were put into context. Another possible reason is that "ai" is an interjection which is less seen in Chinese texts, so it was dealt with by phonetic transcription in an attempt to create an English counterpart, which is also rare to readers.

In the fourth example, the empty word "he" (he: ah) expresses surprise, praise, displeasure or interrogation; we can grasp the precise meaning only when looking at "he" in a context. In this example, the third meaning of "he" is used, so its English counterpart can be “ah”, which also contains the meaning of displeasure. In the comparison translations in Table 4-7, this empty word (and also other empty words in this category) was translated in accordance with its meaning and without taking its way of pronunciation into account. Since the pronunciation of "ah" and that of "he" are so different, the only connection between these two words is their meaning. This could be a possible reason why the translator chose to phonetically transcribe this empty
word; he did it in order to retain the sound and the textual meaning (derived from the interpretation of the context) at the same time.

The empty word in the last example is 哼 (heng: huh), which is used to express anger, displeasure or contempt, and it is the third idea which is used in this example. In English, the most suitable translation may be “huh” because it is an interjection which can be used to express contempt, too (Concise Oxford English Dictionary, 2008: 693). Nevertheless, in this example, the translator phonetically transcribed 哼 into “hng” and took it as the translation. Again, a possible reason for this is that the translator took the view that such a phonetic transcription was easy for readers to understand, and at the same time, the sound of the empty word could be kept unchanged to retain the ST colour (the strategy of foreignisation). With these two benefits, the translator chose to employ the procedure of Borrowing instead of introducing an English correspondent, such as huh.

In their article “A Methodology for Translation” published in 1958, Vinay and Darbelnet point out that the procedure of Borrowing is the simplest and most literal translation method (published in The Translation Studies Reader 2008: 129). It can be seen to be employed in the translation of interjections and some culture-specific terms (e.g. sushi, samurai, kowtow, aloha, etc., although they are not empty words). Nevertheless, such a simple procedure is not applicable to all empty word categories; instead, we only see it work in tackling interjections. A possible reason is that interjections are usually one-syllable words (e.g. 哎 = ai, 哼 = hng, 嚇 = heh) and possess no lexical meaning, so it is easy to romanise them and, with the help of the context, it is less likely that the phonetic transcriptions will confuse readers. On the contrary, empty words in other categories often have two or more syllables and possess a lexical meaning, which makes romanisation an infeasible method. For example:
Example A:
ST: 我一邊走路一邊喝可樂。(I walk while drinking coke.)
TT: I yibian walk and yibian drink coke.

Example B:
ST: 我五點左右去上班。(I will go to work at about 5 o’clock.)
TT: I will go to work at zuoyo 5 o’clock.

In both of the above examples, the empty words are phonetically transcribed, but readers cannot capture the idea. This is because the two empty words have a clear meaning, which cannot be inferred from the context.

4.8 Omission

When there is no corresponding translation in the target text and the meaning is not implied, the example is classified into the category of Omission. Although it is regarded as being one of the procedures, it is undeniable that translators may omit something simply because they forget to tackle it. Nonetheless, this possibility is ignored in my research because it is impossible to tell if a translator has omitted an empty word deliberately or negligently just by examining his/her translation.

Table 4-8 provides five examples of Omission, and the first empty word to be investigated is 本來 (ben lai: originally). As we can see, this information is not contained in the translation, so this example is deemed as a case of Omission.

In the second example, the meaning of 不但 (bu dan: not only…[but also….]) is “not just/not only”. Following the clause nuanced by 不但, there is always another clause representing a situation which goes further than the former one, and the second clause is nuanced by 也 (ye: also) or 而且 (er qie: and). Therefore, 不但…也… (or 不
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<th>Translation for Comparison</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adverb</td>
<td>Prologue/57</td>
<td>T. M. McClellan</td>
<td>山村裡本來是很清靜的…</td>
<td>This mountain village is very peaceful and quiet…</td>
<td>This mountain village is <em>originally</em> very peaceful and quiet…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conjunction</td>
<td>An Age without Shame/35&amp;36</td>
<td>Duncan Campbell</td>
<td>…不但會拖累整個社會，也會大大的敗壞人心。</td>
<td>…can affect the whole society and turn everyone bad.</td>
<td>…can <em>not only</em> affect the whole society, but also turn everyone bad.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Particle</td>
<td>Ruyi/25</td>
<td>Richard Rigby</td>
<td>那時辰學生們都沒起床哩哩</td>
<td>None of the pupils were up yet…</td>
<td>Well, none of the pupils were up yet…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preposition</td>
<td>Dream the Fifteenth/61</td>
<td>T. M. McClellan</td>
<td>我並沒有聽到你這樣對我說過…</td>
<td>I never heard you say anything of this sort.</td>
<td>I never heard you say anything of this sort <em>to</em> me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structure</td>
<td>The Young Shen Nong/47&amp;48</td>
<td>Ian Chapman</td>
<td>我炎帝當了多久，連我自己也不知道…</td>
<td>I can’t rightly say how long I ruled as Emperor Yan…</td>
<td><em>Even</em> I myself can’t rightly say how long I ruled as Emperor Yan…</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4-8 Examples of Omission
(但…而且…) is fixed usage to express the idea that two situations will take place, while the second one is a further step from the first one. Based on this definition, it can be figured out that its English correspondent is “not only…but also…”.

Nevertheless, the translator of this example did not adopt this translation; instead, the only connective seen in the example is “and”, which is used to connect two or more things of the same degree of importance. By only using “and”, the idea that the second situation is a further step from the first one cannot be captured. Based on such an analysis, it is concluded that this example did not tackle 不但, and its meaning is not implied from the other part of the translation. As a result, this example belongs to the category of Omission.

As for the third example, the empty word 哩 (li: a word without a clear meaning) is a particle which has no correspondent in English. I considered it to be necessary to provide a translation in the Translation for Comparison in Table 4-8, so “Well” was chosen. Nevertheless, it is actually not a very close correspondent. The similarity of 哩 and “Well” is that both of them can be used for expressing tones. Chinese-speaking people add 哩, 啦 (la), 吧 (ba), 嘛 (ma), 啊 (a), 呢 (ne), 嘿 (lu), 喔 (o) at the end of sentences to reveal different ideas. For instance, 哩 constitutes the tone of affirmation, 吧 the tone of request, demand, agreement, speculation or a sigh, and 呢 the tone of interrogation or affirmation. Although the meaning of these words can be deciphered, it is difficult to find matches in English because it is not customary to add such modal words at the end of English sentences. At best, the information can be conveyed by other parts of the sentences. This is why there is no English correspondent in both the translator’s product and the comparison translation.

The empty word in the fourth example is 對 (dui: to). 對 is a preposition; thus, it is actually easy to find its match in English. Prepositions like “to”, “with”,
“against”, “on”, “for”, “at” can be the corresponding translation of 對 in accordance with the context. However, although it does not take much effort to work out the English correspondents of 對, the translator did not tackle this empty word in his translation. This may have been because he wanted to keep his product concise. Let us examine the following sentence:

ST: 我並沒有聽到你這樣對我說過…
TT: I never heard you say anything of this sort.

In fact, this translation has rendered all the important ideas mentioned in the source text. Although “to me” is omitted, readers can capture it by reasoning: when we read “I never heard you say”, it is evident that “I” is the listener and “you” is the speaker. Thus, it is not essential to keep these two words in the sentence. Moreover, if “to me” is added, some people may perceive it as being somewhat wordy. It was therefore probably in order to achieve brevity that the translator omitted the two words “to me”. Because of this analysis, this example is deemed to belong to the category of Omission.

In the last example, the empty word 連…也… (lian…ye…: even…) is included. Here, 也 does not mean “also” but functions as a tone reinforcer, which emphasises the statement of “I can’t rightly say”. In English, the word that best matches this empty word is “even”, which is used as an intensive, too. Nevertheless, the translator did not tackle 連…也… in the translation, so this example is classified into the category of Omission. In addition, such omission has caused an information difference between the source text and the target text.

ST: 我炎帝當了多久，連我自己也不知道…
TT: I can’t rightly say how long I ruled as Emperor Yan…
BT: 我不知道我炎帝當了多久…
In the original sentence, 连…也… gives readers the idea that the speaker is supposed to know the answer, but it is incredible that he has no clue. Nonetheless, it can be seen from the back translation that the emphasis on 我自己 is removed, and the sentence becomes a statement which does not contain this implication.

From the five examples, it can be noted that the omission of empty words would have a positive or negative effect: a positive effect in that the sentence would become more concise (e.g. the removal of “to me” in the fourth example), while the negative effect would be that the information would be lost and readers would be unable to capture an implication from other parts of the sentence (e.g. the omission of 不但 and 连…也…). In addition, as mentioned in the beginning of this section, it is possible that a translator omits some words simply out of negligence, but I disregarded this possibility when analysing the examples because it is impossible to tell just by examining the translator’s product. If the objective is to determine whether a translator omits words deliberately or negligently, a TAP, an IR or a computer key logging test study is suggested. As discussed in section 4.5, these three methods would enable the interpretation of translators’ ideas, from which the best answer could be deduced.

4.9 Mismatch

When there is a corresponding translation in the target text, but the meaning it conveys deviates from that of the source empty word, it is put in the category of Mismatch. In this research, care has been taken to ensure that deviation was not made on purpose to create certain effects, as far as it is possible to determine from the textual evidence alone. As usual, five examples are listed to provide a clearer picture of Mismatch.
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<td>Structure</td>
<td>Love in a Fallen City/45</td>
<td>Karen Kingsbury</td>
<td>四奶奶一面答应著，一面叫喊道…</td>
<td>Fourth Mistress nodded, <em>then</em> called out…</td>
<td>Fourth Mistress nodded <em>while</em> calling out…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conjunction</td>
<td>Good Morning, Friends/31</td>
<td>Mark Kruger</td>
<td>不然何至於有茅坑的氣味？</td>
<td>…and it was no wonder he smelt like an outhouse.</td>
<td>…<em>otherwise</em> why did he smell like an outhouse?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interjection</td>
<td>Ruyi/25</td>
<td>Richard Rigby</td>
<td>唉～，糊塗的石大爺啊，他竟偏過頭，望著我說…</td>
<td>…<em>to my amazement</em>, stupid old Uncle Shi turned to me and said…</td>
<td>…<em>alas</em>, stupid old Uncle Shi turned to me and said:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preposition</td>
<td>Braids/35&amp;36</td>
<td>Joseph Allen</td>
<td>看到他慢慢走到水溝邊緣水草較多的地方…</td>
<td>…watched him walk slowly out to where the grass grew thicker along the side of the ditch…</td>
<td>…watched him walk slowly out to where the grass grew thicker along the side of the ditch…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverb</td>
<td>What is Essential is that the Names be Right /45</td>
<td>Karen Kingsbury</td>
<td>然而從另一觀點看來，我還是和安老爺表同情的。多取別號畢竟是近於無聊。</td>
<td>But, looking at it from another point of view, I can sympathize with Old Master An. Taking lots of nicknames soon becomes quite pointless.</td>
<td>But, looking at it from another point of view, I can sympathize with Old Master An. Taking lots of nicknames is, <em>after all</em>, quite pointless.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4-9 Examples of Mismatch
In the first example, the meaning of the empty word 一面…一面… (yi mian…yi mian…: doing two things at the same time) is the same as the preceded 一边…一边, both of which reveal that someone is doing two things at the same time. Due to the similarity, the English translation of 一面…一面… can also be “while” or “at the same time”. However, in this example, it is “then” that was used to translate this empty word. “Then” is an adverb which reveals the sequence of the occurrence of two events; the event being put before the “then” takes place earlier, while the one after takes place later. Therefore, when readers read the sentence in this example, they will understand it as: Fourth Mistress nodded, and after doing that, she called out. This shows that the synchrony of the occurrence of the two events is replaced by a different idea. Therefore, this example is classified into the category of Mismatch.

