

**Language Students' Acquisition of Explicitation as a Procedural
Strategy in Chinese-English Translation**

Submitted by

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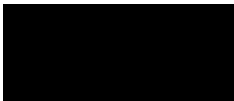
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Statement of Original Authorship

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Signature

11th November, 2019
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Date

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Abstract

In the literature, translation techniques are either presented with a summary of practical experiences or examples in the translation of a particular text type (e.g., Le, 2000; Yu, 2012) or largely discussed from a theoretical point of view (e.g., Ge, 2002; Hu, 2009), but few studies, if any, are empirical or evidence-based, or focus on students' acquisition of translation techniques, let alone that of explicitation. With a triangulation of process-based and product-based approaches, this study is a new attempt to investigate students' acquisition of explicitation, a translation technique first identified by Vinay and Darbelnet ([1958] 1995) as "making explicit in the target language what remains implicit in the source language" (p. 342) and a key term that has received much attention since the widespread use of corpora in translation studies in the late 1990s.

Explicit teaching of explicitation as a strategic procedure from a social constructivist perspective was applied to an experimental group to investigate the effectiveness of this intervention. Data revealed that participants in the experimental group were more effective in their post-test translation performances in terms of the two parameters of smoothness and the total score, showing statistically significant gains where their peers in the control group did not. Further, they showed in similar comparison with their peers and their own pre-test performances significant improvement in effective employment of pragmatic explicitation in the texts. However, there was no significant improvement in terms of the faithfulness parameter between the experimental and the control group and an analysis of the

levels of the total scores of both groups indicated that no participants got an “excellent” or “good” score and the majority of them only got a “passable” one. Survey data of open-ended questions, translation journals, interview data and TAPs all revealed “Explicitation-taught” participants’ awareness of using this translation technique in translating. However, an analysis of their TAPs and translations revealed that there was a gap between what they knew about explicitation and how they performed as reflected in the target texts they produced. On the other hand, an analysis of the participants’ translations of 28 key points in assignments revealed their inconsistent and unstable performances as novice translators with relatively low average accurate rates in their employment of explicitation from the perspectives of the four procedures of addition, clarification, foregrounding, and specification in relation to obligatory and optional explicitation and the grammatical, lexical, semantic, syntactic, and pragmatic dimension.

In summary, the present study was an attempt to investigate language students’ acquisition of explicitation with a view of shedding light on instruction of translation techniques.

Key words: explicitation; procedural strategy; translation competence; awareness; explicitation patterns

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Chapter 1: Introduction

As stipulated in China's *English Teaching Syllabus for English Majors of Tertiary Education* (2000), third-year undergraduate English majors are to master some commonly-used translation techniques and be able to translate Chinese passages with an intermediate level of difficulty¹ into English. Teaching of translation techniques is, therefore, an inherent component in Chinese-English Translation, a compulsory course for third-year undergraduate English majors in China. Based on a calculation of the number of examinees of the Test for English Majors Band 8 (TEM8) in China from 2016 to 2018, a standardised national English proficiency test for all undergraduate English majors in China, as indicated in the test results reports of this English proficiency test issued to each institution, there is approximately a total enrolment of 150, 000 undergraduate English majors each year by Chinese Universities. Given such a large number of enrolment, a study of Chinese-English Translation teaching is undoubtedly worthwhile and might benefit a large group of students.

¹ "Chinese passages with an intermediate level" is not clearly specified in the teaching syllabus. Its point of reference could be the next level of Chinese-English translation competence for fourth-year undergraduate English majors stipulated in the syllabus as "articles in Chinese newspapers or magazines, or literary works". It follows that a Chinese-English translation teacher for third-year English majors might have to decide what Chinese texts to use based on his or her experience or prediction of what might be difficult for the students.

In the literature, translation techniques are usually presented as a summary of practical experience based on translated texts of a particular genre (e.g. Hou, 1989; Xu, 2002; Zhang & Chen, 2013), but few studies, if any, investigate translation techniques from a process-oriented perspective, let alone students' acquisition of translation techniques. However, the importance of the teaching and learning of translation techniques cannot be overestimated, which could be reflected in Hu's (2009) remarks,

In the teaching of translation techniques, students are the subjects of translation practice. But as beginners, their translation competence is limited. When they run into difficulties over and over again in translating, they are increasingly aware of what they are "lacking" in and their aspirations for the improvement of translation competence get stronger and hence their strong "needs" for the learning of translation techniques. (pp. 12-13) (My translation)

Given the importance of the teaching and learning of translation techniques, more research in this regard is long overdue. This study is, therefore, an attempt to meet the needs in that direction.

Over the past four decades, a widespread application of parallel corpora in Translation Studies has alerted researchers' interest to testing the "explicitation hypothesis" (Blum-Kulka, 1986, p. 21) which claims that explicitation is a universal strategy in translation. Findings in a large number of studies on various language pairs support the explicitation hypothesis (See Baker & Olohan, 2000; Fabricius-Hansen, 1998; Klauy & Károly, 2005; Konšalová, 2007; Øverås, 1998; Pápai, 2004; Tong, 2014). Essentially, these translation researchers have evidence

suggesting that explicitation may be a translation universal and that translated texts are characterized by a translators' use of certain degree of explicitation. Based on the Asymmetry Hypothesis (Kaudy & Károly, 2005), a more recent new perspective to identify explicitation and to test its the universality of explicitation, some scholars, e.g. Dentruck (2012) found that although there are many occurrences of explicitation in translations of novels from French to Dutch and vice versa, a large number of cases of implicitation can be observed, which goes against the universality of explicitaion. However, although it remains controversial as to whether explicitation is a universal strategy or feature in translation, as regards Chinese-English translation, explicitation is undoubtedly a frequently-used technique, which can be easily detected in any published English translated text when compared with the Chinese source text. It, therefore, ensures the practical significance of a study of students' acquisition of explicitation and merits my research endeavours.

Studies of explicitation in translations between English and Chinese have tended to address syntactic or textual differences between the two languages (e.g. Tong, 2014; Zhou & Zhang, 2003) and cover a wide range of text types, ranging from novels (e.g., Hou & Liu, 2012; Sun, Gao & Li, 2011; Yao, 2013), abstracts (e.g., Liu, 2015), manuals (e.g., Liu, 2011), texts of traditional Chinese medicine (e.g., Zhu, 2008) to texts of science and technology (e.g., Qin, 2009). However, in my search of hundreds of academic papers, I have been unable to locate any studies that touch on the application of explicitation to translation teaching. In the event that this omission remains as I continue my reading, there is a gap in research knowledge

about whether explicit instruction may be productive for example in helping translation students understand and master the technique of explicating what is implicit linguistically, semantically, or pragmatically in Chinese into something explicit in an English target text, and whether and how any such outcome affects the quality of their translation. My research into language students' acquisition of explicitation is an attempt to fill this void. It will explore the viability of establishing explicitation as a strategic procedure and its effect on undergraduate English majors' successes and failures in Chinese-English Translation.

Moreover, unlike western translation researchers, Chinese scholars typically have not taken a process-based investigation into their studies of explicitation, with the exception being the PhD dissertation by Fan (2012). Therefore, the present study is relatively new in a Chinese context to combine a process-based approach and a product-based one in an investigation of language students' acquisition of explicitation as a strategic procedure in Chinese-English translation.

Through my study, the following research questions will be addressed:

1) In what ways does a teaching design that incorporates an aim and skills to establish students' deliberate attention to explicitation as a procedural strategy improve their translation performances and their awareness of its application to address translation problems?

2) What explicitation patterns do students manifest in their translations in terms of the four strategic procedures of addition, clarification, specification and foregrounding in relation to obligatory and optional explicitation and to the

grammatical, lexical, semantic, syntactic, and pragmatic dimensions in Chinese-English translation?

My research will draw from my experience in teaching of Chinese-English Translation in designing a teaching program incorporating explicitation to deliver to participants in a class of around 50 English majors to be held from February 2016 to July 2016. A second class of about the same number of students will function as a 'wait-list' control. Students in the control class will have an opportunity to learn the explicitation techniques following completion of the data collection. Pre- and post-test translation activities will provide a basis for establishing participants' performances in terms of the parameters of faithfulness, smoothness, and the total score. Scores will be treated as data for multivariate analysis. To differentiate my investigation of explicitation from what is presented as a somewhat static notion of addition or amplification in translation textbooks, I will focus on explicitation as a strategic procedure, by categorising it into four procedures of addition, clarification, specification, and foregrounding, in relation to obligatory and optional explicitation and to the grammatical, lexical, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic dimensions.

In addition to treating explicitation as an intended strategic outcome of instruction, six students from the experimental group will be asked to use a 'think-aloud' method to report their thinking in translating some assignments. Other data to be collected include students' answers to three survey open-ended questions, their translated texts completed as routine assignments and translation journals, and

interview data. These qualitative data will help to provide accounts of students' status as learners and users of the strategy.

With regard to the structure of this thesis, following this chapter of introduction, Chapter 2 is a review of literature pertaining to explicitation and an account of where existing literature has positioned a conceptualisation of "explicitatio" for the present study. Chapter 3 expounds on the research design of the present study and Chapter 4 presents the data. As the final chapter, Chapter 5 is a discussion of findings related the two research questions.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Conceptualising Explicitation

Explicitation is a key component of my inquiry in this study and my investigation of its potential as an instructional medium for improving students' performances as translators. Essentially as the verbalisation of one's reflection, explicitation draws from Piaget's theory of using reflection to shift from "lived experience" to "represented experience" (Urquhart, Light, Thomas, Barker, Yeoman, Cooper, & Spink, 2003, p. 66). Although the term has not been included in English dictionaries such as Oxford Online English Dictionary (en.oxforddictionaries.com) and Merriam-Webster Online English Dictionary (www.merriam-webster.com) and is underlined as a wrong word when typed onto Word, it has been a key concept in translation studies in the past few decades. What follows in this chapter is a review of the literature on explicitation that is aimed to conceptualise explicitation and to identify research questions through which new research might be designed to contribute to the existing body of empirical knowledge about explicitation and its application in preparing translators.

Definitions of Explicitation

Definitions of explicitation vary considerably amongst scholars of translation.

Some reflect a product-targeted perspective, focusing particularly on how a target text shifts in comparison to the source text. For example, Olohan (2002) proposed that explicitation entails “the spelling out in the target text of information which is only implicit in a source text” (p. 155). Similarly, Baker (1998) earlier had held that “[e]xplicitation is the technique of making explicit in the target text information that is implicit in the source text” (p. 80). More recently, Becher (2011) pointed out that “[e]xplicitation is observed where a given target text is more explicit than the corresponding source text” (p. 19) and Murtisari (2013) described the phenomenon as “a shift of meaning from the implicit or to a higher degree of explicitness” (p. 315).

Other researchers formulated their explanations of explicitation from a process-based perspective, that is, somewhat greater emphasis is given to procedure underpinning achieving a more explicit target text, albeit that description of the process typically has been insubstantial. For example, according to Mutesayire (2004), explicitation is a discourse process in which information given in a source text is restated in a more explicit way in the target text. Hatim and Munday (2004) perceived it as “explanation in the TT (Target Text) that renders the sense or intention clearer than in the ST (Source Text)” (p. 339). Ke (2005) maintained that explicitation is a technique a translator adopts to smooth out the logic in and enhance the accessibility of the target text by re-expressing the information of the source text in a more explicit form in the target text. Espunya (2007) associated explicitation in translation with interlingual enrichment and defined it as “the process

by which the translator provides clues that were absent from the source text in order to guide the reader's inferences" (p. 80). From the Hallidayan functional linguistic perspective, Saldanha (2008) spoke of explicitation as "a translation strategy whereby translators spell out optional interpersonal, ideational or textual meanings in the target text" (p. 32), considering it as a conscious strategy, likely to be carried out based on translators' assumptions pertaining to "the likely cognitive context and environment of their readers" (p. 32). A number of scholars (e.g. Ke, 2005; Liu, 2011; Qin, 2009) contended that explicitation should be perceived not only in the narrow sense as a technique of changing the form of cohesion, but also in the broader sense as a technique of semantic facilitation, i.e., of adding something to facilitate a target reader's understanding, or making explicit the implied or presupposed information to ensure a better communication of meaning. Based on his research, Fan (2012), however, defined explicitation as

a strategic process involving the procedures that translators, in consideration of the purpose and situation of a translation as well as of target reader expectations, consciously use to express overtly in the target text the non-linguistically coded but contextually derivable information in the source text (p. 29).

The product-based and the process-based perspectives are not mutually exclusive, but complementary in presenting a fuller picture of explicitation. The collective view they present is that explicitation can be identified by comparison of the target text and the source text, i.e., by recognising shifts or comparing the degree

of explicitness between them. Doing so enables identification of what “spelling out” through explicitation that has occurred in relation to implicit message in the source text. It also provides a basis for theorising that a translator has used explicitation, differently or additionally to account for assumptions about the target reader and the acceptability of the target text. Therefore, discussion of explicitation entails consideration of both pragmatics and linguistic differences between the two languages involved.

Explicitation and its Similar Notions

Explicitation had been a component of what many scholars considered in translation long before the widespread use of corpora in translation studies. It was first identified by Vinay and Darbelnet ([1958] 1995) as “a stylistic translation technique which consists of making explicit in the target language what remains implicit in the source language” (p. 342). Their account includes an observation that explicitation in translations between English and French helped to bridge a lexical gap, to clarify ambiguity, or to pinpoint situational or contextual considerations that underpin the translation process.

Similar notions of explicitation followed. “Addition” is a term introduced by Nida (1964), who regarded it as a technique of adjustment when translating that manifests in a great number of types, those of structural alteration in particular, such as filling out ellipsis, obligatory specification, and additions for grammatical

restructuring. Later, Newmark (2001) perceived addition as a translation procedure in which cultural, technical, or linguistic information is supplemented, depending on the target readership as opposed to the source readership; he specified particularly the various forms that additional information may take within the target text, including being added as an alternative to the translated word, or as an adjectival clause, or as a noun in apposition.

Chinese scholars also had used addition as a basis for discussing the procedural phenomenon of explicitation in translation. For example, Shen (1964) considered “*zengci* (word addition)” as a common phenomenon in Chinese-English translation attributed to lexical, syntactic, rhetoric and historical differences between the two languages. According to Lu (2000), *zengci* is one means to bridge the gap between source and the target languages, and, to overcome cultural barriers in translation. Similarly, Zhang, Yu, Li and Peng (1980) introduced *zengcifa*, literally meaning “a method of adding words”, to reflect the technique when applied for Chinese-English translation. They pointed out:

For semantic/logical or syntactic reasons, some words are added so that the ideas in the source text can be expressed faithfully and smoothly. However, words should not be added out of nothing, but based on the fact that the meaning is implied although no words are used explicitly in the source text. (My translation) (Zhang et al., 1980, p. 58).