The second example is from the category of Conjunction, and the empty word being used is 不然 (bu ran: otherwise). The same as another empty word 否则 (fo ze), 不然 is also used to refer to the consequence or reaction of failing to meet the preceding condition. Thus, “otherwise” is one of the ideal translations. However, the translator’s choice was “it was no wonder”. According to Concise Oxford English Dictionary (2008), the idiom “no wonder” means “it is not surprising” (1569), whereas “otherwise” means “in different circumstances” (1013). Therefore, we can see that the meanings of two words mismatch. Nevertheless, some may argue that it is only the syntax which has been turned around, and “it was no wonder” still functions well, so it should not be an example of Mismatch. With regard to this argument, my explanation is as follows. According to the definitions I made for my research, this example cannot be classified into the category of Match (because it is not really a correspondent) or that of Paraphrase (because the source lexical meaning has been greatly altered). The idea of ”otherwise” can be obtained from inference, so it may be a case of Implicitation. However, my definition of Implicitation is that there is NO
translation for the ST word and the idea of the ST word is conveyed by other words. Now that “it was no wonder” is the translators’ translation for 不然 (although I do not consider these words to be correct correspondents), it is not considered to be adequate to categorise it into Implicitation. In the end, it seems to me that Mismatch is the most suitable classification for this example.

The Chinese interjection 唉 (ai: alas) is the third empty word to be discussed in this section. According to the Online Chinese Dictionary compiled by Taiwan’s Ministry of Education, this word expresses grief, pity or agreement; in this example, the first idea is taken. Since 唉 refers to a sigh in this sentence, the English interjection “alas” can be regarded as a suitable translation. However, the translator chose to translate 唉 into “to my amazement”. Since the word “amazement” means surprise or astonishment (Concise Oxford English Dictionary: 40), it does not convey the original idea at all. Therefore, this translation is deemed to be a mismatch.

The fourth example is another easy-to-spot mismatch. The empty word 较 (jiao: more) is usually used in comparative sentences to reveal that the degree of the state of something is greater/less than that of the other. From such a definition, the best match in English is known to be the suffix “-er” or the word “more”. Nevertheless, in this example, the translator translated 较多 (jiao duo: thicker) into “thickest”, which instead forms the superlative degree of the adjective “thick”. When we back translate “thickest” into Chinese, it becomes 最多 (zui duo: thickest). 较多 (thicker) and 最多 (thickest) are disparate ideas – there can be many points where see thicker grass, but the thickest grass is only seen in one spot; such a specificity mismatches the original message. Thus, this translation is also regarded as belonging to the category of Mismatch.

Lastly, the empty word in the fifth example is 畢竟 (bi jing) which conveys the idea of “in the end” and “after all”. The translator’s choice to translate this empty
word was “soon”, an English word which means “quickly” and “in a short time”. When comparing “soon” and “after all”, it can be noted that they have a different meaning. Therefore, this example is classified into the category of Mismatch.

As long as the meaning of the translation deviates from that of the source empty word, this example will be classified into the category of Mismatch. From the five examples in this section, I believe that readers must have had a clear idea of the definition of Mismatch. Although Mismatch is not one of the translation procedures, it is still included in my results and discussion in an attempt to cover all the occurrences identified by my analyses and to offer readers all possible conditions which translations make use of or belong to.

4.10 Concluding Remarks

In the Aims and Methodology Chapter, the research questions which were expected to be answered on the basis of my research results were listed. The answer to the first question has been revealed in this chapter. The first research question was:

1. What are the translation procedures for translating Chinese empty words into English?

The answer is that eight translation procedures and one non-procedure were identified when examining the corpus examples. These eight procedures were: 1) Match; 2) Paraphrase; 3) Shared Match; 4) Implicitation; 5) Amplification; 6) Grammatical Conveyance; 7) Borrowing; 8) Omission, while the non-procedure was Mismatch.

Prior to this research, many scholars have proposed many translation procedures. In the Literature Review Chapter, procedures brought forth by Vinay & Darbelnet, Nida, Newmark, Munday, Malone, Retsker, Chesterman, Loh, Liu and Su were
discussed. When classifying my examples into different procedure categories, these scholars’ methods were introduced into my analysis, and I named new procedures if I found examples which did not belong to any of the existing methods. At the end of my investigation, the only treatment which could be seen as a new one was the procedure of Grammatical Conveyance. This will be discussed in Chapter 5. In addition to the procedure of Grammatical Conveyance, my other treatments have already been discussed by earlier researchers. This reveals that the efforts expended by earlier researchers have covered almost all the possible translation approaches in Chinese-English empty word translation. Based on this, it could be inferred that earlier researchers’ procedures have also covered almost all possible translation approaches in Chinese-English translation. Nevertheless, this can only be a hypothesis which is likely to be true. Taking into account the fact that I identified one new treatment in my research, it is possible that some undiscovered features exist in the English translation of Chinese texts. If we want to obtain an answer, more studies need to be conducted which focus on identifying the translation procedures adopted by Chinese-English translators.
5.1 Comparing My Treatments with Those of Former Theorists

Translation procedures compiled by twelve scholars were discussed in chapter 2, in which it was pointed out that different theorists proposed dissimilar procedures because of having different investigative perspectives. Having noted this, I consider it to be worthwhile to examine whether or not there are similarities and dissimilarities between my treatments and theirs. My research materials are Chinese empty words which are different from those theorists’ materials, so it is likely that differences exist.

When comparing my treatments with those of former theorists, I found that most of my procedures had already been proposed by those scholars, as clarified by the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Procedures Identified in This Research</th>
<th>Theorists who Have Proposed Similar Ideas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Match</td>
<td>Vinay &amp; Darbelnet (Literal Translation), Malone (Equation), Retsker (Analogy), Chesterman (Literal Translation), Liu (Correspondence)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paraphrase</td>
<td>Vinay &amp; Darbelnet (Modulation), Malone (Substitution), Retsker (Logical Derivation), Chesterman (Paraphrase), Liu (Similarity), Su (Paraphrase)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shared Match</td>
<td>Vinay &amp; Darbelnet (Implication), Malone (Condensation), Chesterman (Distribution Change – Compression)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implicitation</td>
<td>Vinay &amp; Darbelnet (Reduction), Malone (Reduction), Chesterman (Explicitness Change – Implication)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amplification</td>
<td>Vinay &amp; Darbelnet (Amplification), Malone (Amplification), Chesterman (Explicitness Change - Explicitation), Loh (Amplification), Su (Amplification)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammatical Conveyance</td>
<td>Vinay &amp; Darbelnet (Borrowing), Nida (Phonological Correspondence), Munday (Phonological Translation), Chesterman (Loan), Loh</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5-1 Comparisons between My Treatments and Former Theorists’

From this table, it can be seen that almost all the procedures identified in this research have been discussed by former theorists (although they may have used different terms to convey similar ideas, e.g. Implicitation ↔ Condensation ↔ Compression). The languages included in the twelve theorists’ and my discussions are English, Chinese, French, Greek, Russian and German, and all the translation procedures are applicable in the translation of any language pairs among these six languages. This may indicate that translation procedures are largely universal, and only small differences exist. In my case, the difference is that a new procedure is identified, namely the procedure of Grammatical Conveyance, which covers the addition of suffixes (e.g. the use of “-ed” to form the past tense) and the use of grammatical rules (e.g. the + adjective). In fact, several theorists, including Vinay & Darbelnet, Catford, Chesterman, Loh and Su, have discussed the use of grammar as a way to translate texts, but their concepts are dissimilar from mine to some extent.

To begin with, Vinay & Darbelnet and Su focus on the change of word classes. In their book, Vinay & Darbelnet discuss the ways to deal with different kinds of words, structures and messages. When structures are touched upon, they present the transposition of word classes between English and French, for example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adverb → Verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He merely nodded.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Past participle → Noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He sheltered his cigarette in his cupped hand.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The discussion of the conversion of word classes between English and French is based on the procedure of Transposition (a procedure also mentioned by Chesterman), and the linguistic features possessed by English and French are highlighted. Su presents a similar argument, but his materials are the Chinese translation of English phrases. All in all, the four theorists suggest the change of word classes as a way to do translation, but according to my definitions (see 4.1 and 4.6), such changes are regarded as belonging to the category of Match.

Additionally, Loh discusses the ways to translate various kinds of English words into Chinese, touching upon nouns, pronouns, relatives, demonstratives, indefinites, interrogatives, articles, tenses, aspects, passives, subjunctives, modal verbs, modifiers, numerals, connectives, conjunctions and prepositions. His exhaustive explanation helps readers know how English words can be naturally rendered into Chinese. Nevertheless, his focus is solely on English \( \rightarrow \) Chinese translation, and the concepts applied are dissimilar from those applied to Chinese \( \rightarrow \) English translation, as in my case.

Lastly, Catford proposes a concept, called translation shifts, which has wider coverage (shifts in category, class, intra-system, level, structure and unit), and this concept is also seen in Chesterman’s strategies (see 2.1.3.6). Because these two scholars’ arguments cover too many aspects, there are cases which I regard as belonging to a category other than Grammatical Conveyance, e.g. unit shifts.

The above paragraphs explain why I consider the procedure of Grammatical Conveyance to be different from those of other theorists. The reason Grammatical Conveyance can be taken to be a new procedure may be that there is a great grammar
difference between English and Chinese. A great difference means that there are more situations (compared with the translation between closely related languages) in which translators can retain source messages by using the grammatical nature of the target language; thus, Grammatical Conveyance becomes more noticeable. It is inferred that this new procedure can be identified in the translation between two languages with greatly different grammar systems, e.g. Chinese → Russian, Arabic → Japanese, etc. In addition, another possible reason is that it is a procedure peculiar to a situation in which translators are translating from a less inflected language into a more inflected one.

5.2 Empty Words with a Fixed Translation

When examining examples in my research corpus, it was noted that different translators used the same English words to replace some empty words. This could indicate that there are fixed translations for these empty words. Although this finding is not related to translation procedures, it is considered to be worth mentioning in this thesis. The following list shows all such empty words.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Empty Word</th>
<th>Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>连…也… (structure)</td>
<td>even</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>以…为… (structure)</td>
<td>take…as…; use…as…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>一…就… (structure)</td>
<td>…as soon as…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>越…越… (structure); 越来越/愈来愈… (compound)</td>
<td>more and more…; -er…-er…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>怪不得 (compound)</td>
<td>no wonder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>不由得 (compound)</td>
<td>couldn’t help…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>好容易 (compound)</td>
<td>with (great) difficulty…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>禁不住 (compound)</td>
<td>could not help but…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(這/也)就是說 (compound)</td>
<td>that is to say…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>給 (particle)</td>
<td>replaced by passive voice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>地 (particle)</td>
<td>replaced by –ly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>過 (particle)</td>
<td>replaced by past tense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>前後 (particle)</td>
<td>around</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>左右 (particle)</td>
<td>about, around, beside</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>按照 (preposition)</td>
<td>according to…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>趁 (preposition)</td>
<td>take advantage of…; take the chance/opportunity to…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>被 (preposition)</td>
<td>replaced by passive voice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>比 (preposition)</td>
<td>than</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>除了 (preposition)</td>
<td>except (for); apart from</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>從 (preposition)</td>
<td>from</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>當 (preposition)</td>
<td>when, as, while</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>替 (preposition)</td>
<td>for</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>順著 (preposition)</td>
<td>following/along</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>據 (preposition)</td>
<td>according to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>沿 (preposition)</td>
<td>along</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>依、�� (preposition)</td>
<td>according to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>由 (preposition)</td>
<td>from, by</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>不但 (conjunction)</td>
<td>not only…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>比如 (conjunction)</td>
<td>for example</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>但、但是 (conjunction)</td>
<td>but, however</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>還是 (conjunction)</td>
<td>or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>既然 (conjunction)</td>
<td>since</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>假如、假若、假、使如、如果、若、若是、設若 (conjunction)</td>
<td>if</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>甚至、甚至於 (conjunction)</td>
<td>even</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>雖、雖然、雖說、雖則 (conjunction)</td>
<td>though, although, despite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>要是 (conjunction)</td>
<td>if</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>不曾 (adverb)</td>
<td>never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>別 (adverb)</td>
<td>don’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>不禁 (adverb)</td>
<td>couldn’t help…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>常 (adverb)</td>
<td>often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>初 (adverb)</td>
<td>first</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>大概 (adverb)</td>
<td>probably</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>單 (adverb)</td>
<td>alone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>各 (adverb)</td>
<td>each</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>好在 (adverb)</td>
<td>luckily, fortunately</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>互相 (adverb)</td>
<td>each other, one another</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>極、極其、極為 (adverb)</td>
<td>extremely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>竭力 (adverb)</td>
<td>do one’s best</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>究竟 (adverb)</td>
<td>after all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>全 (adverb)</td>
<td>all, completely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>是否 (adverb)</td>
<td>whether, if</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>隨時 (adverb)</td>
<td>at any time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>太 (adverb)</td>
<td>too</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>相當 (adverb)</td>
<td>quite, fairly, rather</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>已、已經 (adverb)</td>
<td>have, already</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>尤其 (adverb)</td>
<td>especially</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>再度 (adverb)</td>
<td>again, once more</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>在、正 (adverb)</td>
<td>replaced by -ing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>真 (adverb)</td>
<td>really</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>至少 (adverb)</td>
<td>at least</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>總 (adverb)</td>
<td>always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>總是 (adverb)</td>
<td>always, after all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>足、足以 (adverb)</td>
<td>enough</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>最、最為 (adverb)</td>
<td>most, -est, best of all, most of all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>最好 (adverb)</td>
<td>would be best, it’s best, had better</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5-2 Empty Words with a Fixed Translation

Table 5-2 is a compilation table of empty words which have fixed translation. It is interesting that different translators translate some words in the same way, although there are a number of ways for them to choose. For example, 禁不住 can also be replaced by “cannot resist” and “cannot stand”, and other suitable translations of 常 are “usually” and “frequently”. In a situation in which a word is translated in the same way by different translators, this could be called a pattern. Translators can facilitate their work by applying these patterns to their translation cases.

5.3 Use Frequencies of these Procedures and the Non-procedure

The eight translation procedures and one non-procedure which have been identified in the research were discussed in Chapter 4. Furthermore, examples were given to provide clear ideas of these treatments. Having identified them, the number of examples of each treatment identified in every word category was counted, and the numbers were compiled in Table 5-3.
The numbers listed in Table 5-3 were gained from analysing all the examples in the corpus, and these have been converted into percentages in Table 5-4. As a further step, the results are ranked as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adv. (4760)</td>
<td>2301</td>
<td>315</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1341</td>
<td>380</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conj. (1172)</td>
<td>772</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prep. (585)</td>
<td>289</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parti. (558)</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inter. (172)</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comp. (146)</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stru. (188)</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total (7581)</td>
<td>3717</td>
<td>512</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>313</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>288</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1983</td>
<td>527</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5-3 Amount of Examples of Each Procedure in Different Empty Word Categories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adv. (4760)</td>
<td>48.34</td>
<td>6.62</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>28.17</td>
<td>7.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conj. (1172)</td>
<td>65.87</td>
<td>5.63</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5.29</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13.31</td>
<td>7.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prep. (585)</td>
<td>49.40</td>
<td>5.47</td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>4.96</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>34.02</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parti. (558)</td>
<td>19.18</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>6.09</td>
<td>1.79</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>26.70</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>39.78</td>
<td>2.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inter. (172)</td>
<td>55.81</td>
<td>8.72</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7.56</td>
<td>15.12</td>
<td>9.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comp. (146)</td>
<td>34.93</td>
<td>23.29</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8.90</td>
<td>2.06</td>
<td>10.96</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>14.38</td>
<td>5.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stru. (188)</td>
<td>53.72</td>
<td>18.09</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9.58</td>
<td>7.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>46.75</td>
<td>10.10</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>1.59</td>
<td>6.74</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>22.05</td>
<td>6.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5-4 Use Frequencies of Translation Procedures (all figures are %s and most frequently used one for each class is marked in bold)
Adverbs:
Match > Omission > Mismatch > Paraphrase > Implicitation > Shared Match > Grammatical Conveyance > Amplification > Borrowing

Conjunctions:
Match > Omission > Mismatch > Paraphrase > Implicitation > Amplification > Grammatical Conveyance > Shared Match = Borrowing

Prepositions:
Match > Omission > Paraphrase > Implicitation > Grammar > Shared Match > Mismatch > Amplification > Borrowing

Particles:
Omission > Grammatical Conveyance > Match > Shared Match > Paraphrase > Mismatch > Implicitation > Amplification > Borrowing

Interjections:
Match > Omission > Mismatch > Paraphrase > Borrowing > Amplification > Implicitation > Shared Match = Grammatical Conveyance

Compounds:
Match > Paraphrase > Omission > Grammatical Conveyance > Implicitation > Mismatch > Amplification > Shared Match = Borrowing
Structures:
Match > Paraphrase > Omission > Mismatch > Implicitation = Grammatical Conveyance > Amplification > Shared Match = Borrowing

Overall:
Match > Omission > Paraphrase > Mismatch > Implicitation = Grammatical Conveyance > Amplification > Shared Match > Borrowing

5.3.1 Procedure of Match as the Most-Adopted Translation Method

It is obvious that the procedure of Match is the most-adopted translation method in all empty word categories except the category of Particle. Highest percentage for the procedure of Match could indicate that the translators have managed to correctly understand the meaning of the empty words and find corresponding words in English. Nevertheless, what is worth pointing out is that the percentage of this procedure in all categories is not high: the highest percentage can be seen in the category of Conjunction (65.87%) and lowest in the category of Particle (19.18%). The percentage of the procedure of Match is also low in the category of Compound (34.93%), which is the second lowest. For the others, the percentage hovers around 50%, and the average across all classes is 46.75%. Such results corroborate what was pointed out in the Literature Review Chapter: Chinese empty words convey different ideas in different contexts and some of them do not have a clear meaning, so it is in general more difficult to translate empty words than solid words. If the meaning of an empty word is ambiguous, translators may not be able to fully grasp it and may only be able to translate it sketchily (the first reason for the low percentage of the procedure of Match). Moreover, ambiguous empty word meaning may even cause misunderstanding and lead to mismatching translations (the second reason).
Additionally, there are no corresponding English words for some Chinese empty words (e.g. the particle 哪). In this case, translators can only omit the words or translate them in different ways (the third reason). The last reason is that the procedure of Match is not always the best choice. As discussed in Chapter 4, other procedures, such as the procedures of Shared Match and Paraphrase, may sometimes be better options for translators to take because they help create natural/adequate target texts. Therefore, there is no need to translate every source word faithfully, so translators may translate in the way they feel is most suitable and comfortable; thus, the procedure of Match is not always the first choice.

The percentage of the procedure of Match goes up to 65.87% in the category of Conjunction possibly because conjunctions are important elements in both Chinese and English texts and have a clear meaning. First of all, conjunctions, in most situations, are needed to connect words, phrases and clauses. Besides, conjunctions have a clear meaning, so it is quite unlikely that translators misunderstand them. Further, Chinese and English share similar conjunctions; that is to say, a match in English can usually be found. Take some common conjunctions for example: 比如 → for example/for instance/like, 如果 → if, 然而 → but/however/nevertheless, 雖然 → although/though, 以及 → and/along with. These conjunctions are dealt with so many times that their translations can be produced in a very short time. Perhaps, it can be said that there are patterns in our mind already; when we see a conjunction, we replace it with a certain English counterpart (this phenomenon can be noted when translating many common words, be they solid or empty). Since conjunctions are mainly connectives, it is rare that the patterns go wrong. This is the last reason why the procedure of Match occupies a high proportion.

Among all the empty word categories, the procedure of Match does not occupy the first place in the category of Particle. The reason why the procedure of Match only

The actual meaning of 助詞 is “auxiliary words”, so called because they may supplement other words or end a sentence, but cannot be used independently.

The three main kinds of particles are modal particles, aspect particles and structural particles. Modal particles are monosyllables pronounced in the neutral tone and attached to the end of a sentence; they do not affect the meaning of the sentence, but add a sense of interrogation, surprise, affirmation, realization, delight, approval, disdain, and so on. The four aspect particles are 了, 著, 過 and 來著; they are attached to verbs. The three structural particles 的, 地, 得, all pronounced “de”, connect the attributive and its head, the adverbial and its head, and the verb or adjective and its complement respectively. Another particle 之, is a remnant from classical Chinese.

There are also some particles, usually disyllabic and used at the end of a sentence or with another word, which either are in conjunction with a preliminary word or add a tonal touch to the sentence. Such particles usually may be deleted without affecting the meaning of the sentence.

It can be seen from Wang’s comments that particles function as auxiliaries to supplement other words, so it is likely that they are translated together with other words. For example, when one of the three structural particles, 地 (de), is taken as a particle, it does not have an independent meaning and is only used as a suffix to form an adverb, e.g. 快樂地 = happily, 生氣地 = angrily, 悲傷地 = sadly, etc. Generally speaking, translators will directly use “-ly” to translate 地 without a second thought because –ly matches 地. Nevertheless, I do not regard suffixation (and prefixation) as belonging to the procedure of Match because there is no corresponding independent word(s) in the translation. Besides, since the addition of suffixes/prefixes is an

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18 Although –ly constitutes Match on the morpheme level, I exclude this in my research and focus only
action performed by translators to give words extra meaning, such an action cannot be counted in the procedure of Shared Match, the examples of which only include English words which can cover the meaning of two or more Chinese words without any addition. Finally, I decided to classify them into the procedure of Grammatical Conveyance. Particles which are usually dealt with in this way are 地 (de: -ly), 的 (de: ’s), 過 (guo: -ed), 了 (le: -ed) and 著 (zhe: -ing).

In addition, another group of words which are seen as being translated by the procedure of Grammatical Conveyance are 啊 (a: translated by interrogative or exclamative), 麼 (me: translated by interrogative), 嗎 (ma: translated by interrogative), 呢 (ne: translated by interrogative) and 呀 (ya: translated by imperative or exclamative). These empty words are adopted simply to nuance the tones of sentences, so the ideas/functions that the sentences aim to convey/fulfil will not change if translators omit these empty words. Besides, these words do not have a clear meaning; hence, it is difficult to find their English correspondents. Because of this difficulty, plus with the fact that the lack of these words in translations will not alter the meaning, translators do not pay much attention to them, which leads to a high proportion of Omission. Additionally, the meaning of these words can sometimes be rendered by sentence functions, including interrogative, exclamative and imperative. When the meaning of an empty word is retained by a sentence function, the example is classified into the category of Grammatical Conveyance.

To sum up, translators often employ the procedure of Grammatical Conveyance to tackle Chinese particles, including 地, 的, 過, 了, 著, 啊, 麼, 嗎, 呢 and 呀. Furthermore, due to the fact that these empty words are common in Chinese texts, the

on word-level match. This is my choice when conducting this research, and this policy can be adjusted when future researchers conduct similar studies and consider it to be necessary.
procedure of Grammatical Conveyance ranks higher than that of Match in the
category of Particles.