Zhuang (1980) identified four “addition” strategies in Chinese-English translation: 1) an addition to clarify the relations between nominal items in a sentence; 2) an addition of a connector to convert a paratactic Chinese sentence to a

hypotactic English target text; 3) an addition to account for a simplified Chinese form; 4) an addition to clarify an allusion or proverb in the Chinese text. Lyu, Yu, Zhang, Li, and Zhang (1983) extended this range of application in proposing “*zengbu* (addition and compensation)” in Chinese-English translation as a translation technique to ensure the completeness of grammatical structure and the clarity of meaning in the English target text.

“*Zengyi* (amplification)” is a second explicitation-related term used by Chinese scholars. Ke (1991b) referred to it as a means of adaptation and compensation to make explicit what is known to a source reader, but unknown to the target reader, and elaborated on the purposes of using it, namely for grammaticality, for clarity and naturalness of expression, or for the communication between two different cultures involved. According to Liao (2006), “*zengyi* (amplification)” is employed for cohesion, for completion of the tone, or, for clarity. In this regard, Fang and Mao (2014) proposed rhetorical amplification and amplification by notes for the translation of tourism texts. The first of these is employed to extend the connotative meaning of a source text and to enhance its rhetorical effect and impact, thus getting as close as possible to the target text’s aesthetic convention and the target reader’s assumed expectations. On the other hand, amplification by notes is a means to clarify key culture-loaded information in the source text so as to facilitate a target reader’s understanding of it. Zhu and Luo (2015) objectified the procedural basis of amplification in Chinese-English translation in maintaining its use is based on

grammatical, semantic, rhetorical, or cultural considerations. For grammatical consideration, words of a number of particular parts of speech are added. These include pronouns, verbs, articles, conjunctions and prepositions. Semantic consideration involves adding words to express a meaning implied in the source text. Rhetorical consideration indicates words that are added to achieve an emphatic or rhetorical effect, or, to convey meaning in the source in a more clear-cut and vivid manner. Cultural consideration means that some explanative words are added to help the target reader understand the intended meaning of some typically Chinese expressions, particularly idioms.

The distinction between addition and amplification is difficult and thus few scholars attempt to differentiate them. For example, Wang (2012) maintained that addition and amplification are interchangeable terms when accounting for words added in the target text to express the meaning that is not expressed by linguistic means in the source text. He emphasized that it is justifiable to use amplification as a technique to conform to the habitual way of expression in the target language, which will increase readability in the target text.

Additional terms are used in exploring the explicitation-like phenomenon in translation, though not as frequently as “addition” and “amplification”. Qiao (1999) presented “xian yi (explicit translation)” as a technique a translator employs to manifest in the target language what is hidden in the structure of the source text and believed that it can fulfil the function of achieving expressiveness in the target text.

Subsequently, Liu and Xiao (2016) discussed “paraphrase” as a type of addition to explain cultural information missing in the target language. They proposed four rules for the use of this technique, namely to ensure the smoothness of the target text, to explain at most in one sentence, not to add any extra meaning, and to use it largely for novel or essay translation.

In summary, the discussion of the similar notions of explicitation above reveals that the explicitation-related phenomenon has long received much attention in translation studies. However, much of the discussion in the contributing literature is theoretical rather than research-evidenced.

Explicitation vs. Explicitness

In the literature, explicitness and explicitation often are used interchangeably, but the suffixes, “-ness” and“-ation”, suggest that they should be interpreted as two different concepts. Referred to as the overt encoding of information (Baumgarten, Meyer, & Özçetin, 2008, p. 177), explicitness is a textual feature or “a property of lexicogrammatical or cohesive structures and configurations in one text” (Hansen-Schirra, Neuman, & Steiner, 2007, p. 243; Steiner, 2005, p. 11), whereas explicitation is “a process or a relationship between intralingual variants and/or translationally related texts” (Hansen-Schirra et al., 2007, p. 243). Krüger (2013, p. 287) explicated the distinction between explicitness and explicitation, pointing out that the former refers to “general features of text and discourse that can be present

in different degrees”, while the latter refers to “a specific intertextual relation between source text and target text”.

To use the two terms based on the distinction above, one of the goals of the present study can be described as “to present language students’ explicitation patterns by analysing the explicitness of their translated texts during their process of learning Chinese-English translation”.

Explicitation vs. Implication

While the past three decades has witnessed a robust boom in the research of explicitation, implication, its counterpart (Krüger, 2013), is under-investigated (Hou & Liu, 2012) and vividly likened to the stepbrother of explicitation, as implication is rarely mentioned in the literature, and then merely incidentally (Klaudy & Karoly, 2005). It should be noted that meanings explicitly expressed with linguistic signs in one language might be implicit and hidden in linguistic signs in another language (Chen & Gao, 2012) and implication as a “twin concept” is inseparable from explicitation (Kamenická, 2016). It follows that explicitation and implication coexist in all languages (Hou & Wang, 2016) and that for any pair of languages involved in translation, there is no single direction of explicitation or implication from one language to the other. Rather, in both directions of translation there is an intricate mixture of both explicitation and implication. That is why some scholars (e.g. Hou & Wang, 2016) have appealed for implication to receive more attention from

researchers, although others (e.g. Puurtinen, 2003) appear to regard it as contained within their discussion of explicitation. A possible resolution is Kamenická's (2007) contention that explicitation and implicitation "should be recognized as prototypical categories with a core and a periphery" (p. 45). In this way, explicitation/implicitation would be seen more as a continuum than as two separate concepts with a clear-cut demarcation. However, any linearity inherent in this solution might constitute confusion for novice translators or language students learning translation where trial and error at the "periphery" may associate with explicitation not being a totally linear process, but on occasions a spiral one. In this sense, in the teaching design for the present study, explicitation, optional explicitation in particular, should not be perceived as an absolute, prescriptive rule to be imposed on students' practices in translating, but rather as an option to consider.

Three Hypotheses Concerning Explicitation

With regards to explicitation, three hypotheses, the Explicitation Hypothesis (Blum-Kulka, 1986), the Asymmetry Hypothesis (Kaudy & Károly, 2005), and the unnamed hypothesis put forth by Becher (2011a) are introduced as follows.

The inception of the Explicitation Hypothesis proposed by Blum-Kulka in 1986, has brought about increasing interest and further study of "explicitation" over the last three decades. The hypothesis portrays explicitation as "a universal strategy inherent in the process of language mediation, as practiced by language learners,

non-professional translators and professional translators alike” (Blum-Kulkain, 1986, p. 21). Findings in a large number of studies on various language pairs support the explicitation hypothesis (See Øverås, 1998; Fabricius-Hansen, 1998; Olohan & Baker, 2000; Pápai, 2004; Klaudy & Károly, 2005; Konšalová, 2007; Tong, 2014). Essentially, studies from these translation researchers have provided evidence suggesting that explicitation may be a translation universal and that if so, translated texts are characterized by a translators’ use of certain degree of explicitation. Séguinot (1988) acknowledged the inherent inclusion of explicitation in the process of translation, but criticized Blum-Kulka’s (1986) warning that a translator’s interpretation of the source text might lead to redundancy indicated by an increased density of cohesive explicitness in the target text. Instead, she suggested that explicitation can be revealed in three forms in a translation, i.e.,

something is expressed in the translation which was not in the original, something which was implied or understood through presupposition in the source text is overtly expressed in the translation, or, an element in the source text is given greater importance in the translation through focus, emphasis, or lexical choice (Séguinot, 1988, p. 108).

It remains unresolved whether explicitation is a universal strategy as proposed in the Explicitation Hypothesis. The Asymmetry Hypothesis (Kaudy & Károly, 2005), based on the dynamics of explicitation and implicitation, is a more recent perspective to identify explicitation and to test its universality. This hypothesis postulates a directional relationship between explicitation and implicitation. Specifically, it asserts that symmetric explicitation is employed if in one translation direction of a language

pair, explicitation is used in relation to what would be expected and where implicitation is used in the opposite translation direction. If no implicitation can be observed in the opposite translation direction, the procedure is one of asymmetric explicitation. Kaudy and Károly (2005) proposed that not all instances of language-specific explicitation in one translation direction are symmetric, as they had found in their study that when it comes to the translation of reporting verbs in literary texts between English and Hungarian, translators tended to use explicitation instead of implicitation in both directions. This led them to claim that semantic explicitation is a universal strategy.

Scholars tested the Asymmetry Hypothesis but found it could not be verified. For example, Dentruck (2012) tested this hypothesis in her study of causal conjunctions in both directions of translation between French and Dutch. She found that although there are many occurrences of explicitation in translations of novels from French to Dutch and vice versa, a large number of cases of implicitation can be observed. This she saw as indicating that explicitation is counterbalanced by implicitation, which contradicts the Asymmetry Hypothesis.

Becher (2011a) had acknowledged that the Asymmetry Hypothesis is a more useful guide for research on explicitation than the Explicitation Hypothesis, but recognised the limitation of the former, as “the Asymmetry Hypothesis can only serve as a kind of general guidepost for studies of explicitation and implicitation (p. 218)”. He advanced his own hypothesis, which he refused to give a “fancy name” (Becher,

2011a, p. 219), and expressed it as “[t]he occurrence of explicitating and implicitating shifts is uniquely determined by (a) lexicogrammatical and (b) pragmatic variables” (p. 219). Becher’s unnamed hypothesis advocates a re-focus on shifts manifested in the target text lexically, grammatically and pragmatically when compared with the source text, although the use of corpora for explicitation studies, which are usually suggested to focus on non-corresponding translated and non-translated texts (See Olohan & Baker, 2000), is expanding and a detailed comparison of the source and target texts might be neglected.

The three hypotheses are, indicative of the development of translation researchers’ perceptions as to how explicitation should be identified as well as whether explicitation is an inherent feature in translation. As the present study concerns observations of the teaching of explicitation in Chinese-English translation, an assumption of the researcher is that even if universal agreement in conceptualisation of explicitation as a translation feature remains a work in progress, its functionality is viable as a usable technique observable in any published translated English text from Chinese, given the striking linguistic and cultural differences between Chinese and English. Becher’s (2011a) hypothesis sheds light on the present study in that I will focus on comparing students’ translated texts against the source texts assigned to them to present their explicitation patterns and reveal the possible linguistic and pragmatic motivations behind them; of course, lexicogrammatical variables will be broken down to more specific elements for the purposes of teaching and identifying explicitation in a more clear-cut, systematic manner for purposes of

the study.

Categorisation of Explicitation

Explicitation is considered by many scholars as a broad concept rather than a kind of operation (e.g., Klaudy, 2000). Prior to Klaudy's (1998) categorisation, explicitation was not classified in a systematic way and researchers might have sporadically investigated a particular type of explicitation and elaborated on some specific techniques employed under that type. For example, Chen (1997) touched on pragmatic explicitation and perceived it as inclusive of all means employed to conform to the norm and acceptability of the target language, when otherwise literal translation might lead to ambiguity and misunderstanding, and particularly where addition, interpretation and transference are the major means of achieving explicitation.

Klaudy (1998) had formulated a systemic categorisation of explicitation that attracted considerable attention in translation studies. Based on factors leading to the phenomenon of explicitation, she listed and expounded four types of explicitation: obligatory, optional, pragmatic, and translation-inherent. (pp. 82-83) Obligatory explicitation, which can be subcategorised into syntactic and semantic explicitation, is an indispensable tool to bridge syntactic and semantic gaps between two languages, especially when there are "missing categories" in the source language or when the two languages involved are either of different language typologies or of different

conventions in the structuring of reality.

Optional explicitation is related to “stylistic preferences that may induce the translator to employ more explicit means of expression in order to produce grammatically correct and natural, native-like sentences” (Perego, 2003, p. 69), including those cases of adding connectors to strengthen cohesion and using relative clauses instead of nominal constructions (Klaudy, 1998). Pragmatic explicitation is employed to convey and clarify those cultural elements that are perceived as general knowledge by the source language community but are missing in the target language community and unfamiliar to target language readers. Leppihalme (2005) agreed with Klaudy’s emphasis of cultural differences as primary factors for pragmatic explicitation and listed possible means on a local level for this subtype of explicitation, explanatory changes made in the target text itself, rewordings or small additions, or of annotation and other paratextual material. Translation-inherent explicitation is language-independent and encompassed in the translation process.

Klaudy’s categorisation sheds light on the multifarious features of explicitation (Wu & Huang, 2006), but some scholars criticised it, claiming it is neither concise nor logical because the four types of explicitation overlap (Wu & Huang, 2006), or since pragmatic explicitation may be either obligatory or optional (Hu & Zhu, 2008), or because the fourth type is “mysterious” (Becher, 2010a, p. 6), as “Klaudy doesn’t give any example of a translation-inherent explicitation” and not certain “[or of] what an instance of this type of explicitation is supposed to look like” (Becher, 2011, p. 23)

and remain “problematic”, as “in English-German translations, translation-inherent explicitations seem to be indistinguishable from optional explicitations, at least as far as shifts in the domain of textual cohesion are concerned”(Becher, 2010b, p. 19).

Due to their perception of Klaudy’s systematic categorisation of explicitation as unsatisfactory or their endeavours to ensure the practicality and feasibility of their studies at hand, some researchers either modify it or discard it and propose their own categorisations. For example, Huang and Wang (2006) discarded the “mysterious” part of Klaudy’s categorisation and kept only obligatory and optional explicitation in their discussion of explicitation for the English/Chinese language pair. They categorised explicitation into the two types in terms of both form and meaning and proposed that obligatory explicitation results from systemic differences between English and Chinese, whereas optional explicitation is attributed to the translation process.

In her process-based research of explicitation, Englund Dimitrova (2005) proposed two types of explicitation: norm-governed and strategic. Cases of norm-governed explicitation refer to those that occur with a high frequency and regularity from a textual perspective, whereas cases of strategic explicitation refer to those that are “assumed to be of an ad hoc nature”, being employed to solve a problem and “more varied than the norm-governed explicitations” (p. 237). Južnič (2013) adopted the concepts of norm-governed explicitation and strategic explicitation for his analysis of occurrences of explicitation in the Slovene translations

of Italian nominalized infinitives, proposing the explicitated translation of a nominalized infinitive of a nominal nature could be regarded as norm-governed explicitation, whilst when the context affects the choice of a target equivalent, it could be perceived as strategic explicitation.

Drawing on the typology of language functions proposed by M. A. K. Halliday, Hu and Zhu (2008) categorised instances of explicitation into those of ideational functional information, interpersonal functional information, and textual functional information. Explicitation of ideational functional information can be further categorised into that of cultural information, ideational meanings, pragmatic meanings, and the agent or patient of an action; explicitation of interpersonal functional information refers to that of relations between characters in the text, modal meanings, and evaluative meanings; explicitation of textual functional information includes specifying the personal or demonstrative pronoun, hyponym, or other means of substitution, making explicit the omitted but implied elements in a sentence of the source text, and adding conjunctions to clarify the logical relationship between sentences.

Al-Anbaqi (2009) identified lexical explicitation, syntactic explicitation, pragmatic explicitation, and textual explicitation as the major techniques of explicitation to analyse the explicitation patterns of two Arabic translation versions of Faulkner's *A Rose for Emily*. He further classified the first three of these into sub-techniques; for example, he saw syntactic explicitation as including adding linking

ties, spelling-out implicatures, and expanding phrases. For textual explicitation, Al-Anbaqi (2009) counted lexical tokens to decide whether the two Arabic target texts were longer than the English source text.

Li (2013) distinguished between pragmatic explicitation and semantic explicitation, pointing out that the former indicates that with the assistance of context, the propositional form and the communicative intension in a source text are specified, whereas the latter means that omitted information in the source text is added and/or transferred in accordance with the rules of grammar/syntax, and semantics required in the target text. As regards pragmatic explicitation, Li (2011) categorised it into explicitation of the propositional form and explicitation of the communicative intention. The former refers to use of a specific propositional form to convey the abstract propositional form in the source text, namely a vague signifier or meaning in the source text being made explicit in the target text. The latter indicates use of forms closely related to the communicative intention, including words, phrases, syntactic means, etc., to completely or partially convey the illocutionary act implied in the source text.

In their investigation of *Six Chapters of a Floating Life* translated by Lin Yutang, Sun, Gao and Li (2011) listed four strategies of explicitation, cohesive explicitation, interpretive explicitation, rhetorical explicitation, and lexical explicitation. Guo (2011) discussed instances of explicitation adopted in the translations of chapter titles of *Hong Lou Meng* in three English translation versions and found three types of

explicitation, namely explicitation of subjects, explicitation of cohesion and coherence, and explicitation of grammatical meaning.

Hirsch (2011) categorised shifts in translation into instances of explicitation and non-explicitating shifts and in light of Toury's (1995) classification of obligatory and non-obligatory shifts, and then further classified them into obligatory explicitation/non-explicitating shifts and non-obligatory explicitation/non-explicitating shifts, maintaining that the former are "language-pair-dependent", attributed to differences in syntax and semantics between the two languages involved, whereas the latter are "norm-dependent" (Hirsch, 2011, p. 190). As far as obligatory explicitations are concerned, Hirsch proposed that it does not necessarily follow that the explicitation is itself obligatory, pointing out "it is the shift, rather than its form, that is obligatory" (Hirsch, 2011, p. 190).

In summary, explicitation as a complex and intricate concept defies ready agreement on how it should be classified. As represented in Table 2.1, the researchers made categorisations of explicitation from their respective perspectives, focusing on factors leading to explicitation, reasons for explicitation occurring in the translation process, and degree of necessity of explicitation.

Table 2.1. Categorisations of Explicitation

No.	Researcher	Year	Perspective	Type
1	Klaudy	1998	Factors leading to explicitation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ obligatory ➤ optional ➤ pragmatic ➤ translation-inherent
2	Englund Dimitrova	2005	Reasons for explicitation occurring in the translation process	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ norm-governed ➤ strategic
3	Huang and Wang	2006	Degree of necessity of explicitation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ obligatory ➤ optional
4	Hu & Zhu	2008	Types of information explicitated	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ ideational ➤ interpersonal ➤ textual
5	Al-Anbaqi	2009	Elements of explicitation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ lexical ➤ syntactic ➤ pragmatic ➤ textual
6	Li	2013	Elements of explicitation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ pragmatic ➤ semantic
7	Guo	2011	What is explicitated	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ subjects ➤ cohesion and coherence ➤ grammatical meaning
8	Hirsch	2011	Degree of necessity of a shift	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ obligatory ➤ non-obligatory

Motivations for Explicitation

A translator cannot use explicitation in a random, wayward manner (Liu, 2007; Wang, 2012), although it is widely held that explicitation may be a universal strategy or, at least a frequently used technique. In fact, as explicitation entails a shift from the source text, a translator should ensure that there are good reasons for its adoption.

Any use of explicitation should be justified (Liu, 2007) and it follows that the motivations for applying explicitation deserve detailed discussion. It is worth noting that in discussion of motivations for its usage, different terms are used by scholars. These include “factor” (e.g. Ke, 2005), “trigger” (e.g. Becher, 2011b), and “purpose” (e.g. Lyu et al., 1983). The terms, “factor” and “trigger” focus on the objective, external aspect of the issue, while the term “purpose” emphasises the subjective, internal dimension.

Four Factors for Explicitation Proposed by Ke

Explicitation is attributed to a number of intertwined factors (Qin, 2009). For example, Becher (2011b) proposed that lexico-grammatical and/or pragmatic factors could account for any instance of explicitation when he focused on the German/English language pair. Ke (2005), on the other hand, examined factors for explicitation for the Chinese/English language pair from an all-round perspective and listed four - linguistic differences, translators, socio-cultural differences, and text types. For linguistic differences, Ke (2005) asserted that compared to English, Chinese has a low level of explicitness in vocabulary and grammatical cohesion, so in Chinese-English translation, explicitation of form is more commonplace than in English-Chinese translation. As regards the factor of the translator, he contended that a responsible translator shuttles between the two languages involved and tries to reduce the loss of information to facilitate a reader’s understanding of the target text and that due to an insufficiency of competence, a translator might imitate the source

text so closely that there might be an excessively high degree of explicitness in the target text. In terms of socio-cultural factors, the bigger the gap between two cultures, the greater the need for explanative explicitaton. Furthermore, Ke (2005) maintained that the degree of overtness or covertness in translation varies from text type to text type.

Ties between the four factors put forth by Ke could be projected as signalled in Figure 2.1, in which the translator is put above the other three factors, linguistic differences, socio-cultural differences, and text types to indicate that he or she is the one with the initiative to decide whether to employ explicitation or not in translation in light of the other three factors.

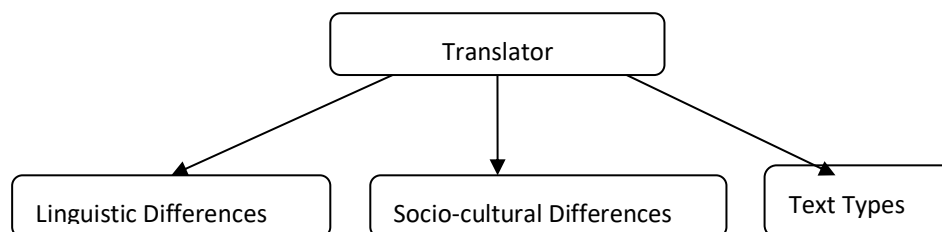


Figure 2.1. Four Factors for Explicitation

The following section is an extended account of the four factors.

1) The translator

In his elaboration of the above-mentioned factors for the use of explicitation put forward by Ke (2005), Ren (2015) proposed that the translator is of primary importance and should be centralized. The translator is crucial as an active agent who

makes translation possible. His or her competence and expertise are critically decisive to the quality, including the appropriateness in explicitation, of a translation. It is up to him or her to determine whether explicitation is needed at all based on his or her judgement and evaluation of the linguistic differences, socio-cultural differences, and the text type involved in the particular translation task at hand. In the same vein, Qin (2009) maintained that as far as syntactic structures and linguistic-cultural information are concerned, the translator's subjectivity, including his or her attitude, stance, knowledge, mastery of the target language, and assumed readership, has a direct bearing on the explicitness of a target text.

Although as mentioned above, many scholars consider that they have proven one way or another that explicitation is universal, it does not necessarily follow that explicitation is a one-size-fits-all tool that can be used to address all translation problems. Translating is a highly complex process and translations of any sentence in the same source text by different translators could vary. Therefore, scholars have not been able to prescribe an exact rate for the use of explicitation in a target text. Liu and Chen (2010) pointed out, empirical research based on corpora shows that there are cases where explicitation is not obligatory and therefore, motivation for explicitation lies with the translator as it is up to him or her to decide whether or not to use it (p. 13). Individual differences are at play since "[each] of us interprets any utterance or text on the basis of implicit information supplied by our worldview, our current state of knowledge, our beliefs, our values, our attitudes (Taber, 1980, pp.

423-422)'' and the translator is no exception. The translator's centrality in translation could manifest itself in Tirkkonen-Condit and Laukkanen's (1996) comment on the connection between one's perception of role and what is then done in translation:

If the translator sees herself as merely a text-processor, she concentrates on finding 'equivalents' for what is in the text. If however, she sees herself as a writer who reports the relevant dimensions of the original communication to her addressees, she then takes a full responsibility for designing the target text in such a manner that it makes sense to the addressee (pp. 45-46).

How the translator understands his or her role indeed has vital impact on how he or she performs in translating. In many cases, a translator is, however, neither a mere text-processor nor a mere writer, but has to play both roles. For any translator, it is always tricky to decide to what extent he or she should be loyal or disloyal to the source text, as no set rules are provided by a scholar or textbook to indicate how much "straying" from the source text is too much.

With regard to translation teaching, a translator's centrality in translation is an imperative notion for a translation instructor to bear in mind, and which in turn serves as a reminder that the instructor should keep a close eye on the trainees' non-linear process of acquiring translation competence, find out how they grapple with difficulties that do occur in their translation practice, and appreciate how they manifest their subjectivity, initiative and creativity on their road to professionalism.

2) Linguistic differences

Differences between two linguistic systems are widely believed to be the primary

necessitating factor for use of explicitation in translation (Liu & Chen, 2010), and there is no exception for Chinese-English translation (Wang, 2012). According to Qin (2009), non-correspondence in linguistic form and semantic connotation between two languages constitutes an external, objective, compelling power to stimulate the translator's target language-oriented tendency. Explicitation is in effect an indispensable means to bridge the lexico-grammatical gap between the two languages involved. In his discussion of differences in omission between English and Chinese, Li (2015) pointed out that omission in English usually occurs at the syntactic level and what is omitted can be traced in the close co-text, whereas omission in Chinese is more frequently-used; it occurs not only at the syntactic level, but in many cases it is an implicit means of hiding some contextual cues, i.e. it relies more on the context. What is omitted as hidden contextual cues in the source text will probably have to be explicitated in Chinese-English translation, as it might not be the normal way of omitting a linguistic element in English. Systematic mastery of the linguistic differences between the source and the target languages is, therefore, a prerequisite for the proper use of explicitation. When a translator has a solid command of both languages, particularly the lexico-grammatical differences between them, he or she then can detect what should be explicitated linguistically and follow up when necessary with a proper shift to ensure the accuracy and naturalness in the target text. Just as Južnič (2013) pointed out, differences in grammatical structure between languages "stand out in the process of translation, as it often becomes necessary to verbalize covert meanings from the source language (SL) in a more overt way in the

target language (TL) and vice versa” (p. 76). In Chinese-English translation, the translator has to cross a number of lexico-grammatical barriers attributed to the striking differences between the two languages, for example,

Example 1: 伸手不见五指。(Gloss: Stick out hand cannot see five fingers.)

As shown in the gloss of Example 1, the Chinese sentence is a juxtaposition of two actions without referring to their agent. Moreover, without lexical inflexions in Chinese, 手 (hand) and 指 (finger) are listed as the base forms without indicating whether they are the singular or the plural forms. A word-for-word rendering of this sentence into English is certainly grammatically unacceptable, or even semantically incomprehensible. To cross the linguistic barriers, the translator needs to make explicit both the subject and the determiners and to add the conjunction “when” to sort out the sequence of the two actions, as revealed in the possible translation version:

When you stick out your hand, you can’t see five fingers.

To account for explicitation used in translation, Lederer (2005) focused on the nature of language use, proposing that differences between languages, set phrases and discourse are all synecdochic, which means that the explicit and the implicit components of the linguistic sign are combined to produce meaning, and that the explicit wording and implicit parts differ from language to language and therefore in translation, as he noted, “some of the implications of the original text may have to be

explicitated, while some of the explicit wording may become superfluous in the target language. (p. 35)” It follows that whether to use explicitation or not in some cases depends on how many explicit linguistic components are perceived to suffice in the target language. For the possible translation version of Example 1 above, if we back translate it word for word into Chinese, it is “当你伸出你的手时，你不能看见五个手指”，which is grammatically awkward with redundant words, including “当...时 (when)”, “你 (you)”, “你的 (your)”, and “你 (you)”. As linguistic differences between Chinese and English overwhelmingly outnumber their similarities, more often than not, a word-for-word rendering in Chinese-English or English-Chinese translation is unacceptable. Explicitation is one of the techniques frequently used to bridge the linguistic gap to ensure readability and naturalness of the target text.

2) Socio-cultural differences

Socio-cultural differences are perceived by a number of scholars (e.g., Liao, 2006; Shan, 1990) as one of the factors that necessitate explicitation. However, it seems impossible to exhaust all socio-cultural differences between China and the English-speaking countries. The distinction between high-context cultures and low-context cultures (Li, 2016) is of an explanative power to account for the potential high frequency of explicitation occurrences in Chinese-English translation. In the high-context, Chinese culture, much information is embedded in the socio-cultural milieu. The situational features are rarely expressed explicitly in language and therefore people in such a community usually have to “sense” each other’s implied

meanings and reach a certain degree of tacit understanding to make communication possible (Jiang, Jiang, & Lin, 2009). In contrast, in low-context cultures such as the United States of America, Britain, Australia, and other English-speaking countries, non-linguistic and contextual information has only a minor or limited impact on meaning which is encoded mainly in language itself in communication (Zhang, 2003). In these countries, people place more emphasis on the content of communication than on its context (Tang & Zhang, 2005). An implication of this difference is that the Chinese language, if translated word-for-word into English, might appear indirect, ambiguous, or even illogical from the English perspective. A translator in Chinese-English translation, therefore, has to interpret high-context Chinese and reproduce meaning implied into a low-context English. Doing so is likely to involve the process of explicitation. To illustrate how sociocultural differences might be at play in Chinese-English translation, we can examine the translation of a Chinese sentence I used as the source text for students to translate in my translation class.

Example 2: 远看是美景，近看想报警 (Liu Xing Yu Da Quan, 2017)。 (Gloss: Seeing from the distance is a beautiful view, seeing nearby wants to call the police.)

In the Chinese sentence, there are verbs, but no subjects are mentioned. The word-for-word translation is likely to be rather confusing for most English readers. However, when Chinese readers read the Chinese sentence, they will relate it to the situation of the sentence used. This will involve understanding who the speaker might be and what subjects have been omitted. When I asked students to analyze the

Chinese sentence without any context provided, they all agreed that the speaker is a man who is narrating his personal anecdote having seen a woman, thinking she was really beautiful when he looked at her from the distance, but then realising when he got closer, that the woman was so formidable-looking that he wanted to call the police.

To translate the Chinese sentence well into English, the humor should not be neglected. As the last characters of the two segments separated by the comma rhyme with each other, a Chinese reader will capture it as a witticism with a sarcastic tone. To convey the humor into English, a possible target text is “When I saw her from the distance, she took my breath away; but when I got closer, she took my zeal away.” The two objects “my breath” and “my zeal” are inserted into the phrase “take... away” to create a humorous contrast.