5.3.2 Suggested English Translation of Chinese Conjunctions

In the previous section, it was mentioned that the procedure of Match accounts
for the highest percentage in the category of Conjunction. Because there are limited
common Chinese conjunctions and their English translations are not greatly varied, I
would like to compile these common conjunctions into a list for the reference of
future researchers and translators.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chinese</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>比如 (bi ru), 譬如 (pi ru)</td>
<td>for example, for instance, like</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>並 (bing), 並且 (bing qie)</td>
<td>and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>不但 (bu dan)</td>
<td>not only...(but also…)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>不管 (bu guan), 不論 (bu lun), 無論 (wu lun)</td>
<td>no matter, regardless of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>不然 (bu ran), 否則 (fo ze), 要不 (yao bu), 要不然 (yao bu ran)</td>
<td>otherwise, or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>不過 (bu guo), 但 (dan), 但是 (dan shi), 可 (ke), 可是 (ke shi), 然而 (ran er)</td>
<td>but, however, nevertheless</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>而 (er)</td>
<td>and, yet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>而且 (er qie), 况且 (kuang qie)</td>
<td>and, moreover</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>故 (ku)</td>
<td>hence, so</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>固然 (ku ran)</td>
<td>of course, certainly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>還是 (hai shi), 或 (huo), 或者 (huo zhe)</td>
<td>or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>和 (han or he), 同 (tong), 與 (yu)</td>
<td>and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>何況 (he kuang)</td>
<td>moreover, what's more</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>即便 (ji bian), 即使 (ji shi), 就是 (jiu shi)</td>
<td>even if, even though</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>既然 (ji ran)</td>
<td>since</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>假如 (jia ru), 如 (ru), 如果 (ru guo), 若 (ruo), 若是 (ruo shi), 設若 (she ruo), 倘若 (tang ruo), 要是 (yao shi)</td>
<td>if</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>接著 (jie zhe), 那 (na)</td>
<td>then</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>那麼 (na me)</td>
<td>then, in that case, so</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>難怪 (nan guai)</td>
<td>no wonder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>除非 (chu fei)</td>
<td>unless, except</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>寧可 (ning ke), 寧肯 (ning ken), 寧願 (ning yuan)</td>
<td>would rather</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
且 (qie) and
甚至 (shen zhi), 甚至於 (shen zhi yu) even
虽然 (sui), 雖然 (sui ran), 雖說 (sui shuo) although, though
所以 (suo yi), 於是 (yu shi) so, therefore, as a result
以及 (yi ji) and, along with
因为 (yin wei) because
因此 (yin ci) as a result, for this reason, so
只要 (zhi yao) as long as

Table 5-5 List of Chinese Conjunctions and their English Translations

The above table is compiled on the basis of relevant translations noted in my corpus examples. It is not difficult to observe that the meaning of Chinese conjunctions is clear, and it is easy to find their English correspondents because these words are also common in English. Albeit it is well-known that these Chinese conjunctions can be replaced by these English words, it may not have been noted that, because many translators choose them as target correspondents, they can be regarded as patterns. If translators want to translate one of the Chinese conjunctions, they only have to choose an English word in the column on its right-hand side and it will be a corresponding translation. However, please note that there are some exceptions. 而 can represent the idea of “and” and that of “but”, and 即便, 即使 and 就是 stand for the ideas of “even if” and “even though”. When translators tackle these four empty words, they have to pay attention to the contexts and choose suitable translations.

5.3.3 Procedure of Amplification as the Least-Adopted Translation Method

The procedures of Shared Match and Borrowing are translation methods that are characteristic of certain empty word categories, so they are disregarded when identifying the least-adopted procedure. Based on this, Amplification is the least-used in almost all empty word cateogories (with the category of Interjection as the sole exception). Although there is still a percentage difference in the use frequency of
Amplification in the empty word categories, it is not a very large difference; the biggest difference, that is, the difference between the highest percentage (seen in the category of Interjection) and the lowest (seen in the category of Preposition) is only 1.65%. This may suggest that translators tend not to add extra information to their translation no matter what kind of word they are dealing with. Sticking to the meaning of the source text as much as they possibly can is still the policy which is most frequently adopted.

The only empty word category in which the procedure of Amplification is not the least-adopted method is the category of Interjection; instead, the procedure of Grammatical Conveyance occupies the last place for this category. This outcome was explained in Section 4.6, in which the procedure of Grammatical Conveyance was defined and relevant examples provided. From those examples, it can be found that the procedure of Grammatical Conveyance is applicable to the situations in which the empty words are used to modify a noun, an action or a situation (e.g. 精神病者 = the mentally ill, 被搶走 = been nicked, 一邊走一邊揮動 = walks into..., swishing..., 越來越感到逼近 = drawing nearer and nearer). In the mean time, the fourth example in Table 4-6 reveals that this procedure also works to replace Chinese empty words which are put at the end of sentences to express the ideas of surprise or interrogation. Here, the word 啊, which conveys a tone of interrogation, is rendered by the form of an interrogative sentence in translation.

Having identified the kinds of words which can be tackled by the procedure of Grammatical Conveyance, we can further determine if there are interjections which belong to any of these kinds. None of the 33 interjections listed by Wang (1994: 677) is a modifier. In addition, similar to particles, interjections express the idea of surprise, doubt, dismay, sadness, etc., but the two groups of words function differently. Particles are supplements without independence, whereas interjections are
independent words which mimic speakers’ exclamations; hence, various feelings are conveyed. Due to their different usages, they cannot be tackled in the same way.

It can be seen from the above examination that interjections have a different nature from the empty words seen in the examples in Table 4-6, and because of this, the procedure of Grammatical Conveyance is not applicable; hence, the zero percentage.

5.3.4 Category-specific Procedures: Procedures of Shared Match and Borrowing

5.3.4.1 Using the procedure of Shared Match to translate empty words

In Table 5-4, it can also be seen that the procedures of Shared Match and Borrowing are only seen in a few empty word categories. This is an interesting phenomenon because it indicates that the two procedures may not work well when translating empty words in other categories. In the following paragraphs, the applicability of the two procedures in empty word translation will be investigated.

Shared Match is the procedure of using one English word to retain the meaning of two or more Chinese words. It is mainly adopted in the category of Particle (6.09%), followed by Adverb (2.14%) and Preposition (1.54%). However, more examples can be seen in the category of Adverb (84 examples, covering 42 empty words) than Particle (31 examples, covering 8 empty words), and the reason for the higher percentage in the category of Particle relates to the nature of particles and the number of examples. To begin with, as can be seen in Table 5-4, the procedure of Match is not widely used in the category of Particle. This is because there are many particles which cannot be properly tackled by this procedure. Translators have to provide other solutions to translate these empty words; hence the higher percentage in the use of other procedures. Moreover, the total number of examples in this category is lower, so the number of examples tackled by the procedure of Shared Match
occupies a greater proportion. In this situation, the percentage of the procedure of
Shared Match is higher.

Having examined the percentage of the procedure of Shared Match in the three
categories, a further analysis on the examples in which this procedure was adopted
was conducted. All the relevant examples were collected and examined, and it was
concluded that there are four kinds of empty words in which the procedure of Shared
Match is applied:

1. Empty words which are taken as tone reinforcers/supplements

   In the Chinese language, some words are added at the end of sentences as tone
   reinforcers/supplements. When looking at the earlier parts of the sentences, other
   words with a similar meaning can be seen there. Examples are listed in Table 5-6.

   It can be noted in Table 5-6 that examples of this kind are all from the category
   of Particle. This supports Wang’s definition of particles in Section 5.3.2, in which he
   points out that Chinese particles are auxiliary words which supplement other words or
   end a sentence. In the first example, 罷了 (ba le: two modal words) means “that’s all”,
   and its meaning is close to 只是 (zhi shi: just). 罴了, which is at the end of this
   sentence, is a modal particle which is used with 只是 to express the idea of “just”. If
   罴了 is removed, the meaning of the sentence is still the same. For the reason that 罴了
   and 只是 convey the same idea, it is reasonable that the translator only puts
   “merely” in the translation. What is more, if the extra idea 罴了 is kept in the sentence,
   the translation will be similar to that in the sixth column. Although the addition of
   “and that’s all” does not alter the meaning, it makes the translation relatively wordy.
   Therefore, it is considered that using the procedure of Shared Match in this case is
   better than sticking to the procedure of Match.

   In the second example, the empty word 不成 (bu cheng: literally “not do”) is
   always placed at the end of a sentence to reinforce the tone of questioning. This empty
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text Title &amp; Issue Number</th>
<th>Translator</th>
<th>Source Text</th>
<th>Translation</th>
<th>Translation for Comparison</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A Race of Generals/19&amp;20</td>
<td>Lucien Miller</td>
<td>...他只是做著樣子罷了…</td>
<td>He merely pretended that he was playing.</td>
<td>He merely pretended that he was playing, and that’s all…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On the Cross/37</td>
<td>Janice Wickeri</td>
<td>...莫非是你爺爺他爺爺她爺爺外國人的爺爺不成？</td>
<td>...could it be he’s your grandpappy or his or hers or some foreigner’s?</td>
<td>...could it be he’s your gradpappy or his or hers or some foreigner’s, no?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Umbilicus/63</td>
<td>Susan Wilf</td>
<td>只不過因為他回罵了對方幾句而已。</td>
<td>Just because he’d talked back.</td>
<td>Just because he’d talked back and that’s all.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ah Xiao’s Unhappy Autumn/52</td>
<td>Simon Patton</td>
<td>彷彿高攀不上似的…</td>
<td>...she seemed unable to bridge the social gap between them…</td>
<td>...it looks like she seems unable to bridge the social gap between them…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flies/35&amp;36</td>
<td>Peter Morris</td>
<td>約莫兩三點左右</td>
<td>...somewhere between two and three o’clock in the afternoon…</td>
<td>...somewhere between two and three o’clock in the afternoon and around that time…</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5-6 Examples of Empty Words which are Taken as Tone Reinforcers/Supplements

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19 The columns of Word Class and Treatment are omitted because all of these examples are particles which belong to the category of Shared Match.
word usually appears with 莫非 (mo fei: could it be) and 難道 (nan dao: could it be) and they are often tackled together because they are collocations. Since不成 is used to form an interrogative, “could it be”, the translation of 莫非 and 難道, alone is sufficient to convey the meaning. This is the reason why the translator did not add any extra word. Likewise, 只不過 (zhi bu guo: merely) and 而已 (er yi: merely) were translated into “just” in the third example because they share the same meaning. In the fourth example, 彷彿 (fang fu) refers to the idea of “as if” or “seem”, and 似的 (si de), the supplementary particle, has the same meaning. Therefore, the translator also used an English term to cover both words. The last empty word is 左右 (zuo you), which is similar to “approximately” or “about” in English. This Chinese particle reinforces the word at the beginning of this sentence, 約莫 (yue mo). Again, the translator did not expend extra effort to translate 左右 because “somewhere between” is sufficient to convey this idea.

The examples in Table 5-6 indicate that empty words which are taken as tone reinforcers or supplements are often translated with another word into one single English word. This is because they share a similar meaning. It can also be noted from this table that adopting the procedure of Shared Match is more appropriate than using Match. Take the fifth example for instance.

**ST:** 彷彿高攀不上似的…
**TT:** …she seemed unable to bridge the social gap between them…
**CT:** …it looks like she seems unable to bridge the social gap between them…

**CT** (Translation for Comparison) is a translation which follows the procedure of Match. When we compare it to the translation provided by the translator, it can be found that CT is wordy and confusing; readers may wonder why “it looks like”,
which means the same as “seems”, is put here. Actually, “she seemed…” or “it seemed she was…” (i.e. the use of Shared Match) can convey the source message well. Based on this example, it can be said that using the procedure of Match is not always the best policy.

2. Empty words which collocate with other words

Some empty words collocate with other words, and this is not uncommon in Chinese. Among examples which belong to the category of Shared Match, there are eight empty words which fall within this case.

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>從不 (cong bu: literally “ever no”)</td>
<td>Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>從沒有 (cong mei you: literally “ever no have”)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>從未 (cong wei: literally “ever never”)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>從來沒 (cong lai mei: literally “ever no”)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>從來沒有 (cong lai mei you: literally “ever no have”)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>決不 (jue bu: literally “absolutely no”)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>絕不 (jue bu: literally “absolutely no”)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>斷不 (duan bu: literally “absolutely no”)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5-7 Empty Words which Collocate with Other Word(s)

The empty words in Table 5-7 are adverbs: 從 (cong: ever), 決 (jue: absolutely), 絕 (jue: absolutely) and 斷 (duan: absolutely). When these four Chinese adverbs are used as independent words, they convey different ideas. Here, taken as empty words, they usually collocate with other words and are often used in a negative statement. When translators tackle such collocations, it is better (and saves time) to translate them with the single English word “never” than to replace them with “not ever”, “ever no”, and so forth. This is because, if we insist on taking care of every word, unwanted influences would occur. For example:
Example A:
ST: 我從沒有見過像你這樣無恥的人...
TT: I’ve never met anyone so disgusting...
CT: I’ve not ever met anyone so disgusting...

Example B:
ST: 王文明上課不說話、不搞小動作，絕不妨礙人家...
TT: Wang Wenming never talked during class; he never got into trouble and had never been a hindrance to anyone.
CT: Wang Wenming never talked during class; he never got into trouble and had absolutely not been a hindrance to anyone.

In example A, “not ever” is a “more” corresponding way to substitute 從沒有 in English, but it leads to a misunderstanding that the writer wants to place an emphasis in here. In example B, the author used three 不 to form a rhythm and constitute a strong tone of affirmation. In order to retain both of these elements, the translator adopted three “nevers” in the translation. However, “never” is not the best corresponding translation of 絕不. If we stick to the procedure of Match, the translation would be “absolutely not”. However, this not only causes wordiness, but also destroys the rhythm produced by the repetition of three “nevers”.

It can be seen from the two examples that converting every word into English, i.e. always sticking to the procedure of Match, is not always the best policy. Taking into consideration the context, the procedure of Shared Match can sometimes be a better way to produce translation.

3. Empty words which are combined with other word(s) due to the tendency of using four-character expressions in Chinese

In Chinese, four-character expressions are very common. According to Ji:
…the number four is a special symbol in traditional Chinese culture which tends to link phrases made up of four characters with stylistic elegance and formality. As a result, this four-character pattern is widely and purposely exploited in Chinese formal and literary writings, in which the appearance of four-character words or phrases plays a unique role in enhancing the idiomaticity and aesthetic value of the language.

(2008: 49)

In fact, the habit of using four-character expressions is seen not only in formal and literary writing, but also in casual articles and even daily dialogues. Chinese-speaking people feel that to speak/write four characters at a time makes the speech/article relatively catchy and rhythmic. Because of this mindset, some empty words appear with other words in order to constitute four-character expressions.

The following example, which belongs to the category of Shared Match, falls within this kind.

ST: 大響從腰裡掏出一支柳笛，嘟嘟地吹起來，笛聲連續不斷，十足的淒楚嗚嘰之聲。
TT: Boomer drew a reed pipe from his waist and began a non-stop tootling on it; a terribly plaintive, sobbing sound.
CT: Boomer drew a reed pipe from his waist and began a constant and non-stop tootling on it; a terribly plaintive, sobbing sound.

In this example, 連續 (lian xu: continue) and 不斷 (bu duan: non-stop) convey a similar meaning. They appear together only because a four-character expression can be formed. In this situation, translators may wonder if they should use two similar English words to respectively represent them. From the CT, it can be concluded that it is better not to go this way because the principle of sticking to the procedure of Match will lead to wordiness here. Unless the state of continuity needs to be emphasised, it is unnecessary to put two similar words in the same place.
4. Empty words which can be translated together with other word(s) in English

Chinese and English are two different languages, so it is likely and not uncommon that one English word can convey two or more Chinese ideas. Five examples of this can be seen in Table 5-8.

In the first example, the empty word 沒 (mei: no) collocates with 幾乎 (ji hu: almost) to form the meaning of “almost not”. In English, there are some words which can cover the two ideas together, such as scarcely, barely and hardly. Again, it is feasible if we want to stick to the procedure of Match; “almost don’t” can be taken as a translation under this procedure, but such a translation, again, causes wordiness.

The second example is another good example of the conciseness achieved by the procedure of Shared Match. The empty word 猛 (meng) is an adverb which refers to “suddenly and forcefully”. In the target text, the translator adopted “yank” as its translation. This verb covers the idea of 猛 (meng: suddenly and forcefully) and that of 抽回 (cho hui: pull back) at the same time; thus, the sentence is concise. If “suddenly and forcefully” was put into the sentence, the translation would be longer.

The same situation can also be seen in the other three examples. The preposition 往 (wang) is used to show direction, and this meaning is widely conveyed by the suffix “–ward” in English. The Chinese particle 者 (zhe), discussed in the previous chapter, is often retained in English by suffixes, including “–ist”, “–er” and “-or”. As for the empty word in the last example, the English verb “inch” means to move by small degrees, the idea of 稍微 (shao wei: somewhat) is, hence, involved.

In the sixth column, the CTs were produced on the basis of the procedure of Match; it can be seen that they are not as concise as the translations in the fifth column, which were produced by translators on the basis of the procedure of Shared Match. Based on these examples, we may be able to reason that translators have a conscious (or subconscious) inclination to producing concise translations when
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word Class</th>
<th>Text Title &amp; Issue Number</th>
<th>Translator</th>
<th>Source Text</th>
<th>Translation</th>
<th>Translation for Comparison</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adverb</td>
<td>Father’s Last Two Days/38</td>
<td>Harriet Clompus</td>
<td>整整一天，幾乎沒動過…</td>
<td>Sitting there whole day and <em>scarcely</em> moving at all.</td>
<td>Sitting there whole day and <em>almost don’t</em> move at all.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverb</td>
<td>Curvaceous Dolls/27&amp;28</td>
<td>Howard Goldblatt</td>
<td>鄰家女孩猛向後抽回娃娃…</td>
<td>The other girl yanked it back…</td>
<td>The other girl <em>suddenly and forcefully</em> pulled back the doll…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preposition</td>
<td>End of the Rickshaw Boy/10</td>
<td>Perry Link</td>
<td>順著城根往西走…</td>
<td>…ambled <em>westward</em> along the city wall.</td>
<td>…ambled <em>in the direction of</em> west along the city wall.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Particle</td>
<td>Marx Enters the Confucian Temple/51</td>
<td>Matthew Finbeiner &amp; Timothy Wixted</td>
<td>有許多人都把我當成物質主義者…</td>
<td>There are many who would make a materialist of me.</td>
<td>There are many who would see me as <em>a person who is materialistic</em>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverb</td>
<td>Dream the Seventy Second/57</td>
<td>T. M. McClellan</td>
<td>每隔二十秒至二十五秒才稍微向前移動一下。</td>
<td>…the truck <em>inched</em> forward every twenty or twenty-five seconds.</td>
<td>…the truck moved forward <em>a little bit</em> every twenty or twenty-five seconds.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5-8 Examples of Empty Words which can be Translated Together with Other Word(s)
translating; this corroborates Levý’s argument that translators tend to pay a minimum effort to produce a maximum effect (2001: 148-159). Besides, it could also be inferred that the target text becomes succinct because 1) translators tend to omit repetitions or 2) there happen to be English words which can convey two or more ideas.

Meanwhile, from the discussion of the four kinds of empty words, we may also be able to reason that the procedure of Shared Match is not seen in other empty word categories because there are not such empty words in those categories. There are four reasons why such empty words do not exist in other categories, and these are explained below.

Firstly, based on Wang’s definition of the seven empty word categories (1994), it can be concluded that only particles can be tone reinforcers or supplements. Therefore, it is unlikely that empty words in other categories can be seen to function as modal terms in texts. Secondly, adverbs can be adopted to modify verbs, adjectives and other adverbs, so it is not uncommon for them to collocate with other word(s). Nevertheless, empty words in other categories do not possess such a function, so these empty words are not seen to collocate with other word(s). Thirdly, four-character expressions are not applicable in some empty word categories. For example, all empty words in the category of Compound are composed of three Chinese characters (e.g. 不得不, 好容易, 想不到, etc.). Therefore, it is not likely that Chinese writers add an extra character to make a four-character expression. This is because four-character expressions are generally based on two sets of two-character expressions. Another example is empty words in the category of Structure. Chinese structures are composed of two sets of words which are placed in two different parts of sentences, e.g. 一…就…, 一面…一面…, 又…又…, etc. As can be seen, it is difficult to create four-character expressions on the basis of these empty words because they are divided into two parts. Lastly, for the empty words in the other four categories (Compound,
Conjunction, Interjection and Structure), there are not likely to be English words which can cover their meaning and that of other word(s) at the same time. This argument is relatively difficult to prove because it can never be known whether there is really an English word which can achieve this. After all, English is a living language with new words being coined from time to time. Therefore, there is no guarantee that there will never be English compound(s), conjunction(s), interjection(s) or structure(s) which can cover the meaning of two (or more) words at a time. Yet, there are no examples in my corpus which belong to the other four categories and were tackled by the procedure of Shared Match. As a result, I take the view that the procedure of Shared Match is only used in the categories of Adverb, Particle and Preposition.

5.3.4.2 Exclusive use of the procedure of Borrowing in the category of Interjection

Another piece of information obtained from Table 5-4 is that the procedure of Borrowing is only seen in the category of Interjection, and it takes up 7.56% of use frequency. As mentioned in Section 4.7, the reason this procedure is only applicable in the translation of interjections could be that these empty words are simply exclamations without much meaning and usually with only one syllable, and readers can easily capture the idea of phonetic transcription from the context. This could also be why this procedure is not adopted in the other six empty word categories. As for empty words in other categories, they either have a clear meaning or are not lexically simple enough, so they are not suitable for phonetic transcription. For instance:

Example A (Preposition):
ST: 老先生除了荒唐以外什麼都不會…
TT: …the old gentleman, apart from his dissoluteness, had been such a weakling.
CT: …the old gentleman, **chule** his dissoluteness, had been such a weakling.

Example B (Compound):
ST: 怪不得你不在乎…
TT: **No wonder** you treat money lightly…
CT: **Guaibude** you treat money lightly…

Example C (Conjunction):
ST: 總之，我們的處境太一樣了！
TT: **In short**, our predicaments were just too similar!
CT: **Zongzhi**, our predicaments were just too similar!

Example D (Adverb):
ST: 他覺得這個黑老曹相對而言比較通人情…
TT: …but he felt that old “Darkey” Cao was, relatively speaking, **more** sympathetic…
CT: …but he felt that old “Darkey” Cao was, relatively speaking, **bijiao** sympathetic…

Example E (Particle):
ST: 但是他同住房離開有十來丈遠…
TT: …but it stood **some** thirty or forty metres from the house…
CT: …but it stood thirty or forty **lai** metres from the house…

Example F (Structure):
ST: 這回連莊重的孔子也不禁拍起手來叫絕了…
TT: At this point, **even** the dignified Confucius could not but clap his hands in applause…
CT: At this point, **lien** the dignified Confucius **ye** could not but clap his hands in applause…

One example is selected from each empty word category, and it can be seen from these examples that, even though the procedure of Borrowing is the simplest translation procedure, it is not likely to work well. When “apart from”, “no wonder”, “in short”, “more”, “some” and “even” are replaced by “**chule**”, “**guaibude**”,
“zongzhi”, “bijiao”, “lai” and “lien...ye...”, I believe confusion is caused. Such translations do not retain the source ideas at all, and this is because these empty words do not meet the conditions of using the procedure of Borrowing, namely 1) no clear meaning; 2) one (or at most two) syllables.