On the other hand, a good mastery of socio-cultural differences could allow translators to evaluate the appropriateness of the target text and decide whether something should be explained to bridge the gap between the two cultures involved. In Example 2, some English readers might be offended as to them it was a sexist remark, so the students should be informed of the students the possible consequences of the translation in an English-speaking country and suggested to see whether it is possible to explain the socio-cultural differences so as to tone down the possible offence it might otherwise cause.

4) Text types

In addition to lexical, syntactic, textual and cultural dimensions, occurrences of explicitation might be related to editing strategies, textual functions or marked textual features pertaining to a particular text type (Ren & Liu, 2014). The text type is another factor that adds to the complexity of translation and requires a translator to figure out to what extent explicitation is applicable or proper in handling the text type of a translation assignment. Thus, before the translator decides whether to explicitate or not, he or she has to take into account what the respective norms of a particular text type are in the two different languages. As translation could involve any text type, each researcher usually focuses on a particular text type for a particular study and thus there are no unanimous findings that could be generalized as a set of rules for the degree of explicitation to employ to suit all text types. For instance, Dósa (2009) analyzed the translation of an accounting text from Hungarian into English and found that implicitation, instead of explicitation, could be observed; in his discussion of the result, he reasoned that there was no need for explicitness or explanation as accounting is similar in all countries and the subject matter is well-known for the potential reader. However, this claim of dispensability of explicitation in translating a Hungarian accounting text into English might not reflect a carefully complete examination as explicitation is not confined to semantics. The complexity of explicitation related to the translation of non-literary texts is a feature revealed in many other studies of explicitation. For example, Ren and Liu (2014),

interpreting data from their investigation of the English translation of a Chinese legal document, maintained that in terms of linguistic functions, explicitation in law translation is similar to that used in literary translation, whereas in terms of professional functions, there is a distinction in that explicitation in law translation involves an elaborate consideration of textual format, features, and intentions peculiar to legal texts.

As far as Chinese-English translation teaching is concerned, text type has long been recognized as an important topic and included in most Chinese-English translation textbooks, although different text types might be covered in different translation textbooks. Those common text types discussed in translation textbooks include news reports, advertisements, manuals, tourist texts, and/or legal texts, in addition to literary texts (See Chen, 2004; Li, 2006; Liu, 2007; Wang, 2012; Ye & Shi, 2016). Therefore, in terms of explicitation teaching, an instructor needs to draw students' attention to the fact that use of explicitation varies from text type to text type and to how each of those typical text types covered in the course sets apart different patterns of use for explicitation.

Translation as an Act of Communication

Translation is an act of communication with a specific purpose and its interactional and dynamic nature should never be overlooked. To employ

explicitation as a translation technique, a translator is to regard translation as a communicative task and take into consideration its complex nature. As indicated in the title of Edwards' article (2001), *Making the Implicit Explicit for Successful Communication: Pragmatic Differences between English and Spanish Observable in the Translation of Verbs of Movement*, explicitation is a communication-oriented means used by the translator to create a positive "ease of comprehension" (Edwards, 2001: 34). Baumgarten, et al (2008) observed,

Usually, in communicative interaction, only part of what is said is said explicitly, that is, with the lexical and grammatical means of a language. Another part is said implicitly; it is 'said between the lines', i.e., suggested, or presupposed by the speaker/writer (p. 177).

Imperfect communication and information loss are inevitable in translation (Catford, 1965), but it is a translator's duty to keep such loss "at an acceptable minimum" (Song, 1991, p. 68). Explicitation is one means of pre-empting information loss in translation. To approach translation as an act of communication, the translator should in the first place grasp the writer's intended meaning encoded in the source text and then encode the original intended meaning in the target language, from time to time determining whether explicitation should be used to convey the meaning intended by the source text writer. In every text to be translated, there will be implicit information, which is part of the meaning that is supposed to be conveyed by the translation as "it is part of the meaning intended to be understood by the original writer" (Beekman & Callow, 1974, p. 38), since "messages in some languages require more linguistic meaning to be explicitly encoded by linguistic material than on other

languages in order to be 'acceptable' in communicative interaction" (Baumgarten, et al., 2008, p. 178).

Target language/text-oriented perspective.

Unlike ordinary monolingual communication, translation involves two cultures as well as two languages. What adds to the complexity of translation is that it is an act of communication that "attempts to relay, across cultural and linguistic boundaries, another act of communication (which may have been intended for different purposes and different readers/hearers)" (Hatim & Mason, 1997, p. 1). In translation, whether some information of the source text should be made explicit or not depends on the norm of the target language or culture (Hu & Zhu, 2008). If what is explicit or implicit in the source text/culture is rigidly copied to the target text/culture, the balance between what is explicit and what is implicit cannot be kept in the target text. The translator, therefore, needs to bear the norm of the target language/culture in mind, be sensitive enough to detect those situational and cultural "non-fits" (Gasse, 1973, p. 304) between the two languages, and then determine what to explicitate and what not to explicitate. When necessary, some implied information in the source text should be made explicit so as to bridge the gap between source language/culture and target language/culture and to strengthen the likelihood of successful communication. The purpose in employing different explicitation strategies is to help a target reader better understand a different culture, as well as to make the target text smoother, more specific and vivid (Sun, Gao, & Li,

2011).

To regard translation as an act of communication is to recognise a target text/language approach to translation, a lens adopted by some scholars (e.g., Becher, 2011b; Liu 2007; Liu, 2011) to investigate explicitation. According to Liu (2007), when a translator adds something in translation, the purpose, generally speaking, is to clarify the meaning, to ensure structural completeness, to conform to the habitual way of expression in the target language, or, to convey the rhetoric feature of a genre. Liu (2011) maintained that the purpose of explicitation is for the clarity of language or enhancement of the effect of the target text. Becher (2011b) postulated five explicitation triggers all of which are target language-oriented: 1) observing the norms of communication of the target language community; 2) exploiting specific features the target language system offers; 3) tackling restrictions of the target language system; 4) neutralizing ways of expressions; and 5) increasing the cohesion of the target text (p. 32). A target language-oriented approach to explicitation means that a translator attaches much importance to the readability of the target text. That is to say, whether some information of the source text is made explicit or not has a bearing on the readability of the target text, just as Saldanha (2008) had suggested, "The frequent use of explicitation is bound to have an effect upon the readability and ease of comprehension of a text in its own right (p. 32)."

Some researchers have touched on the function of readability that explicitation fulfils. Liu and Chen (2010) commented that explicitation can increase the readability

of the novel, reduce reading difficulty, and promote the transmission of novels of a foreign language in China when they compared and analyzed cases of explicitation in three Chinese translation versions of *Lady Chatterley's Lover*. Hu (2011) believed that the translation process, in essence, is one of interpreting or retelling the meaning of the source text in the target language, which means translation entails the translator's inference and supplementary explanation of the meaning of the source text. Marco (2012) proposed that explicitation seems to perform two functions, i.e., to eliminate ambiguity of reference and to obviate repetition by using synonyms, which might in turn create a more readable and easier-to-process target text, when he investigated the translation of the English substituting pronoun "one/ones" into Catalan. In the retrospection of his translation of Munday's English monograph of *Introducing Translation Studies: Theories and Applications* into Arabic, Jaward (2014) proposed that explicitation can result from the translator's adoption of a target language-oriented strategy to ensure cohesion and coherence in the target text. He observed:

Explicitation can be triggered by a TL-oriented strategy that demands a translation to sound lucid, cohesive, coherent and original in its own right. It is hypothesised that the Arabic TT will show a higher level of explicitness so as to cement textual cohesion, establish coherence and explicate meaning (p. 51).

If cohesion is concerned with the syntactic and textual dimensions, coherence has much to do with the semantic and logical ones. In this sense, a target language-oriented approach to translation does not only focus on the language per se, but also on the meaning packaged in the form of the target language, which is to be

understood by the target reader as discussed in the next section “Target reader-oriented perspective”.

Target reader-oriented perspective.

A communicative footing of explicitation research indicates that a translator needs to keep the target readership in mind when drafting a target text – and that doing so might lead to use of explicitation, as he or she attends to the responsibility of facilitating the reader’s likely understanding of the target text. Conscious changes, including the use of explicitation, could be made by the translator to “accommodate the particular needs of his target readership” or to “make his translation as relevant to his readers as possible” (Calma, 2014, p. 589). In her discussion of translating Taiwan’s Chinese lottery poetry into English, Shih (2011) proposed that explicitation, including “paraphrase and addition of notes or explanations to explicitate all implicit meanings and cultural connotations” (p.162), is a strategy that will reduce miscommunication caused by cultural differences between the East and the West. Jaward (2014), based on the analysis of his own Arabic translation of an English academic monograph on Translation Studies, pointed out,

Explicitation is more concerned with and driven by cohesion and coherence, a perspective which is overriding in my translation strategy catering for the needs of target readers for a readable, explicit translation and governed by the norms of acceptability in the target language and culture (p. 65).

It follows that the target text/language-oriented and the target reader-oriented perspectives are closely related to each other and the former is a means to an end,

while the latter is that end. In her discussion of explicitation of personal pronouns in Chinese translated texts, Chen (2015) concluded that it is not only attributed to the translator's consideration of the meaning of a discourse, but also to the translator's endeavours to make explicit the relationship between the translator and the target reader. Ren (2015) pointed out that the translator usually makes explicit in the target text the information implied or vaguely expressed in the source text to make sure that the reader understands what the source text conveys. Hu and Zhu (2008) maintained that there are two premises for explicitation. The first of these is where there is implied information in the source text. The second is where if some implied information is not explicitated, the reader will not understand the target text. In her discussion of explicitation in subtitling, Perego (2003) suggested that explicitation has both a compensatory purpose by making up for the loss of important features in the source text, and, a facilitating function when it provides "more precise, detailed and exact descriptions/information" (p. 84) to make the target text more accessible or easier to understand.

A translator, as a cultural mediator who makes communication possible, inevitably has to decide whether something familiar to the source readership should be made explicit so as to assist the target readership in understanding what would be otherwise unfamiliar to them. When a language is used, some linguistic or cultural information might be explicit, while other information might be implicit.

Some scholars are inclined to see target reader-orientation as a benchmark to

measure whether a procedure employed in translation is a means of explicitation or not. For example, although specification and generalization were perceived by scholars, such as Øverås (1988), as two means associated with explicitation and implicitation respectively, Kamenická (2007), argued that it is not necessarily the case, as in some instances, generalization might result in explicitation. One example Kamenická gave is “Heathrow” being translated in one English text into “London” in the Czech target text. She reasoned that when “Heathrow” is generalised to “London”, it reduces the processing effort on the part of the target reader as many Czech readers might not know Heathrow is a London airport since at the 1988 date of publication few people in the Czech Republic took air travel (Kamenická, 2007).

Leppihalme (2005) pointed out, “[T]he greater the cultural distance between source and target readerships, the greater the likelihood that there are implicit elements in the source text needing explicitation in the target text. (p. 230)” It is sometimes held that as cultural distance has been shortening in a world of modernization with all the communication made possible and easy by the Internet and other technologies, explicitation is not necessary as it means patronising the target readership suggesting that they cannot appreciate the text without the translator’s assistance (Leppihalme, 2005). However, converging of cultures is not necessarily symmetric and “translations into major languages of literary prose written in languages of limited diffusion cannot count on target readers being familiar with the source culture (Leppihalme, 2005, p. 234)”. A translator needs to evaluate

whether information that might have been unfamiliar to the target reader originally may no longer be so - and explicitation is unnecessary. For example, when “功夫” and “太极拳” were first introduced to the English audience, the translator could have needed to explicit them by conveying the meanings of the two Chinese terms and decide on “martial arts” and “shadow boxing”, but nowadays, with many English readers’ familiarity with the two typically Chinese items due to cross-cultural communication between China and the western world over the years, the translator does not have to explicitate them. “Kungfu” and “tai chi”, two terms included in most English dictionaries, will suffice.

However, generally speaking, Chinese is not as internationally influential as English and no one can ensure that with the help of the Internet and new technologies, the English reader will intuitively understand something typically Chinese. Even if they can finally figure out the meaning of a culturally-loaded expression, it might be an arduous demand to do so. The ease involved in consulting the Internet or using a hi-tech device may be testing in comparison with that provided by explicitation in-built into the text in-hand. Therefore, in translation teaching, the instructor seeking his students to be both target text and target reader-oriented would want them to be knowledgeable about, proficient with, and ready to use explicitation.

When to Explicitate

From what has been discussed above, a picture emerges of value for translators to use explicitation albeit that it is a multifarious, complex concept still lacking clear-cut demarcation or consensus of opinion on how its product and process elements interact and on what motivation exists for translators to use it. Baker (1992) held that “meaning exists in texts but can only be accessed through various processes of interpretation on the part of the reader. (p. 221)” and that whether a text is coherent or not depends on whether the reader is able to make sense of it by relating it to his or her existent knowledge or to a world of which he or she is familiar.

From a cognitive point of view, Wang (2006) asserted that the default value of a frame encoded in the source language should be made explicit in the target language and that the number of codes used in the target language should be large enough to activate the frame but not be so large as to breach the Economy Principle in language use. Based on Wang’s view, whether a translator can use the proper amount of explicitation relies on whether he or she has appropriate judgement of fit for a cognitive frame from the source text with those of the target text readers.

Such judgment requires expertise and experience. Even then, subjectivity always is enacted when a translator translates. Two equally experienced, competent translators will not necessarily agree on whether an item in the source text should be explicitated or not, as differences in attitude, value, and stance between them

inevitably affects their respective consideration and decision-making. For example, Liu (2007) pointed out, that to decide when and what words could be added to a nicety or placed properly within the opposite boundary, a translator needs to “xixin tihui” (悉心体会)” (p. 112), which means “to experience and comprehend”. This is a vague expression, giving no practical guidance on strategy for doing such things. However, later scholars have attempted to provide general principles for using explicitation. For example, Jawad (2014) advanced the *Principle of Maximin*, which “entails exerting maximum effort in order to guarantee minimal risk, cooperation with target readers and relevance to the target situation (p. 64).” This progressed Tan’s (2001a, p. 7) earlier advice that in translation we should not focus too much on a word count, as the linguistic form serves merely as a trigger of meaning. Instead, he had insisted that translators ensure the complete conveyance of meaning.

To follow general principles such as Jawad’s (2014) “Maximin” or Tan’s (2001a) “complete meaning conveyance”, a translator would need to rely on his or her subjective consideration. In terms of explicitation teaching, it is advisable to let the students explore and evaluate the different effects of explitated and non-explitated translations when handling those complicated cases of optional explicitaion, apart from getting them to understand that those cases of obligatory explicitation are a prerequisite indispensable to an acceptable target text.