5.3.5 Procedure of Omission as the Most-adopted Method in the Category of Particle

In Table 5-4, another point worth discussing is that the procedure of Omission accounts for the highest percentage in the category of Particle. Based on Wang’s definition of Chinese particles and the analyses of their translation, it could be reasoned that the large number of modal particles lead to the large amount of Omission. As one of the three major kinds of particles (the others are aspect particles and structural particles), modal particles are not used independently in texts; instead, they serve as supplements to “add extra colour”. Particles belonging to this kind include 啊 (a), 哩 (li), 啦 (la), 麼 (me), 嘿 (ma), 嘛 (ma), 哪 (na), 呢 (ne), 哇 (wa), 呀 (ya) and 喲 (yo). These words (when being used as particles) cannot stand as independent words in texts. Moreover, it is difficult to translate them because there are no such modal particles in English, i.e. English-speaking people do not have independently-existing modal particles that they attach to the end of sentences. Since omitting these words does not affect the meaning, translators would simply save their effort for other parts of sentences. Besides, in the research corpus, 31.43% of the particles which contain pertaining example(s) are modal particles. From this figure we could roughly infer that one third of the examples contain such particles. Because translators tend to omit modal particles and 31.43% of the examples include such empty words, the high percentage of Omission is understandable.
5.3.6 Highest Percentage of Mismatch in the Category of Interjection and Lowest in Preposition

Another observation relates to the frequency of occurrence of Mismatch. It can be seen from Table 5-4 that the highest percentage of Mismatch is in the category of Interjection (9.88%), while the lowest is in that of Preposition (1.03%). An attempt will be made to determine why this should be, and why it is the lowest in the translation of prepositions by analysing relevant examples. I will try to find answers through analysing relevant examples. To begin with, translations of interjections which belong to the category of Mismatch are illustrated in Table 5-9.

The interjection in the first example is 唉 (ai), which is used to express regret, sorrow or grief, and the interjection in the second example, 唉 (ai), conveys the same idea. The first translator took “Ah-hah” as the translation, and the second translator chose “yeah”. As is known, “ah-hah” is an exclamation used when someone discovers or realises something, and “yeah” is a word which is used to express affirmation. Neither of these two translations matches their original ideas; thus, they are regarded as belonging to the category of Mismatch.

哼 (heng) is an empty word which expresses contempt, displeasure or dissatisfaction; in the third example, the second idea is used. However, the translator used “yeah” to translate this empty word, which has a totally different meaning. As a result, this example is also taken as a mismatch.

The fourth interjection is 呵 (he), and its translation is “Oh”. Chinese speaking people say 呵 to denote the sound of laughter or to serve as the beginning of a statement of interrogation, surprise or displeasure. This interjection can be used in many situations, and so it is common in Chinese texts. The translation of 呵 in this example is “Oh”, which is used to express surprise, displeasure, pleasure, grief or disappointment. Although 呵 and “oh” are partly similar, in this case, the latter does
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text Title &amp; Issue Number</th>
<th>Translator</th>
<th>Source Text</th>
<th>Translation</th>
<th>Translation for Comparison</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ah Xiao’s Unhappy Autumn/52</td>
<td>Simon Patton</td>
<td>嗨，一百五十萬頂的房子…</td>
<td>Ah-hah. They bought that apartment for 1.5 million.</td>
<td>Alas. They bought that apartment for 1.5 million.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Story of Grandfather Ching Fan/16</td>
<td>Stephen Field</td>
<td>唉！歪仔歪這地方的田…</td>
<td>Yeah, the land here in Crooked Bend is fertile…</td>
<td>Alas, the land here in Crooked Bend is fertile…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End of the Rickshaw Boy/10</td>
<td>Perry Link</td>
<td>…哼，多半是下了白房子！</td>
<td>Yeah, most likely she was sent to the “white cottages”!</td>
<td>Huh, most likely she was sent to the “white cottages”!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the Hospital/8</td>
<td>Susan Vacca</td>
<td>呵，又是來養娃娃的呵！</td>
<td>Oh! So another one has come to have a baby.</td>
<td>Ha! So another one has come to have a baby.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marx Enters the Confucian Temple/51</td>
<td>Matthew Finbeiner &amp; Timothy Wixted</td>
<td>喂，孔二先生！我只是提倡共產，你公然在提倡共妻！</td>
<td>What?! Mr Confucius! I only advocate sharing commodities; you openly advocate sharing wives!</td>
<td>Hey! Mr Confucius! I only advocate sharing commodities; you openly advocate sharing wives!</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5-9 Examples of Interjections which were Given Mismatching Translations
not match the former, which is used to denote the sound of laughter. As a result, it is
categorised as a mismatch.

The last interjection is 喂 (wei), which is used to attract people’s attention. It can
clearly be seen that its translation, “what”, is an exclamation to express surprise,
rather than a correspondent. Therefore, this example is put into the category of
Mismatch, too.

In my opinion, the reason Mismatch takes up a large proportion in the category
of Interjection is possibly that translators tend to translate these exclamations with the
English ones that occur to them at that moment. The translations in these examples
read natural, but they do not retain the source ideas. Perhaps, for the reason that
interjections are with less meaning and seem easy to deal with, they are tackled with
less attention. Under such circumstances, more attention is paid to the naturalness of
the target texts, and translators use the words which they feel are adequate as the
translation.

As an extension of the main research, a list of the translation of Chinese
interjections is given below because there are not many common Chinese interjections.
This list is produced on the basis of my study of the corpus.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chinese Interjections</th>
<th>English Correspondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>啊 (a)</td>
<td>ah, what?!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>嘘 (heh), 喝 (heh)</td>
<td>ah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>嗥 (ai), 喋 (ai), 哎 (ai), 哎呀 (ai ya), 哎喲 (ai yo)</td>
<td>alas, ah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>嘉 (ha), 呓 (heh), 嘿 (xi)</td>
<td>ha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>嘿 (hai)</td>
<td>hi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>嘿 (hei), 喂 (wei)</td>
<td>hey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>呼 (heng)</td>
<td>huh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>嗯 (en)</td>
<td>hmm, hum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>喔 (o), 嗬 (o), 哦 (o), 咿 (yo)</td>
<td>oh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>咜 (pei)</td>
<td>bah</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5-10 English Translation of Chinese Interjections
Only exclamations which are common in Chinese texts are listed in Table 5-10, and each of them are given their English correspondent. Some interjections have a double meaning, and translators have to determine which meaning to choose in accordance with the context. It is hoped that this table can save time for translators in finding suitable translations.

In contrast to the percentage of Mismatch in the category of Interjection, the percentage of Mismatch in the category of Preposition is only 1.03%, which is the lowest of all. So, why have translators produced the fewest mismatching translations when dealing with Chinese prepositions? Again, five examples are selected for discussion, and it is expected that an answer to this question can be gained.

The five prepositions included in Table 5-11 are 從 (cong), 當 (dang), 關於 (guan yu), 較 (jiao) and 拿 (na). The first empty word conveys the meaning of “since” or “from”; the second is used to specify the moment a certain event takes place; 關於, in the third example, refers to a person or thing which is taken into account or talked about; 較 is used to form Chinese comparative sentences; and 拿, in the last example, means “to use”. All the five empty words have a clear meaning, so it is easy for us to determine whether or not their translations correspond. As can be seen in Table 5-11, the translators of the five examples chose “as”, “once”, “with”, “-est” and “like” to respectively represent their original prepositions. Nevertheless, since these translations deviate from the source ideas, they are regarded as belonging to the category of Mismatch.

A possible reason for the percentage of Mismatch being lowest in the category of Preposition is that there are prepositions which do not have an important meaning and are often omitted. Different from dealing with the above-mentioned five empty words, translators may find it less necessary to produce correspondents for some prepositions,
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text Title &amp; Issue Number</th>
<th>Translator</th>
<th>Source Text</th>
<th>Translation</th>
<th>Translation for Comparison</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Who Led Our Kids Astray/35&amp;36</td>
<td>Duncan Campbell</td>
<td>從小頗為伶俐</td>
<td>Bright and lively as a child…</td>
<td>Bright and lively since childhood…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dream of the Genius/45</td>
<td>Karen Kingsbury</td>
<td>當童年的狂想逐漸褪色的時候…</td>
<td>But once the fantasies of childhood had slowly faded…</td>
<td>But when the fantasies of childhood had slowly faded…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Near Dusk/63</td>
<td>Audrey Heijns &amp; David Lunde</td>
<td>可是關於下腹那兩刀，據醫生說，是不幸中的大幸。</td>
<td>But according to the doctor, he had a lucky escape with the two cuts under his belly.</td>
<td>But with regard to the two cuts under his belly, the doctor said that he had a lucky escape.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Braids/35&amp;36</td>
<td>Joseph Allen</td>
<td>看到他慢慢走到水溝邊緣水草較多的地方…</td>
<td>…watched him walk slowly out to where the grass grew thickest along the side of the ditch…</td>
<td>…watched him walk slowly out to where the grass grew thicker along the side of the ditch…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Birds Fighting for a Nest/39</td>
<td>Nigel Bedford</td>
<td>你也不該拿這件事取笑我啊！</td>
<td>…you shouldn’t make fun of me like this!</td>
<td>…you shouldn’t make fun of me by this!</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5-11 Examples of Prepositions which were Given Mismatching Translations

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20 Although "當" is a Chinese preposition, it is not necessary to form correspondence by replacing it with an English preposition. As mentioned in section 4.1, correspondence is attained as long as the same meaning is conveyed and the same function fulfilled. This concept is applied in the previous/following part of this thesis.
including 把 (ba), 給 (gei), 將 (jiang) and 叫 (jiao). Therefore, they commonly omit these empty words. For example:

Example A:
ST: 我把太太安頓在她房裡。
TT: I had helped Madam settle in her room.
CT: I had had Madam settle in her room.

Example B:
ST: 他正在把他的戀愛說給我聽。
TT: He’s giving me the lowdown of his love life.
CT: He’s giving to me the lowdown of his love life.

Example C:
ST: 她將她那頭長髮一把剪短…
TT: She cut her hair short…
CT: She had her hair cut short.

Example D:
ST: 叫她看了怕。
TT: It scared her to see it.
CT: It made her scared to see it.

It can be seen from the above-listed examples that these four prepositions do not have a meaning which is so important that the absence of which would cause a significant deviation from the source information. Moreover, translations are natural and concise without the presence of their English correspondents. Therefore, it is not uncommon that translators tend to omit these prepositions, and such a tendency leads to high percentage of Omission. Since these prepositions are omitted, there will not be a case of mismatch. In addition, 71 of the 585 examples in the category of Preposition contain such prepositions. This accounts for 12.14% of the total, which is a big proportion. For the reason that these empty words are omitted in most cases and there are many such sentences, the percentage of Mismatch becomes very low compared with other categories. What is also worth mentioning is that the percentage of Mismatch is also low in the category of Particle, and this may be for the same reason, i.e. that there are particles which are difficult to translate or even have no correspondents in English, so translators tend to (or have to) omit them. To reiterate, such particles include 啊 (a), 哩 (li), 啦 (la), 麼 (me), 嗎 (ma), 嘛 (ma), 哪 (na), 呢 (ne), 哇 (wa), 呀 (ya) and 嗬 (yo).
5.4 Concluding Remarks

The discussion in this chapter began with the comparison between my treatments and those of former theorists. It was found that the procedure of Grammatical Conveyance is a new translation method. After explaining the difference between Grammatical Conveyance and other scholars’ concepts, the frequency of use of the translation procedures/non-procedure was discussed. To sum up, the following four findings have been obtained:

1. The procedure of Match is the most-adopted translation method in almost all empty word categories except the category of Particle, in which the procedure of Omission is the most used.
2. The procedure of Amplification is the least-adopted translation method in almost all empty word categories except the category of Interjection.
3. The procedures of Shared Match and Borrowing are category-specific, being respectively restricted to Adverbs, Prepositions and Particles and Interjections.
4. The frequency of use of the procedures/non-procedure mutually affects one another; a rise in the proportion of one procedure leads to a fall (or another rise) in another. For example, a rise in the proportion of the procedure of Omission leads to a fall in the proportion of almost all other procedures/non-procedure, except Grammatical Conveyance.