Corpus/Product-based Research on Explicitation

With the widespread use of comparable and parallel corpora as an investigative tool in Translation Studies, many researchers since the late 1990s have tested the “explicitation hypothesis” in the hope of finding to what extent explicitation is a translation universal. Some have explored the use of specific lexical items, such as “that” (e.g., Olohan & Baker, 2000), in translated and non-translated corpora to reveal any tendency to lexical explicitation in translation. Others (e.g., Espunya, 2002) have probed textual explicitation manifested in shifts in interclausal discourse relationships between source text and target text. Explicitation in translations between various language pairs has been scrutinised, for example in pairs for Norwegian and English (Øverås, 1998), English and Chinese (e.g. Zhou & Zhang, 2003), English and German (e.g. Hansen-Schirra et al., 2007), Persian and English (e.g. Baleghizadeh & Sharifi, 2010), Italian and Slovene (e.g. Južnič, 2013) and English and Arabic (e.g. Jawad, 2014). Findings in a large number of studies support the explicitation hypothesis, i.e., explicitation is inherent in all translation (See Baker & Olohan, 2000; Fabricius-Hansen, 1998; Jiménez-Crespo, 2011; Klaudy & Károly, 2005; Konšalová, 2007; Olohan, 2001; Øverås, 1998; Pápai, 2004; Tong, 2014; Wang & Hu, 2008).

However, the universality of explicitation was questioned by Becher (2011a), who dismissed the tendency of taking explicitation as a translation-inherent,

universal process in most studies of explicitation. Instead, he considered that “every instance of explicitation (implication) can be explained as a result of lexicogrammatical and/or pragmatic factors” (p. 4). He tested and justified the hypothesis by comparing and analysing occurrences of explicitation and implication in the translations of business texts between German and English and concluded that shifts of explicitation and implication were uniquely determined by lexicogrammatical and pragmatic variables. For instance, in his investigation of translators’ motivation for adding connectives, a particular case of explicating shifts, Becher (2011b) found that most of the shifts identified could be attributed to “previously established English-German contrasts in terms of syntax, lexis, and communicative norms” (p. 26). He suggested that it is unnecessary to assume that “translators follow a ‘universal strategy’ of explicitation, as it has often been done in the literature” (Becher, 2011b, p. 26).

With regard to the teaching of explicitation to students learning Chinese-English translation, it might not be important whether explicitation is a universal strategy or not; what seems fundamentally important is that explicitation is frequently used in any published English translated texts from Chinese. Perhaps it is feasible and of greater practicality to introduce them to a curiosity about the possible frequency of explicitation occurrences based on the lexico-grammatical and socio-cultural differences, between exemplary source and target texts as a basis for their usage and awareness of explicitation as a procedural strategy in translation.

Process-based Research on Explicitation

Process-based research largely adopts a descriptive approach, with a primary aim to “find out what actually goes on in the translator’s head, i.e. how s/he translates, not how s/he should translate” (Lörscher, 1992a, p. 159). Investigations oriented to translation process “have helped to locate, describe, and explain deficits in non-professional translating and have thus contributed to making us aware of aspects of the structure and of the complexities of translation (Lörscher, 1992a, p. 159)”. Although Lörscher’s (1992a; 1992b; 1996; 2005) investigation into translation strategies was not specifically focused on explicitation, it set a seminal model for subsequent process-based research on explicitation. His findings are revealing as regards different approaches adopted by professional and non-professional translators: 1) foreign language students, or non-professional translators tend to take a form-oriented approach, whereas professional translators employ sense-oriented procedures; 2) professional translators are able to focus their attention on and treat considerably larger source text segments than foreign language students; 3) foreign language students tend not to check translation texts according to their sense and are thus unable to realize any problems, whereas professional translators tend to continuously check their production of the target text and often do not realize formulating problems before checking their translations; and 4) unlike foreign language students who usually check their translations at the lexical level or at best at the syntactic level, professional translators largely check their translations with

respect to stylistic and text-type adequacy (Lörscher, 2005, pp. 605-606).

As regards explicitation, a number of researchers aimed to reveal how and why it takes place by adopting a process-based approach by comparing the performance of professional and non-professional translators in translation. Englund Dimitrova (2005) explored the explicitation of implicit logical links in Russian-Swedish translation by analysing the target texts, TPAs, and ScriptLog data produced by four professional translators, three translation students, and two language students. Her detailed analysis of the rich data collected reveals that professional translators with high levels of expertise employ explicitation in a controlled, standardized manner, whereas language students employ it in an uncontrolled, random manner. Translation students' exploitation is characterized by a pattern situated between the professional translators and the language students. Englund Dimitrova's (2005) finding is critical in relation to the current study, because systematic inquiry might reveal evidence concerning whether this difference is sustained in instructed procedures alerting translation students to it and in how to address it. In their comparison of professional translations and student translations of English technical texts into Chinese, Shih and Shen (2005) revealed that the former demonstrate a higher degree of explicitness than the latter; their major findings are: a) professional translators have added some euphemistic expressions in the Chinese translated texts of instructions as they seem to be more aware of the convention of politeness in Chinese texts, whereas no added euphemistic expressions can be found in student

translations; b) the frequency of cohesive markers or conjunctions is lower in the student translation corpus than in professional translation corpus. Denver (2007) examined in what ways six Masters-level translation students and five veteran professional translators performed differently when translating a text from Spanish into Danish. Based on the Translog, TAPs, and interview data collected, she found that there was a higher amount of mental processing occurring when explicitation was carried out than when lonely literal translation was done, that the level of explicitness in the translations of the professional translators is higher than in those of the translation students, and that unlike the translation students, the professional group followed routine procedures when they were translating.

Using a combination of process-based and product-based approaches, Fan (2012) investigated the explicitation strategies adopted by three professional translators and three translation students in Chinese-English translation and tested the readability of their target texts from the target-reader's perspective. One of Fan's findings was that types of explicitation that require much cognitive effort, such as those employed with an application of global strategies, might lead to a greater degree of target text readability. The same trend was revealed only in one professional translator's data (Fan, 2012). Based on this research, Fan (2012) provided two pedagogical suggestions for translation training and teaching. He proposed that students first should develop global critical reading skills and learn to perceive the unique qualities of the source text; and then, secondly, that they be

given a chance to experience the learning process actively.

Other scholars focused studies of explicitation and implicitation only in non-professional translating applications. For example, Puurtinen (2003) analysed language students' explicating and implicating strategies in translating English magazine articles into Finnish finding that most students adopted both strategies in a non-systematic manner. He interpreted this to indicate that the students' had insufficient skills and knowledge from which to manipulate a source text. Hjort-Pedersen and Faber (2010) explored how four pairs of translation trainees employed explicitation and implicitation when they were translating a Danish legal text into English. By examining their TAPs, the researchers found that trainees were not fully aware of the consequences and risks involved in legal translation and were more willing to run the risk of linguistic explicitation and implicitation than expected and that they seemed not to be aware of what they were doing when they added or left out information in their translation.

In summary, according to the studies listed above, current documentation of features in non-professional translators' differences when employing explicitation appears to be that a) frequency of deliberate attention to explicitation is not high; b) when used, it is done in an uncontrolled, non-systematic, random manner; c) pragmatic factors are neglected; d) global strategies are not apparent, and, e) effects where explicitation has been used have not been well evaluated.

Explicitation for the Chinese/English Language Pair

In Western academia, explicitation as a concept of interest for translation has been studied since first proposed by Vinay and Darbelnet (1958). In contrast, the first journal paper traceable concerning explicitation in Chinese academia was Chen's (1997) discussion of pragmatic explicitation in translation between Chinese and English. Against the backdrop of an increasing popularity in the research of explicitation in the international circles since Chen's original work, subsequent Chinese scholars (e.g., He, 2003; Ke, 2005; Liu, 2002; Zhou & Zhang, 2003) have focused on the Chinese/English language pair. In the past decade, Chinese researchers have covered a great variety of text types in their studies of explicitation, ranging from novels (e.g., Hou & Liu, 2012; Sun, Gao & Li, 2011; Yao, 2013), abstracts (e.g., Liu, 2015), manuals (e.g., Liu, 2011), texts of traditional Chinese medicine (e.g., Zhu, 2008) and texts of science and technology (e.g., Qin, 2009). Despite its popularity, explicitation has not yet been included explicitly as a translation technique or a procedural strategy in any Chinese translation textbooks used in University-based instruction of Chinese students. Therefore, to trace the roots of explicitation, some notions similar to it in Chinese-English translation textbooks are discussed in the following section.

Explicitation-related Notions in Chinese-English Translation Textbooks

Translation techniques prescribed as rules or norms in traditional translation textbooks unpublished across the past four consecutive decades, usually present summaries of tools in translation based on a detailed study and collection of examples from well-translated texts by highly-acclaimed expert translators as models for students to emulate (See Qian, 2015; Sun, 2003; Zhang et al., 1980). Moreover, translation textbooks, especially those that have been used consistently across this time (See Chen & Li, 2004; Fang & Mao, 2014; Li, & Zhang, 1983; Lyu, Yu, Zhang, Ke, 1991; Zhu & Luo, 2015), have, to a great extent, set detailed rules and norms available to generations of translators. These have not included explicitation named as such, but do reference techniques and rules related to it. I present here an overview of them. with the aims of (a) reviewing how those informing translation students have developed instructional implications of the concept of explicitation, and, (b) identifying a point of departure for my teaching of explicitation in the present study.

Lyu et al. (1983) expounded the translation technique of *zengbu* (addition) in Chinese-English translation and identified two purposes for its use, i.e., to ensure completeness of grammatical structure in the target text, including additions of nouns, pronouns, conjunctions, propositions, and articles, and, to achieve clarity of meaning in the target text, including additions of what is implied in the Chinese source text, additions of a generic noun, and annotation.

In his discussion of compensational techniques to achieve “maximum equivalence” between the source text and the target text, Ke (1991a) put forward *zengyi* (amplification) and *jutihua* (specification), two techniques through which students might explicitate those implicit elements in the source text. According to Ke (1991a), amplification is to be used for grammatical, expressive, and cultural reasons, while specification provides a specific term in the target language to render a general or vague term in the source language.

Chen and Li (2004) discussed explicitation-related translation techniques in an implicit but profound way. They emphasised co-textual, situational and cultural contexts as vital factors from which to discern specific meaning in the source text and to decide what should or should not be made explicit in the target text. Take “*hongbao* (红包)” for example. Chen and Li (2004) explained that it could be translated into gift money, bonus, or bribes, depending on the context in which the term is used. In their discussion of cultural context in lexical translation, Chen and Li (2004) recognized what we now know as explicitation as one of the viable means through which translators could retain cultural connotation in the target text, arguing that it is acceptable to discard a cultural message when it is minor and where keeping it in the target text would jeopardize smooth communication or when textual or genre restrictions render explicitation impossible, or, when it is culturally or socially unacceptable to the target reader if it is rendered explicitly.

Fang and Mao (2014) proposed rhetorical amplification and amplification by notes for the translation of tourism texts. The first is employed to extend the

connotative meaning of the source text and to enhance the rhetorical effect and impact, thus getting as close as possible to the target text's aesthetic convention and the target reader's expectations. On the other hand, amplification by notes is a means to clarify key culture-loaded information in the source text so as to facilitate a target reader's understanding of it.

Zhu and Luo (2015) maintained that use of amplification in Chinese-English translation is based on grammatical, semantic, rhetorical, or cultural consideration. For grammatical consideration, words of particular parts of speech are added, including pronouns, verbs, articles, conjunctions and prepositions. Semantic consideration involves adding words to express a meaning implied in the source text. Rhetorical consideration indicates that some words are added to achieve an emphatic or rhetorical effect, or to convey the meaning in the source in a more clear-cut and vivid manner. Cultural consideration means that some explanative words are added to help the target reader understand the intended meaning of some typically Chinese expressions, particularly idioms.

As mentioned above, explicitation as a translation technique had not yet been included in any translation textbooks in China at the time of my study and those similar notions discussed above serve as a point of departure for the present study. With regard to similar notions of explicitation, albeit without use of the term, those rules to some extent are experience-based and descriptive. More specific and named accounts have occurred in the academic literature.

Explicitation in Chinese Journal Papers

Examination of Chinese journal papers about explicitation reveals that Chinese scholars have tended to take a product/corpus-based approach to present explicitation involving Chinese and English. Some have focused on the general feature of explicitness based on a parallel corpus, either in smaller works such as a short story or in bigger works such as a careful selection of bilingual texts of different genres. For example, in He's (2003) oft-cited paper, based on a comparison of *The Last Leaf* written by O' Henry and its Chinese translation, He found that the latter shows a higher level of explicitness, with 79 out of the 134 sentences explicitated, accounting for 58.96% of the text. In comparison, there were 13 sentences implicated, and 42 sentences unchanged. He suggested that explicitation attributed to the translator's interpretation is intended to facilitate readers' comprehension of the source text, but warned that it might be imbued with a translator's subjectivity- and if so this would hinder readers' comprehension.

Liu (2002) investigated cohesive overtness or explicitness in English and Chinese using parallel corpora with four text types - short stories, speeches, texts of science and technology, and legal texts. She found that in all four text types English shows a greater level of cohesive explicitness than Chinese, and considered that this testifies to hypotactic vs. paratactic differences - long assumed to be one of the most striking differences between English and Chinese in contrastive study (See Lian, 1993; Wang, 1984; Zhao & Liu, 2008; Zhu, 2012).

As regards the corpus-based approach, from a linguistic and textual point of view many researchers took what has been summarized in contrastive study as a point of departure and testified to different features between Chinese and English. For example, Zhou and Zhang (2003) investigated differences in subject between Chinese and English and noted that a Chinese sentence that starts with a word or expression of time, place, or manner is actually a sentence without a real subject, so when it is translated into English, a subject should be added and made explicit. They also acknowledged the hypotactic and paratactic contrast between English and Chinese, pointing out that “the relationships among the Chinese sentence elements are not expressed by forms and morphology (2003, p. 35)”, but can only be discerned by referring to a web of semantic elements.

Based on parallel corpora, Huang (2008) investigated explicitation of personal pronoun subjects in English-Chinese translation and found that there are more personal pronoun subjects in translated Chinese texts than in non-translated Chinese texts. Wang and Hu (2010) explored differences in personal pronouns in a more general sense between Chinese texts of literary translation and non-translated original Chinese texts and found that personal pronouns are more frequently used in the former than in the latter. They proposed that grammatical explicitation and deviation of personal pronouns in Chinese texts of literary translation might be attributed to interference from the source language of English as it basically has a higher level of morphology, but on the other hand, they could be perceived as norms for Chinese literary translation. In the same vein, Tong (2014) examined obligatory

explicitation of personal pronouns in *Selected Works of Deng Xiaoping Volume III*, using a self-built Chinese-English parallel corpus and found that 30.68% of the total 5024 sentence segments in the target text had personal pronouns added.

Apart from the linguistic or textual dimensions of explicitation, some scholars attempted to explore other types of explicitation. For example, Yao (2013) made a parallel corpus-based investigation of semantic explicitation in *The Story of The Stone*, David Hawkes' translation of *Hong Lou Meng*, a well-acclaimed Chinese literary classic, and found that the character of Lin Daiyu is explicitated semantically by means of explanation and addition. He suggested that the translator's sensitivity to linguistic contrasts and cultural lacunae might contribute to the use of semantic explicitation as a means of making the classical Chinese ancient work more accessible in English. Han (2016) expounded the significance of explicitation as a means of contextual compensation by stating its use was a necessity in bridging the information gaps attributed to striking differences between Chinese and English.

Other scholars focused on the theoretical dimension, attempting to reveal the reasons for the employment of explicitation. Besides Ke's (2005) proposal of four factors - the translator, linguistic differences, socio-cultural differences, and type of text, as elaborated previously, several scholars' went a step further by theorising explicitation as dynamic. Recognising the close tie of thinking to explicitation, over and above explicitation's connection to linguistic form, Zhou (2007) argued that explicit linguistic form does not necessarily correspond to explicit thinking, and that an addition in linguistic form does not always lead to explicitness in thinking from the

target reader's point of view, and that in some cases implicitness in form might facilitate thinking. Wang (2006) elaborated explicitation from the cognitive perspective, pointing out that the default value embedded in the source text is what to be explicitated with linguistic codes of the target language. Huang (2008) described explicitation in translation as a reflection of the cognitive rule that human beings get to know what is unknown based on what is known. Jiang and Dong (2009) recognised explicitation as a cognition-based process and as a procedure to help break away from text centrism and to facilitate code-switching from the source to the target language.

From this review of major Chinese journal papers concerning explicitation, the majority of Chinese scholars, armed with a product/corpus-based approach, have focused largely on lexico-grammatical dimensions of explicitation. However, few scholars investigated explicitation from dimensions other than linguistic or textual ones with Chen (1997) and Han (2016) differentiating pragmatic explicitation, and Yao (2013) theorising on semantic explicitation. Unlike western translation researchers, Chinese scholars typically have not taken a process-based investigation into their studies of explicitation, with the exception being the PhD dissertation by Fan (2012). Therefore, the present study is relatively new in a Chinese context to incorporate a process-based approach with a product-based one in an investigation of language students' acquisition of explicitation in Chinese-English translation.

Explicitation as a Procedural Strategy

Given the complexity of translation, translation competence or translator competence as proposed by some translation researchers (e.g., PACTE, 2003) is comprised not only of linguistic sub-competence, but also of other components, one of which is strategic competence. In terms of teaching, to perceive explicitation as a procedural strategy is to guide students to employ explicitation to identify and solve a corresponding problem they come across in the translation process. In this sense, teaching explicitation to students is an endeavour to nurture their strategic competence, although it might be only a small part of it.

Translation/Translator Competence and Strategic Competence

Translation competence and translator competence are used interchangeably by some scholars (e.g., Bell, 2000), but others (e.g. Kiraly, 2003; Li, 2011) have started to recognize the necessity of differentiating them. Kiraly (2003) distinguished between translation competence and translator competence, describing the former as “essentially the ability to comprehend a text written in one language and produce and ‘adequate’ target text for speakers of a different language on the basis of that original text” (p. 10) and the latter as “being able to identify and appropriate norms in new communities to which we seek access” (p.13). In fact, there was a shift from translation competence to translator competence in translation studies of the early 2000s, which was lauded by Li (2011) as a more valid perspective on the nature of translation and a justifiable re-focus on the subjectivity and differences of different groups of translators. Xie and Bartlett (2018) pointed out that the notion of translator competence is a new perspective in contrast to translation competence, as it indicates four underlying principles, i.e., “centralizing the translator, meeting the

needs of the contemporary era, highlighting professionalism of translation, stressing the communicative and contextualized feature of translation, and recognizing the developmental stages of translator competence” (p. 37). However, as the difference between translation competence and translator competence is not a critical issue, I will present them as were used by the scholars mentioned in the following review.

Translation competence was considered by some researchers, e.g., Wilss (1976) and Harris (1977), as an innate ability of bilinguals. Since the 1990s, however, research on translation competence has featured a bottom-up approach through which scholars attempted to identify its multifarious components (Li, 2011) and it is widely held that translation is a highly complex operation concerned with not merely the ability in transferring linguistic signs from the source language to the target language, as Ayupova (2014) rightly pointed out,

Translation process is not mere substitution of linguistic units of the source language by the ones of the target language, but it is the mental operation performed according to the strategy chosen as the result of pre-translation analysis of the text (p. 215).

Translation competence is multifaceted and involves a repertoire of sub-competences. Bell held (2000) that translation or translator competence includes bilingual competence, expertise, and communicative competence (pp. 38-42). Neubert (2000) maintained that translation competence is comprised of textual competence, subject competence, cultural competence, and transfer competence as well as language competence and that transfer competence as the core that makes translation possible is preconditioned by the linguistic, textual, subject, and cultural knowledge of the translator. According to Yang (2002), translation competence specific to Chinese-English translation generally involves an adept use of translation techniques, a proper adherence to translation criteria and principles, a tactful use of both languages, linguistic and encyclopedic knowledge, logical thinking and other

comprehensive abilities. Wen and Li (2010) categorized translation competence into practical competence and theoretical competence; the former includes linguistic/textual competence, strategic competence, self-evaluation, IT competence, instrumental competence and the latter knowledge of translation as a discipline, subject knowledge, and professional literacy. PACTE (2003) also considered translation competence as an entity with many components and proposed that it can be categorised into bilingual, extralinguistic, strategic and instrumental sub-competences and psycho-physiological components. It considered the strategic sub-competence is essential in that it is decisive in the translation process and affects all other components.

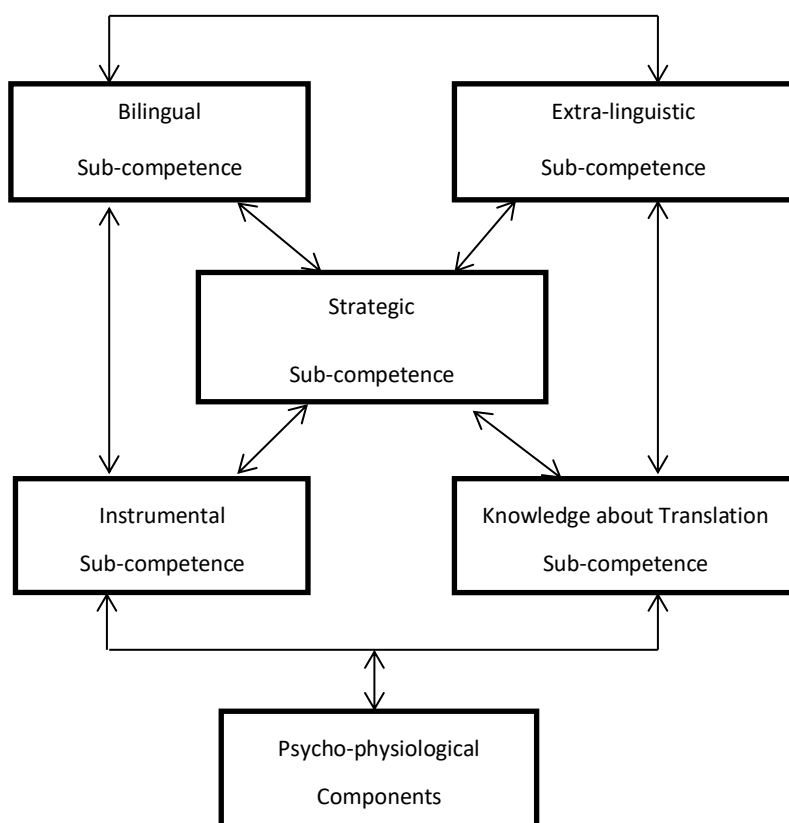


Figure 2.2. PACTE's (2003, p. 60) Model of Translation Competence

In their prediction of the prospects for research on translation competence, Yang and Wang (2010) drawing on PACTE's (2003) model, proposed linguistic and extralinguistic sub-competences as the basic one, knowledge about translation and strategic sub-competences as the core one, and instrumental sub-competence as the peripheral one. Their categorization is analogous to a widely-held opinion that in terms of translation teaching, the focus should be on raising trainees' awareness of the nature of translation and their practical use of strategies to address translation problems (Zhen, 2016; Shang, 2017). This is consistent with PACTE's (2003) perception of strategic sub-competence as the core component controlling all other components, and is reflected in the practical significance of the present study, which aims to investigate language students' process of acquiring explicitation, a small, but typical link in the chain of strategic sub-competence as a whole.

Drawing on PACTE's (2003) model of translation competence, Ma (2013) formulated a model of Chinese-English translation competence for Chinese translation trainees, which is claimed to be comprised of bilingual communicative sub-competence, translation knowledge, strategic sub-competence, extra-linguistic sub-competence and research sub-competence; in the model, bi-lingual communicative sub-competence is considered the core component, translation knowledge and strategic sub-competence the indispensable components for professional translators, and extra-linguistic sub-competence and research sub-competence the peripheral components).

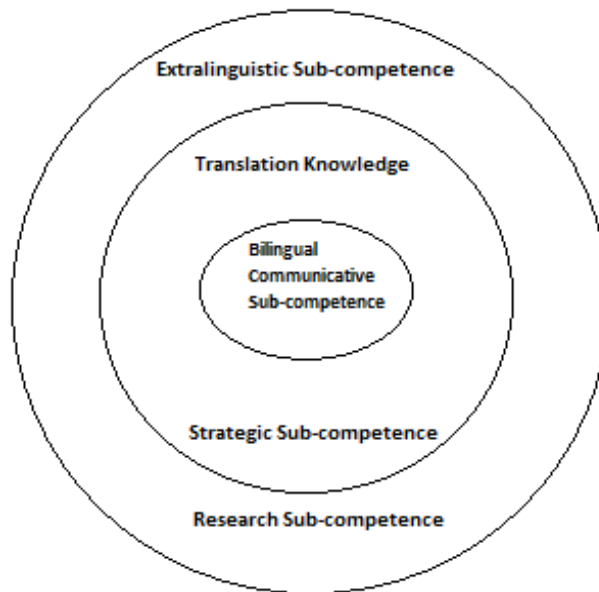


Figure 2.3. Ma's (2003) Model of Translation Competence

In terms of teaching translation, translation competence is seen as developmental by researchers, some of whom divide it into stages. For example, drawing on Dreyfus and Dreyfus' (1986) perception of expertise, Chesterman (2000) proposed five stages of expertise for translation competence, from novice through advanced beginner, competence, proficiency, and expertise. Li (2011) contended that translator competence is a series of advanced thinking capacities to solve translation problems. He perceived it as a dynamic continuum with primary, intermediate and ideal stages, suggesting that a translator at the primary stage of competence usually neglects the contextuality and situationality of translation, uses static, fragmentary knowledge, adopts a sign-oriented, bottom-up approach, and, therefore is unable to get rid of negative transfer from the source language, whereas

a translator with the ideal stage of competence is equipped with advanced thinking capabilities and can overcome all the above weaknesses attributed to an inexperienced translator.

Table 2.2. A Comparison of the Primary and the Target Stages of Translator Competence (Li, 2011, p. 49)

Parameters	Primary Stage	Target Stage
Translator	Novices (language students)	Experts (professional translators)
Translation type	Language learning-oriented	Situation-oriented
Cognitive environment	Language-based	Task, ecology, and community-based
Knowledge	Static, fragmentary, shallow	Dynamic, systematic, profound
Approach	Sign-oriented	Meaning-oriented
Mode of thinking	Generally bottom-up	Generally top-down
Way of thinking	Comparatively simple, mainly primary	Comparatively complex, mainly advanced
Translated text	Negative transfer, inadequate communication	Conforming to norms; adequate communication

PACTE (2003) stressed that translation competence acquisition is a dynamic, spiral process in which sub-competences are developed and restructured. If so, then the stages proposed by Chesterman (2000) or Li (2011) should be regarded as typical points at a continuum or cline of levels of translation competence and a group of students learning the same translation course might demonstrate varied levels of translation competence in face of different text types with different levels of difficulties. In the present study one possible outcome is to document a variety of explicitation patterns revealed in participating students' acquisition of the targeted explicitation strategy.

Translation Strategies

In a broad sense, translation strategies are defined as “a set of (loosely formulated) rules or principles which a translator uses to reach the goals determined by the translating situation in the most effective way” (Jääskeläinen, 1993, p. 116). In the same vein, Superceanu (2004) held that unlike methods or techniques which involve linguistic operations and are used in the text-processing stages, strategies, as cognitive operations, are potentially employed consciously and permeate all translation phases and stages. On the other hand, others (e.g. Chesterman, 1997; Lörscher, 1991) touched on translation strategies in a narrow sense, suggesting that a translation strategy is related to a particular problem and thus it “becomes a procedure or method used to solve a particular kind of problem posed by the text to be translated or linked to the translation task” (Palumbo, 2009, p. 132). Palumbo (2009) further categorized translation strategies into global strategies and local strategies, the former being considered a consistent approach to solve problems or “general modes of text transfer” that a translator adopts when translating a whole source text, and, the latter being employed to handle shorter textual segments and “characterized as transfer operations, shifts or translation techniques” (p. 132).

Concerning the classification of translation strategies, Chesterman (1995, p. 93) proposed three types based on changes between the source and the target texts. They are:

- a) syntactic/grammatical strategies, which manipulate form, having to do with both syntactic changes and changes of smaller linguistic elements (p. 94);
- b) semantic strategies, which manipulate meaning, involving dimensions of clause meaning as well as lexical semantics (p. 101);
- c) pragmatic strategies, which manipulate the message itself and are concerned with “bigger changes from the source text, and typically incorporate syntactic and/or semantic changes as well” (p. 107).
Chesterman emphasized that pragmatic strategies are attributed to a translator's global decisions concerning the appropriate way to translate the text as a whole (p. 107).

With regard to explicitation, Perego (2003) saw two attributes of explicitation had featured in the literature,

[E]xplicitation is considered either a natural translation-inherent and language independent procedure, a by-product of the translation process, or a conscious strategy, a professional device, deliberately employed by translators who want to circumvent linguistic and/or socio-cultural differences between SL and TL (p. 68).

The second of the attributes mentioned by Perego in the citation above indicates that explicitation as a translation strategy is used by translators in a conscious or deliberate manner to resolve problems resulting from differences between the two languages and cultures involved. In this sense, explicitation can be introduced and taught to student translators as a procedural strategy so that they can consciously employ it as a practical tool in solving specific problems encountered in their translation. On the other hand, in the analysis of students' patterns of

explicitation, it seems important also to explore whether they had identified a translation problem and linked employment of explicitation as a strategy to solve it. According to Fu (2015), “A translator with no awareness of translation problems doesn’t necessarily mean that he is not equipped with translation competence, but it goes without saying that he is not a qualified translator” (p. 85). Therefore, in my instructional design to address explicitation, I will aim to draw students’ attention to the different patterns of explicitation used by professional or expert translators to tackle a specific type of translation problem in Chinese-English translation, which could be grammatical/syntactical, semantical, or pragmatic, as inspired by Chersterman’s (1995) categorizations of translation strategies mentioned above.