Based on the results obtained in this chapter, the following two research questions can be answered:

2. How is the frequency of use of translation procedures distributed in the seven empty word classes?
3. Is the most-/least-adopted procedure different between different word classes?

The answers to the two research questions can be obtained from Table 5-4. First of all, the use frequency of translation procedures is different from one empty word class to another. Although the procedure of Match accounts for the largest proportion of almost all empty words classes, dissimilarities are noted in the ranking of second place, and this outcome is not surprising. After all, the nature of empty words in different classes is dissimilar; there are more empty words with an ambiguous meaning in category A, whereas the empty words in category B are often with a clear meaning. Under such circumstances, the proportion of words of a different nature will influence the use frequency of various translation procedures. For instance,
interjections are mainly simple and monosyllabic, so they can be tackled by the procedure of Borrowing. Many Chinese particles are not seen in the English linguistic system, hence a high percentage of Omission. Conjunctions are empty words which possess a relatively clear meaning and are important parts of texts in both Chinese and English; thus, it is more common that translators translate them with correspondents.

In terms of the third research question, the most-adopted and least-adopted procedures are the same in almost all categories. The only exception in the most-adopted method is the category of Particle, in which the procedure of Omission occupies the first place, not the procedure of Match. The reason for this may be that a large number of particles are modal particles, which are not used independently in texts but serve as supplementaries, and it is difficult, or we could say impossible, to find their English correspondents. Chinese modal particles include 啊 (a), 嘿 (li), 嘟 (la), 嘛 (me), 嘟 (ma), 嘈 (ma), 哪 (na), 呢 (ne), 哇 (wa), 呀 (ya) and 嘟 (yo); they are put at the end of sentences to express the ideas of “interrogation, surprise, affirmation, realization, delight, approval, disdain, and so on” (Wang 1994: 614-615). No such particles exist in English, plus the omission of these words does not alter the meaning, so translators tend to omit them. Besides, these modal particles are common in Chinese; thus, they occupy a great amount in the research corpus. In this situation, they become the major cause for the striking fall in the proportion of the procedure of Match and the rise in the procedure of Omission.

The least-adopted procedure is the procedure of Amplification (the two category-specific procedures, Shared Match and Borrowing, are disregarded), while the only exception is the category of Interjection, in which the procedure of Grammatical Conveyance occupies the last place. This is because the meanings of Chinese interjections are not rendered in English by grammatical means. In Section 4.6, it can be seen that there are two kinds of empty words to which the procedure of Grammatical Conveyance can be applied. The first kind is those which are used to modify a noun, an action or a situation, while the second is those which are put at the end of sentences to express the idea of surprise or interrogation. An inspection into the 33 interjections listed by Wang (1994: 677) reveals that there is no interjection which belongs to either of these two types; thus, the procedure of Grammatical

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21 Such words are different from interjections, which are always placed at the beginning of sentences.
Conveyance is not applicable to words in this category. This is why zero percentage is seen in the use frequency of this translation method.
Chapter 6 Conclusion

6.1 Summarising this Research

The initial idea of conducting this research was to identify the translation procedures which exist in the activity of translating from Chinese to English, and I chose Chinese empty words as specific research materials. Before this study, several scholars have already published relevant findings on the basis of research texts in different language pairs, including the twelve scholars whose contributions have been repeatedly mentioned in this thesis for instance. Vinay & Darbelnet’s list of translation procedures is a group of treatments obtained by analysing the translation between English and French. By examining the translation of the Bible which is written in Greek, Hebrew and Aramaic, Nida proposes five kinds of correspondences and five techniques of adjustment as tools for translators to use when translating. Peter Newmark discusses SL-emphasised and TL-emphasised translation procedures on the basis of texts in European languages (mainly English, German and French), while Jeremy Munday produces another V diagram on the basis of ideas of several former scholars, including Nord, Nida, Taber, Hatim, Nida, Walton and Munday himself. Malone talks about trajectios, and Fawcett introduces Russian theorists’ idea of translation approaches. Chesterman examines German-English texts and proposes three types of translation strategies, each of which include ten procedures. In addition to the preceding theorists whose studies were based on texts in European languages, three scholars who analyse Chinese-English translations have also been introduced, they are Loh, Liu and Su. Relevant discussions can be seen in the chapter of Literature Review, and it can be found that most of these theorists’ findings are based on the source and target texts in European languages. Because there are few scholars investigating Chinese-English translation and the Chinese language is quite different from European languages in terms of grammar, writing system, wording and culture behind it, I considered it to be worthwhile to investigate the topic which is to identify the translation procedures existing in Chinese-English translation, hence this research.

Taking translations from Renditions and their source texts as the research materials, I have conducted a corpus-based analysis and have identified eight translation procedures and one non-procedure; namely 1) Match; 2) Paraphrase; 3)
Shared Match; 4) Implicitation; 5) Amplification; 6) Grammatical Conveyance; 7) Borrowing; 8) Omission, while the non-procedure is Mismatch. Among these, the procedure of Grammatical Conveyance is deemed as a new translation method because the aspect which this procedure covers is dissimilar to those covered by other theorists’ concepts. It is inferred that the identification of this new procedure is due to a great grammar difference between English and Chinese.

Among the nine treatments, the procedure of Match occupies the largest proportion in almost all empty word categories, except the category of Particle. This may be due to the nature of Chinese particles, which are auxiliaries to supplement other words. Since they are only supplementaries, they either have an ambiguous meaning (hence, are difficult to be tackled using the procedure of Match) or are translated in English by suffixes or prefixes (hence classified into the procedure of Grammatical Conveyance). Due to the preceding situation, the procedure of Match is not the most-adopted one in the category of Particle; instead, almost 40% of the examples in this category were dealt with by the procedure of Omission.

Meanwhile, the least-adopted procedure, if not taking into consideration the two category-specific procedures, Shared Match and Borrowing, is the procedure of Amplification. This result implies that translators tend not to add extra information to their outputs no matter what kind of words they are tackling.

Besides, it was found that the procedures of Shared Match and Borrowing are category-specific. The former is applicable to empty words which: 1) are taken as tone reinforcers or supplements; 2) form complete collocations with other words; 3) are combined with other word(s) due to the tendency of using four-character expressions in Chinese or 4) can be translated together with other word(s) in English. These four features signify that the procedure of Shared Match is useful only when we deal with empty words which do not stand independently, but accompany other words. Since examples are only seen in the categories of Adverb, Preposition and Particle, it could be reasoned that empty words in other categories always function independently or cannot be tackled with other words at the same time. As for the procedure of Borrowing, this method only exists in the category of Interjection due to the two characteristics of exclamations: brevity and simplicity. Only when an empty word has
one or two syllables and is lexically simple can this procedure work\textsuperscript{22}. Examples have been set in Section 4.7, and they provide a clear idea.

With regard to the frequency of the occurrence of Mismatch, the highest percentage is seen in the category of Interjection, and the lowest in Preposition. I consider that there are so many cases of Mismatch in interjections because translators tend to translate exclamative words with the English words that come to their mind at that moment. Besides, interjections are simple and easy to understand, so it is likely that translators pay less attention to them, which leads to deviations in meaning. Although this is my personal conjecture, it is one possibility. More analyses will have to be conducted on translators’ mindsets and their translation habits to determine the truth.

Meanwhile, the frequent use of the procedure of Omission may be why the category of Preposition has the lowest percentage of Mismatch. This category contains prepositions which are common and have an ambiguous meaning. Because they are common, there are many examples in the corpus, and since their meaning is ambiguous, it is not uncommon that translators omit those words. Because of this, the procedure of Omission occupies a large proportion, which leads to a relatively low proportion of Mismatch.

To sum up, this research has delved into the English translation of Chinese empty words, from which eight translation procedures and one non-procedure were identified and examined. As a further step, the proportions of these nine treatments were probed into. In addition to the above-mentioned findings, some interesting phenomena will also be mentioned in the subsequent section.

6.2 Answers to the Research Questions

Four research questions were listed in Chapter 3, and the first three of them have already been answered in Chapters 4 and 5. Here, I would like to briefly reiterate the answers and address the fourth research question, which is still unanswered.

1. What are the translation procedures for translating Chinese empty words into English?

There are eight translation procedures and one non-procedure. The eight procedures

\textsuperscript{22} But it does not mean that all empty words which possess these two characteristics can be borrowed.
are: 1) Match; 2) Paraphrase; 3) Shared Match; 4) Implicitation; 5) Amplification; 6) Grammatical Conveyance; 7) Borrowing; 8) Omission, while the non-procedure is Mismatch.

2. How is the frequency of use of translation procedures distributed in the seven empty word classes?

Basically, the procedure of Match occupies the largest proportion in all categories except the category of Particle. There are more differences from the second place onward. The following table can provide a clear view.

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Table 6-1 Ranking of Use Frequency of Translation Procedures/Non-procedure

In this table, it can be seen that the procedures of Match, Paraphrase and Omission generally rank higher, while the procedures of Shared Match, Amplification and Borrowing belong to lower positions. However, it needs to be pointed out that Shared Match and Borrowing are category-specific procedures, which partly attributes to their low rankings. As for the other procedures/non-procedure, they usually take middle positions, although their rankings are not fixed.

3. Is the most-/least-adopted procedure different between different word classes?

Table 6-1 can also provide the answer to this question. The most-adopted and the least-adopted procedures are the same in almost all categories, with two exceptions. With regard to the most-adopted procedure, the exception is the category of Particles, of which the procedure of Omission occupies the largest proportion. This is because a great number of particles are modal particles, which are often omitted by translators. Meanwhile, the exception of the least-adopted procedure is the category of Interjection (the two category-specific procedures, Shared Match and Borrowing, are
disregarded). This is because Chinese interjections do not belong to either of the two groups of words to which the procedure of Grammatical Conveyance is applicable, namely: 1) words which are used to modify a noun, an action or a situation; 2) words which are put at the end of sentences to express the ideas of surprise or interrogation.

4. What phenomena that are worth discussing can we identify from the research results?

An analysis of the examples from the research corpus identified the following two phenomena.

I. The procedure of Match is not always the best choice in terms of acceptability;
II. Not all empty words are difficult to tackle.

The first phenomenon was found when analysing the examples belonging to the procedure of Shared Match. Some of the examples in Section 4.3 show that the procedure of Match can sometimes cause wordiness and even misunderstanding. A good example of this is the translation of 从来没有 (cong mei you: never).

ST: 從沒有坐擁厚資，名列縉紳…
TT: There has never been any suggestion of wealthy men or officials…
CT: There has not ever been any suggestion of wealthy men or officials…

CT is a translation which is produced in the procedure of Match. Here, “not ever” may mislead readers into considering that this is the part to be emphasised; thus, causing misunderstanding. Therefore, the procedure of Shared Match is a better solution than the procedure of Match in cases like this. As a further step from this, it can be concluded that translators have to take into consideration the context so that they can choose the best procedure to tackle texts.

With regard to the second phenomenon, this is a finding which was discerned when analysing the examples of all empty words. Bao proposes that “most empty words convey ambiguous ideas” (1988: 356-357). Wong provides examples to show that empty words are difficult to translate (2001: 212-213). Pollard focuses on the difficulty in translating modal adverbs (2001: 216-222). Having read the three scholars’ publications, it was held that Chinese empty words were thorny and it must
be worthwhile to investigate these hard-to-tackle words. Nevertheless, after the research work, my idea on Chinese empty words has changed. In my opinion, the majority of Chinese empty words have a relatively clear meaning. Even if some of them possess a rather ambiguous meaning, disambiguation can be achieved when we interpret those words with context. That is to say, most empty words are easy to tackle as long as the context is given.