Explicitation as a Procedural Strategy

In the present study, to reflect the essential feature of explicitation as a procedural strategy, I will review the means of explicitation in the literature and categorize them into a number of procedures in a general, superordinate sense, to better fulfill my pedagogical purposes.

As far as the means of explicitation are concerned, some scholars might only mention one or two in their discussions of a particular type of explicitation. For example, Li (2011) pointed out that semantic explicitation includes the means of adding a syntactic element or a functional word, while pragmatic explicitation consists of the means of eliminating ambiguity. Liu (2011, p. 52) regarded

restructuring syntactic patterns as a means of explicitation, pointing out that in translating English long sentences with high density of information in manuals of medical apparatus into Chinese, the translator can “break away the surface structure of the source text and restructure layers of content in accordance with their logical relations and Chinese habitual ways of expressions, so as to present to the reader the information of deep structure of the source text in an clear-cut and explicit manner. (p. 52) (My translation)”

On the other hand, in the literature, there is a multifarious wide range of discussion of the means with a micro-strategic nature, usually in relation to the use of explicitation in translations of various text types. Séguinot (1988) suggested that explicitation can be revealed in three forms in a translation, which could in fact be summed up in three words as three procedures of explicitation: a) Addition: “something is expressed in the translation which was not in the original” (Séguinot, 1988, p. 108); b) Clarification: “something which was implied or understood through presupposition in the source text is overtly expressed in the translation” (Séguinot, 1988, p. 108); c) Foregrounding: “an element in the source text is given greater importance in the translation through focus, emphasis, or lexical choice” (Séguinot, 1988, p. 108).

Olohan (2002) listed some means translators adopted to explicitate information, including “using supplementary explanatory phrases, resolving source

text ambiguities, making greater use of repetitions and other cohesive devices” (p. 155).

In his investigation of the Chinese translation of *The Last Leaf*, He (2003) summed up six means to explicitate, adding words, using specific words, changing the personal pronoun, restructuring sentences or paragraphs, standardizing a language variety, and shifting the image or rhetoric device.

Zhu (2008) mentioned five means of explicitation, adding explanative language, converting abstractness into concreteness, restructuring syntactic patterns, shifting ancient Chinese to modern English, and annotating figurative language or rhetorical devices in his discussion of translating texts of traditional Chinese medicine into English.

Hjort-Pedersen and Faber (2010) categorised explicitation into addition and specification. They perceived addition as quantitative in nature, which “involves the inclusion in the TT of extra lexical elements that either add or repeat meaningful elements” (Hjort-Pedersen & Faber, 2010, p. 243) and specification as qualitative, which “adds meaning(s) by using lexical elements that are semantically more informative” (Hjort-Pedersen & Faber, 2010, p. 243).

Beikian, Yarahmadzahi, and Natanzi (2013) examined shifts of cohesion, which were further identified as explicitation, implicitation, and meaning change, between *The Kite Runner* and its Persian translation version and found that explicitation, covering all four types of additive, adversative, causal and temporal relations, made up a greater proportion; their analysis of the explicitation of conjunctive relations

revealed that two means, addition of conjunctions and replacement of punctuation marks with conjunctions, were employed by the translator.

To summarise the means of explicitation discussed above, I have presented in Table 2.3 in time order, the researcher/s, year of publication, and means of achieving an explicitation outcome in references of the chapter.

Table 2.3. Means of Explicitation

No.	Researcher	Year	Means
1	Séguinot	1988	addition clarification foregrounding
2	Olohan	2002	using supplementary explanatory phrases resolving source text ambiguities making greater use of repetitions and other cohesive devices
3	He	2003	adding words using specific words changing the personal pronoun restructuring sentences or paragraphs standardizing a language variety shifting the image or rhetoric device
4	Zhu	2008	adding explanative language converting abstractness into concreteness restructuring syntactic patterns shifting ancient Chinese to modern English annotating figurative language or rhetorical devices
5	Hjort-Pedersen and Faber	2010	addition specification
6	Li	2011	adding a syntactic element or a functional word eliminating ambiguities
7	Liu	2011	restructuring syntactic patterns
8	Beikian, et al	2013	addition of conjunctions replacement of punctuation marks with conjunctions

The means of explicitation listed in the figure include some, such as “replacement of punctuation marks with conjunctions”, that are very specific and decidedly regimented procedurally and others, such as “resolving source text

ambiguities” or “eliminating ambiguities”, that are too vague and not delineated at all procedurally. To decide on the procedures of explicitation based on the means listed above, I considered as a teacher that it was preferable to use terms more accessible and memorable for students, and as a researcher terms more accessible in identifying the students’ use of explicitation as a strategic procedure. These were a combination of Séguinot’s (1998) and Hjort-Pedersen and Faber’s (2010) listings of means of explicitation and are detailed in the following section. Addition, clarification, specification, and foregrounding are finally selected as the procedures of explicitation, as they are all one-word terms and more importantly, each of them could be used as an umbrella term to cover the corresponding means listed (See Table 2.4).

Table 2.4. Four Procedures of Explicitation and the Corresponding Means

Procedure	Corresponding Means	Researcher
Addition	using supplementary explanatory phrases	Olohan (2002)
	making greater use of repetitions and other cohesive devices	Olohan (2002)
	adding words	He (2003)
	adding explanative language	Zhu (2008)
	annotating figurative language or rhetorical devices	Zhu (2008)
	adding a syntactic element or a functional word	Li (2011)
	addition of conjunctions	Beikian et al (2013)
Clarification	standardizing a language variety	He (2003)
	shifting the image or rhetoric device	He (2003)
	shifting ancient Chinese to modern English	Zhu (2008)
	replacement of punctuation marks with conjunctions	Beikian et al (2013)

Table 2.4 Four Procedures of Explicitation and the Corresponding Means (continued)

Procedure	Corresponding Means	Researcher
Specification	resolving source text ambiguities	Olohan (2002)
	using specific words	He (2003)
	converting abstractness into concreteness	Zhu (2008)
	eliminating ambiguities	Li (2011)
Foregrounding	changing the personal pronoun	He (2003)
	restructuring sentences or paragraphs	He (2003)
	restructuring syntactic patterns	Zhu (2008)
	restructuring syntactic patterns	Liu (2011)

Social Constructivism and Translation Teaching

Social constructivism, largely attributed to Vygotsky (1978), could be identified with a number of key features, including 1) knowledge construction and co-construction; 2) social interaction and reciprocity; 3) culture and tools; and 4) situatedness.

Firstly, it emphasizes the construction and co-construction of knowledge, which is a far cry from a traditional learning view of reception that perceives learning as passive transmission of knowledge from one person to another (Lyu, 2010). According to Vygotsky (1978), individual development can be traced to social sources and a learner constructs new knowledge in the course of “interacting with people in his environment and with his peers (p.90)”. It follows that meaning is “collectively constructed” (Sivan, 1986, p.211) and knowledge is not simply constructed by a learner alone, but co-constructed by an individual in cooperation with others

(Ebrahimi, 2013). In a social constructivist classroom, learning is “dual-agentic” and learners are “active co-constructors of knowledge and meaning” (Adams, 2006, p.247). In the process of construction and co-construction of knowledge, it is considered vital for the teacher to help scaffold learners’ understanding at the right time (Vygotsky (1978).

Secondly, social interaction and reciprocity are vital constructs of social constructivism. Learning is “inherently social” (Palincsar, 1998, p. 348) and the teacher and learners jointly construct “the social-cultural realm” (Adams, 2006, p.249). Social interaction is essential for learners to construct knowledge in a particular social context (Tong, 2017; Zheng, 2004; Zhong, 2005; Zhang & Zhang, 2015); human beings can only construct knowledge jointly by participating in interpersonal exchanges of information and ideas (Huang, 2011). As Sivan (1986) pointed out,

Social constructivism can be described as socialization, a process of acquisition of skills, knowledge, and dispositions that enables the individual to participate in his or her group or society. This socialization process consists of reciprocal interactions and joint construction of meaning by the individual and others in the social context. (Sivan, 1986, p.211)

Thirdly, another central notion of social constructivism is that with the assistance of more knowledgeable members of the community, one achieves cognitive development by internalising cultural knowledge and using tools of the

culture (Pritchard & Woollard, 2010). Cultural tools, including language, numbers, technology and symbolic systems, influence how learning and intellectual development are acquired (Sivan, 1986), Vygotsky (1978) acknowledged the transmission of cultural signs and norms as part of a culture and maintained that both the means of transmission and the connoted sociocultural meaning of any event or activity have a bearing on how we think and behave. A striking feature of social constructivism is that it holds that while children are socialising in appropriate use of cultural tools, they grow intellectually into culture (Sivan, 1986) and in this way, the knowledge, wisdom, and value embedded in a culture can be passed down from generation to generation (Clark, 1998: 96). In this sense, social constructivism views culture and cultural tools as indispensable in a learning environment.

Fourthly, another key notion of social constructivism concerns situatedness, which is associated with authentic learning (Pritchard & Woollard, 2010). Learning is situated in a particular context and cannot be achieved in isolation from the environment. A social constructivist approach to teaching, therefore, involves a teacher's endeavours in contextualising what is to be learned or connecting classroom teaching to reality, by designing "activities that provide pupil-world, case-based learning to enable authentic, context-oriented, reflective practice within a collaborative and social environment" (Adams, 2006, p. 250).

The effectiveness of classroom teaching based on social constructivism has been endorsed by Oldfather, West, and White (1999); they pointed out that social constructivist teaching could stimulate students' intrinsic motivation to learn, as a

social constructivist stance enables a teacher to create a classroom climate that is responsive to the students' needs and to involve them in meaningful interaction and co-construction of knowledge. With regard to translation teaching, a number of scholars have explored the possibilities of drawing on social constructivism to overcome the drawbacks of the traditional teaching approach characterized by teacher-centeredness and put forth suggestions in this regard. For example, Kiraly (2000) maintained that the social constructivist approach is suitable for translator training since learning translation in the classroom concerns acquiring those skills that will prepare trainees to perform efficiently in a particular situation at a particular moment, and that translation instruction should relate to the real world. Tan (2001b) proposed that translation instruction should be in line with the communicative and social features of a translation act and aim to familiarize students with the rules and norms of drafting a target text in conformity with a specific situation or context; Yang (2004) emphasized that to apply social constructivism to translation instruction, teaching should be interactive and effective in arousing students' intrinsic motivation to learn and raising their awareness of using translation strategies to tackle practical translation problems; Huang (2011) believed that the teacher should work as a facilitator to empower students to construct knowledge through cooperation; and Gao and Wu (2014) suggested that there should be a shift from a teacher-centred classroom to a student-centred one with the translation instructor playing the role of a facilitator rather than that of an knowledge imparter.

In addition to the above scholars' theoretical discussions of translation teaching from the perspective of social constructivism, some other scholars went a step further to put it into practice by focusing on different aspects of a social constructivist approach. For example, Kiraly (2001) conducted a two-year research project to incorporate the social constructivist approach into translator education and found that it ensured higher levels of motivation and active participation on the part of the students when interaction between the teacher and the students and between peers were incorporated into a translation workshop that contextualised translation learning and seamlessly connected translation practice with real-life situations; Varney (2009) investigated the feasibility of the social constructivist approach through a case study on a translation exercise class and found that by laying emphasis on "situatedness" and "collaborative input" (p. 34), students were enabled to develop the skills and competencies required of a qualified translator in real-life translation; and Yu (2018) conducted a teaching experiment with a class of third year English majors receiving a web-based social constructivist approach that promoted co-construction of translation knowledge between the class members . His study found that compared to the control group, the experimental group made a significant improvement in their translation performance.

Building on these past studies, a social constructivist approach was used to guide the teaching of explicitation in the current study. Key principles derived from a social constructivist approach were drawn on for designing the teaching lessons and materials in the translation course, which will be elaborated in Chapter 3.

Where Existing Literature Has Positioned a Conceptualisation of “Explicitation” for the Present Study

In my study, explicitation is perceived as a process with a strategic nature that might help the students as a practical tool to solve translation problems. Therefore, the four strategic procedures of addition, clarification, foregrounding, and specification elaborated previously will be used to identify explicitation as a strategy directed at a translation problem. Drawing on Séguinot’s (1988) descriptions of the three sub-forms of explicitation and Hjort-Pedersen and Faber’s (2010) perspective on specification, I define each of the four procedures as follows.

Addition is a procedure in which an element is supplemented in the target text although it is not stated or expressed in the source text.

Clarification refers to a procedure in which a translator makes clear in the target text what is implied or an unstated presupposition in the source text.

Foregrounding is a procedure to highlight an element which is not prominent originally or that is in the background in the source text.

Specification is a procedure in which a technique is employed to eliminate ambiguity or a specific term/idea in the target language to render a general or vague term/idea in the source language.

The use of the four strategic procedures will be illustrated with examples from Goldbratte’s (2001) *Shifu, You’ll Do Anything for a Laugh*, a translation of Mo Yan’s (2012) novella and with a detail analysis of the reference translations of the four regular assignments for the translation course.

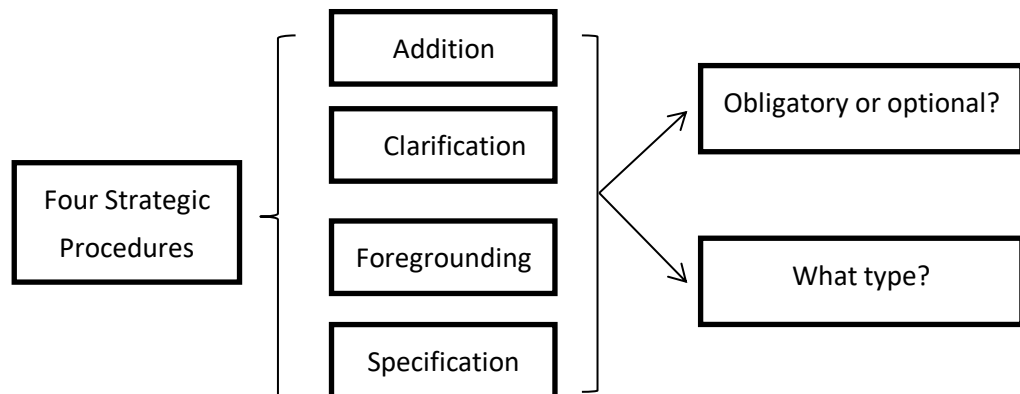


Figure 2.4. Categorisation of Explicitation for the Present Study

As indicated in Figure 2.4, each case of the four strategic procedures will be further ascertained as to whether it is obligatory or optional, which could serve as informed knowledge for students to realise that explicitation in some cases is indispensable for grammatical correctness, while in many others it is a matter of decision-making on the part of the translator in that he or she has to decide whether to or not to explicitate.