Difficult-to-tackle empty words are found in the categories of Adverb and Particle. Among adverbs, there are modal adverbs which are called as “little words” by Pollard (222) due to their elusive meaning. Empty words belonging to this kind include 也 (ye), 又 (you), 倒 (dao), 總 (zong), 還 (hai). 可 (ke) and 竟 (jing). These words “all have lexical meaning, but this meaning may shade off into nothingness depending on the unit of discourse within which they occur” (Pollard 2001: 216). When a word “shades off into nothingness”, it becomes difficult for translators to comprehend and to find a correspondent in English. In Section 2.3.3, an example was provided to show the difficulty in dealing with such words. To overcome this challenge, it is suggested that translators not stick to the procedure of Match because it may be time-consuming to work out a correspondent (and it is also possible that a correspondent cannot be found in the end). Instead, translators should translate according to the context so as to select a suitable procedure to produce suitable translation. For example, among examples provided by Pollard in his article, some are tackled by the procedure of Match, some by Omission and some by Paraphrase, all depending on the context.

The same solution can be applied to the translation of particles, including 啊 (a), 哩 (li), 啦 (la), 麼 (me), 嗎 (ma), 嘛 (ma), 哪 (na), 呢 (ne), 哇 (wa), 呀 (ya) and 喲 (yo). As explained in Section 5.3.5, these words are difficult to translate because there are no such modal particles in English. One of the most common procedures is to omit these particles because this will not alter the meaning. Besides, these particles can sometimes be translated by the procedure of Grammatical Conveyance (e.g. the fourth example in Table 4-6). Again, which procedure is suitable is determined by the context.

In this section, the research questions have been answered. These answers were obtained on the basis of the analysis of Chinese-English translation. There is a need for further detailed investigation of translation practice between a wider variety of
different languages than has hitherto been the case. This is because we cannot assume that lists of translation procedures drawn up from my research (and from other studies mentioned in the Chapter of Literature Review) will apply to all languages, or that the relative usefulness of different procedures will remain constant across languages or, indeed, as this research has shown, between different word classes for the same language pair.

6.3 Contributions made by this Research

This research has made three important contributions to translation studies. Firstly, through a corpus-based analysis, I have identified eight translation procedures and one non-procedure existing in the English translation of Chinese empty words. This research is, to my knowledge, the first large-scale study which examines all empty words at a time to identify the ways translators tackle them. Therefore, the research results provide new knowledge of the patterns adopted by English translators when translating Chinese texts. The results reveal that the procedures adopted in the translation of this language pair are mainly the same as those for translation in other language pairs (compared with treatments proposed by the previously-mentioned twelve theorists). Nevertheless, it is exciting to have identified one procedure which has never been discussed by former scholars: the procedure of Grammatical Conveyance. It is inferred that the identification of this new procedure is due to a great grammar difference between English and Chinese. With this inference, we could reason that this procedure may be particularly characteristic of the translation between two languages the grammatical systems of which are greatly different, e.g. Chinese → Russian, Arabic → Japanese, etc. In addition, another possible reason for having identified this procedure is that Grammatical Conveyance is adopted to translate from a less inflected language into a more inflected one.

Secondly, it has been proposed that the procedure of Match does not always appear to be the most appropriate policy. In my research, this argument is again supported. Most people may take the view that sticking to the procedure of Match is the best policy when translating. However, the examples in this thesis show that this procedure is sometimes not as ideal as it seems. In those cases, the procedure of Shared Match can produce more natural and readable translations, and even translations the ideas/functions of which are closer to the source. In the preface to his translation of *Evolution and Ethics* (1898), Yan Fu, a well-known Chinese theorist,
states that there are three main difficulties in translating (譯事三難) – faithfulness, expressiveness and elegance. The reason why he deemed these three principles as difficulties is that it is hard to attend to them all at the same time. It could be said that these three difficulties are the three major concerns that translators have to take care of. The procedure of Match is a method which places greater emphasis on faithfulness than expressiveness and elegance. In the practice of translation, if the emphasis is placed lopsidedly on only one of these three concerns, the output may become less natural, and even awkward, in some cases. This echoes my findings, i.e. the three concerns are all important and translators choose procedures according to the context and the nature of the text; different texts may be best tackled by different procedures and strategies (definitions of procedures and strategies can be seen in Section 2.1.2).

Thirdly, the research results reveal that not all Chinese empty words are difficult to translate. This has been discussed in the previous section, so I will not reiterate it here. However, it needs to be emphasised that such an exhaustive investigation, to my knowledge, has never been conducted before. Although theorists have described the difficulties involved in translating empty words (e.g. Bao 1988; Pollard 2001: 216-222; Wong 2001: 209-215), we did not know exactly how many of them are really thorny. This research has provided an answer on the basis of the corpus research.

6.4 Research Limitations and Recommendations for Future Researchers

Several challenges were encountered when conducting this research, some of which were able to be overcome, while others remain unresolved. These unresolved challenges will be discussed in this section, and possible solutions will be suggested for future researchers.

1. The translation procedures/non-procedure were defined by me, and it is possible that different people have dissimilar viewpoints. For instance:

ST: 誰會對他們痛心疾首或含淚歡呼呢？
TT: Who would let themselves be moved to grief or to tears of joy for their sakes?
CT: Who would be moved to grief or to tears of joy for them?

對 (dui), when functioning as a preposition, is a word to show the recipient of an action, a look or a thought, so its English correspondents are function words such as
“to”, “at”, “for” and “on”. However, the translation “for their sakes” conveys the idea of “because”, so this case does not belong to the category of Match. The reason I classified it into the category of Paraphrase is that I considered that “for one’s sake” manages to give readers information about the recipient of the preceding actions. Since this translation renders this idea, it should not be regarded as Mismatch. Nevertheless, such a categorisation may not satisfy some people, and they may have a different viewpoint on the category to which this example should belong (maybe some will see it as an example of Mismatch or Amplification). It is normal for people to hold different ideas based on their own experience, but it would be ideal if widely-recognised definitions of the ways of categorisation could be made. After all, research results can be completely compatible and mutually referable only when they are produced on the same basis.

→ Recommendation: The easiest way to produce widely-recognised definitions is to refine and revise them through discussion. That is to say, when more and more scholars and researchers conduct relevant studies, there will be more and more analyses to clarify and solidify definitions. Another possibility is that a particular set of definitions may be adopted by the majority of theorists, and thus, will become widely-accepted.

2. The reasons translators employ certain procedures to tackle certain empty words have not been clearly identified. Why did this translator paraphrase this source word when there is a suitable correspondent to constitute a match? How come that translator omitted that word? In this thesis, I can only offer possible reasons from personal inferences, but it is likely that those translators did this or that for certain reasons. This is a topic which is worthwhile to investigate, by investigating which we will be able to understand translators’ way of thinking, how they make decisions and what considerations affect their decisions.

→ Recommendation: If we want to conduct studies in this respect, it is essential to interview translators, from which we will be able to obtain valuable information which may be able to serve as the answers to the questions listed in the previous paragraph. In previous studies, scholars adopted Think-Aloud Protocol (TAP) analyses to determine the reasons for research subjects’ behaviour. For example,
Krings (1986) and Lörscher (1991) probed into translators’ strategies for resolving problems; Gerloff (1987) identified the unit of analysis in translation; Jarvella et al. made use of TAPs to investigate translators’ expertise (2008); Tirkkonen-Condit (1990) discussed criteria for decision-making, and Kussmaul (1991) investigated translation creativity (Baker 2001: 266; Jääskeläinen 2010: 371-372; Jarvella et al. 2008: 172-197; Shuttleworth & Cowie 1999: 171-172). Introduced by Lewis in 1982, the TAP is an analysis method in which “subjects are asked to perform a task and verbalize whatever crosses their mind during the task performance. The written transcripts of the verbalizations are called think-aloud protocols…” (Jääskeläinen 2010: 371). In the same article, Jääskeläinen also points out that “think-aloud can offer informative glimpses of cognitive processing in progress, but never a complete account. To form a more complete and reliable picture, the think-aloud data can be complemented by the products of the process…” (p. 371).

In addition to the TAP, Fraser proposes in 1996 the use of another analysis method called Immediate Retrospection (IR). According to Fraser, TAPs require subjects to verbalise at the same time when they are doing the tasks, whereas IR subjects are asked to verbalise some time after the tasks have been completed. Since IR subjects do not have to do tasks and express their thoughts at the same time, their verbalisations are more structured than those of TAP subjects. Nevertheless, Fraser also proposes that the two methods have advantages and disadvantages. As summarised by Hatim:

“In the context of community translation, for example, TAPs are likely to yield information about the difficulties of translating particular cultural terms. Through IRs, on the other hand, subjects might be able to deal with broader issues which relate to the cultural aspects of the text as a whole”

(2001: 157)

It can be seen clearly from Hatim’s summary that TAPs and IRs are used for different purposes and to obtain different results. However, Fraser also argues that future researchers should ask subjects to receive TAP and IR analyses in the same tests to compare the differences between the two methods, which can be discussed in detail.

The third choice is computer keystroke logging, which brings “opportunities to monitor translation processes with much less impact on the ‘usual’ behavior of the
“translator” (Hansen 2008: 389). By analysing translators’ every move when tackling tasks, we will be able to reason whether or not they do something or employ some procedures consciously.

In studies pertaining to translators’ choices of procedures, one or several of these three methods can be chosen, having taken our goals into account. In this way, we would be able to understand translators’ ideas and to know how they make decisions.

3. Because of time constraints, I decided to analyse twenty randomly-selected examples for each empty word. Although I managed to obtain fruitful results from this solution, it should be noted that this strategy has advantages and disadvantages. The advantages are that the scale of the analysis became manageable for a four-year timeframe and I still investigated all empty words and identified procedures on the basis of a large number of examples (approximately 5500 examples). From my perspective, this amount should be able to cover all the procedures which are used by translators in the translation of Chinese empty words. Nevertheless, the disadvantage is that it is impossible to rule out the possibility (although I consider the possibility to be little due to the large amount of examples being analysed) that some examples which have not been selected involve the use of procedures which are not identified.

→ Recommendation: I would consider that large-scale work requires more time and more manpower. Therefore, for future researchers, if attempting to analyse all examples, could do this with teammates. Alternatively, they could construct a corpus which is smaller but still provides translation examples of most (if not all) empty words.

4. This research aimed to identify translation procedures for translating Chinese empty words. Because of this, the focus was on the translation of empty words, which made my analysis work word-level-centred. Under this premise, it is possible that translation procedures for larger language units (e.g. clauses, sentences, paragraphs, etc.) were neglected.
Recommendation: I do not consider this to be a minus point to my research because, as my thesis topic indicates, my research aim is not to identify procedures for translating texts, but to identify those adopted for translating Chinese empty words. Therefore, it is inevitable that my analysis is word-centred. However, if attempting to identify procedures which can be applied to both smaller- and larger-language units, future researchers can include larger language units as research materials. On the one hand, they can examine whether or not the procedures identified from empty word translation are applicable to larger language units. On the other hand, they can see if there is any new procedure existing in the translation of the larger units.

6.5 Final Conclusion

This doctoral research has identified eight translation procedures and one non-procedure which are used in the English translation of Chinese empty words. As mentioned at the beginning of this thesis, none of the former theorists has investigated the translation of all empty words at a time; thus, my thesis results should be able to shed new light on this respect. In order to obtain more original findings, I furthered to explore the results by delving into the use frequency of each treatment. All of these efforts have helped produce meaningful results, and the methodology and results may serve as references for future researchers. In this study, satisfactory answers could not be provided to some questions due to lack of information. For example, given that there are correspondents in English, why is the procedure of Borrowing still adopted from time to time when translators translate Chinese interjections? In addition, there are still more questions having been derived from my research. I am convinced that the answers to all these questions will be valuable to Translation Studies; therefore, it is hoped that they can be resolved in the future.
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