On the other hand, the sub-forms generated from an analysis of the literature (See Palumbo, 2009) of what should be taken into account in translation are grammatical, lexical, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic. Accounting for use and effects of use of these sub-forms of explicitation enables investigation of it in its broad sense as a strategy to achieve effective Chinese-English translation. Therefore, each occurrence of the four strategic procedures will then be identified as one of the

six specific types of explicitation, grammatical, lexical, syntactic, semantic or pragmatic, each of which is first elaborated as follows.

1) Grammatical explicitation

Grammatical explicitation is a means to bridge the linguistic gap between the source and the target languages. It is basically obligatory when a neglect of explicating a grammatical element in the target language leads to incorrectness in the target text. To use grammatical explicitation well, a translator first of all needs to have a good mastery of the systematic knowledge of the target language and be fully aware of the linguistic differences between the two languages involved. Unawareness of a grammatical phenomenon or inadequacy in using a grammatical rule in the target language might result in errors in the target text. As Liu (2006) pointed out, Chinese grammar is characterized by “covertness” (p. 62), which means there is no explicit form to indicate the part of speech of a word, the elements of a sentence, or the tie of two stretches of language. In other words, Chinese is not an inflective language. Due to the negative transfer from it, students with Chinese as their first language might not be sensitive enough to the singular or plural form of a noun. As a result, in Chinese-English translation, those students usually make many errors in the forms of nouns. For a veteran translator, when they bear this striking difference between Chinese and English in mind, they will certainly explicitate the singular or plural form of a noun in Chinese-English translation. For instance, to translate “shuang fei qiao (双飞桥)” into English, one might assume it is one bridge and render it into Shuangfei Bridge, but a careful translator might pay closer

attention to “shuang (双)”, which means double, dual, or twin, and wonder whether it is one bridge or two. In fact, it is a structure with two small bridges in Emei Mountain, a tourist attraction in Sichuan Province, so the plural form should be explicitated and translated into Twin Flying Bridges.

2) Lexical explicitation

Lexical explicitation, as the term suggests, concerns lexical explicitness in the target text in comparison with the corresponding word or expression in the source text. Cases of lexical explicitation fall mainly into the category of specifying or disambiguating a word or expression. In Chinese, metaphoric expressions are frequently used, but if translated literally into English, they might not make sense. For example, if “shi zi tou (狮子头)”, a delicacy of Huaiyang cuisine in South China, is rendered into “lion’s head”, it does not sound like food to an English reader, so the metaphoric use of likening a large meat ball to a lion’s head has to be discarded and the term should be specified to the actual food item “large meat balls”. In this case, lexical explicitation is used.

3) Syntactical explicitation

Syntactic explicitation refers to cases when a word or a construction is added to ensure the completeness and accuracy of a clause or a sentence in the target text, or when the sequence of a sentence in the source text is rearranged to ensure syntactic naturalness or effective conveyance of meaning in the target language. As regards the first case of adding a stretch of language, a good example is that in a Chinese sentence, the subject is frequently omitted; to render it into grammatically

correct English, the subject implied in the Chinese source text should be supplemented. Moreover, in terms of cohesion, as Chinese is largely a paratactic language while English is more of a hypotactic one (Lian, 1993; He, 2002; Qin & Wang, 2010; Xiong, 2012; Wu & Hu, 2015), which means in Chinese more often than not, the cohesive tie between two stretches of language is not explicit. In other words, logical ties to achieve coherence in Chinese are not, in many cases, as explicit as in English, which renders it necessary to indicate explicitly those logical ties in Chinese-English translation (Li, 2015). To translate paratactic Chinese into a hypotactic language like English, unstated logical connection hidden in the source text has to be made explicit in the target text by adding a cohesive tie with a conjunctive function, including a conjunction, a preposition, or a relative pronoun/adverb based on the interpretation of the semantic tie in the Chinese source text. The following three examples illustrate the additions of a conjunction, a preposition, and a relative pronoun, respectively, as cases of syntactic explicitation.

Source Text: 开车无难事，只怕有新人。(Gloss: Driving is nothing difficult, only [be] afraid [if] there is someone new.)

Target Text: Driving is nothing dreadful so long as you don't encounter a novice driver.

In the Chinese source text, the two parts of the sentence are separated with a comma but there is no explicit cohesive tie to express the relationship between them. In the target text, “so long as” is added to smoothen out the tie hidden in the semantic web of the Chinese text.

Source Text: 三个孩子在屋里到处跑，你很难有清静。(Gloss: Three children are running about in the house, it is hard for you to have privacy.)

Target text: With three children running about in the house, it is hard for you to have privacy.

In the source text of this example, two separate sentences are divided by a comma, with no explicit cohesive tie to indicate their logical relationship. In the target text, “with” is added to form an absolute construction, thus explicating the logical tie between the parts of the sentence and increasing the logicity of the English target text.

Source Text: 文字是有生命的东西, 是体现思想和情感的实体。(Li & Sheng, 2014, p. 175) (**Gloss:** Words are living things, [they] are bodies to embody thoughts and emotions.)

Target Text: Words are living things, the very bodies in which ideas and emotions materialized. (Li & Sheng, 2014, p. 175)

In the Chinese source text of this example, the attribute to modify “实体 (bodies)” is put at its front, but to translate it into correct, readable right-branching English, the attribute has to be put after the antecedent “bodies” and the relative pronoun “which” is added to form an attributive clause.

It might be hard to distinguish between lexical and syntactic explicitation as when a word is added in the target text, it is seemingly reasonable to identify it as lexical explicitation. However, It should be noted that if the word added is of syntactic significance, for example, by serving as the subject, the object, or a connector in the target text, then it should be regarded as syntactic explicitation.

For the second case of syntactic rearrangement, meaning is usually affected or even determined by the way words are ordered in a sentence. The significance of the

sequence of words in a sentence was well demonstrated in Gasse's (1973) account, "[T]he meaning of the individual words in the sentences changes when the words are ordered in different ways (p. 301)."

In terms of Chinese-English translation, syntactic rearrangement, as a means of syntactic explicitation, is not uncommon in that when a noun or a pronoun is put at the beginning of a Chinese sentence, it is not necessarily the subject, as Chinese is a topic-prominent language (Qin & Wang, 2010; Xiong, 2012; Yang, 2006). For example,

Source Text: 这种智能手机我没听说过。 (**Gloss:** This type of smart phone I haven't heard of.)

Target Text: I haven't heard of this type of smart phone.

As indicated in the Chinese source text, "this type of smart phone" is put at the beginning of the sentence and can be regarded as the topic, but as English is a subject-prominent language (Qin & Wang, 2010; Xiong, 2012; Yang, 2006), the real subject "I" has to be put at the beginning of the sentence, and "this type of smart phone" at the end the sentence as the object. In this example, if the Chinese sentence is translated word-for-word as the gloss shows, it is not an acceptable sentence in most contexts where the source text is supposed to be used. In this sense, the syntactic rearrangement is obligatory.

4) Semantic explicitation

Semantic explicitation concerns shifts in meaning between the source text and the target text, especially when a literal rendering of the source text turns out to be

unreadable or illogical in the target text, the translator needs to add something so as to ensure a readable or logical target text.

Source Text: 我们总相信,全世界也好,中国也好,多数人是好人。(Shan, 1990, p.25)

(**Gloss:** We must believe, either [in] the world, or [in] China, most people are good people.)

Target text: We must believe that in China, as everywhere else in the world, the majority of the people are good. (Shan, 1990, p. 25)

In the source text of this example, the world and China are juxtaposed as two parallel items and it sounds acceptable in Chinese, but if it is literally translated, it will be illogical in English, as China is part of the world, and both cannot be listed as if they were two separate items. That is why in the target text, “everywhere else” is added to ensure the logicity of the target text.

5) Pragmatic explicitation

Definitions of pragmatic explicitation vary from scholar to scholar. According to Chen (1997), pragmatic explicitation is a broad concept which includes all means of translation employed to conform to the norm and acceptability of the target language other than literal translation. Klaudy (1998) maintained that pragmatic explicitation is employed to bridge cultural gaps between the two language communities involved. Edwards (2001) held that pragmatic explicitation is a communication-oriented means employed by the translator to ensure the ease of comprehension. Li (2013) pointed out that in a case of pragmatic explicitation the propositional form and the communicative intension in the source text are specified in the target text based on the context. For the present study, I perceive pragmatic

explicitation as a communication-oriented means to bridge a cultural gap, to involve the target readership as required by the target norm of a text type, or to make clear the context of situation in a conversation between two participants in a text.

Source Text: 在吃完饭以后，主人很可能会说：“饭菜不好，请见谅。” **(Gloss:** After eating the dinner, the host is likely to say, “Food not good, please be forgiving.”

Target Text: After the dinner, the host is likely to say with his Chinese modesty, “I’m sorry that the food is not good enough.”

In this example, it is polite and customary for a host to say the food is not good enough in the Chinese context, as modesty is regarded as a virtue in Chinese culture, but it is unacceptable for a Western host to make the same remark after a dinner. To let the English reader understand it is a modest remark made by a Chinese host, “with his Chinese modesty” is added to bridge the cultural gap.

Source Text: 人如其食。 **(Gloss:** People are like their food.)

Target Text: You are what you eat.

The Chinese source text of this example is a statement with “ren 人 (people)” as the subject, which assumes an impersonal tone, with no interaction with the reader. The subject is changed into “you” in the English target text, which involves the target reader and thus sounds personal. When a translator takes the communicative function of a text into account and accommodates what is required in the target text norm in terms of communication, it is a case of pragmatic explicitation.

Source Text: 甲：我在公司工作已经有五年了。

己：那是老员工了。

(Gloss: A: I have worked in company for five years.

B: That's an old employee.)

Target Text: A: I have worked here in this company for five years.

B: You are a veteran then.

In this example, it is a conversation between A and B in the company where A works. In the target text, "here" is added to indicate where the conversation is located and the context of the situation is explicitly stated. This is also a case of pragmatic explicitation.

In the following sections, the four procedures are first defined and illustrated by giving examples from Goldblatt's translation of Mo Yan's (2001, 2012) novella *Shifu, You'll Do Anything for a Laugh* and then explicitation in the reference translations of the four regular assignments of the Chinese-English translation course is identified and analysed based on the categorisation indicated in Figure 2.4.

A Case Study of Explicitation Used in *Shifu, You'll Do Anything for a Laugh*

1) Addition

According to Hjort-Pedersen and Faber (2010), addition is essentially quantitative, which means addition is employed when an extra element unstated or unexpressed is incorporated into the target text. For example,

Source Text: "丁师傅，您的来意我知道，工厂连年亏损，裁人下岗势在必然，但是，像您这样的元老，省级劳模，即使厂里只留一个人，那也是您！" (Mo, 2012, p.197)

Target Text: "Ding Shifu, I know why you're here. After several years of financial setbacks here at the factory, layoffs have become unavoidable. But you're a veteran worker, a provincial model worker, a shifu — master worker — and even if we're down to the last man, that man will be you." (Mo, 2001, p.2; Translated by Goldblatt) (My underlining is to show additions; the same hereinafter)

In this example, the underlined words or expressions in the target text are supplemented although there are no correspondences in the source text. The additions of the two conjunctions, *after* and *and*, serve the functions of converting a paratactic Chinese text into a hypotactic English text, which can be regarded as **syntactic explicitation**, whereas the addition of *here* takes into account the situation of the conversation and is typical of **pragmatic explicitation**. As for the addition of the extra message of “a *shifu*—master worker”, it is the translator’s attempt to account for *Shifu*, a typically Chinese titling of a teacher of status and a key term in the novella, and falls into the subcategory of **semantic explicitation**.

2) Clarification

As one of the four strategic procedures, clarification in this study refers to a technique to make explicit in the target text what is unstated, but implied in the source text or hidden as a presupposition of the source language community. Berman (2000, p.289) pointed out, “clarification is particularly concerned with the level of ‘clarity’ perceptible in words and their meanings” and “is inherent in translation, to the extent that every translation comprises some degree of explicitation.” For example,

Source Text: 他支起自行车，前后左右地张望了一会，与看守大门的老秦头交换了一个眼神…… (Mo, 2012, p.197)

Target Text: He parked his bike and took a look around, exchanging a meaningful glance with old Qin Tou, the gateman. (Mo, 2001, p.2; Translated by Goldblatt)

In the Chinese source text in this example, there are no tense markers in the verbs *zhiqi* (支起) and *zhangwang* (张望), but the tense that should be used in English is implied and can be perceived from the situation of the story narrated. So, they are translated into *parked* and *took* with the past tense in the English target text. Both are cases of **grammatical explicitation**. On the other hand, the meaning of *meaningful* is not stated overtly in the Chinese source text, but implied, and can be identified based on an understanding of the plot, particularly the relationship between him (Ding Shifu) and the gateman. This is a case of **semantic explicitation**.

3) Foregrounding

Foregrounding is to emphasise or put into a prominent position an inconspicuous element in the source text. As Puurtinen (2003) pointed out, “Even a choice between, for example, active and passive structures, is a decision to foreground certain part(s) of the sentence and certain participant(s) of the process. (p.54)” In terms of Chinese-English translation, foregrounding could be an effective technique to bridge the gap in syntactic norms between the two languages. For example,

Source Text: 他第一次感到心中不平，抡起木拐，敲打着大铁门，大声吼叫。(Mo, 2012, p.197)

Target Text: For the first time, he felt truly wronged. Banging his cane on the metal gate, he shouted at the top of his lungs. (Mo, 2001, p.10; Translated by Goldblatt)

The Chinese source text in this example is a typical multi-verbal sentence, which juxtaposes four verbs without highlighting any of them as indicated in its literal translation: “He for the first time felt indignant, waved his cane, banged it on the metal gate, and shouted loudly.” In Goldblatt’s translation, which is more readable

and natural, the original sentence is divided into two, with two of the verbal arguments given prominence, “felt truly wronged” and “shouted at the top of his lungs”. This is a case of **syntactic explicitation**. For another example,

Source Text: 卖猪汉子嘴角上浮起狡猾的笑容，展开了他的新一轮游说。(Mo, 2012, p.209)

Target Text: A crafty smile spread across the peddler’s face as he launched into yet another sales pitch. (Mo, 2001, p.17; Translated by Goldblatt)

In this example, the Chinese sentence with “卖猪汉子 (the pig peddler)” as its subject is transposed into an English sentence with “a crafty smile” as the subject for the main clause, thus foregrounding an inanimate subject. Suppose we follow the syntactical order of the Chinese text, the translation can be “The pig peddler, with a crafty smile on the corner of his mouth, launched another round of lobbying”, which might be readable but might not be as natural as Goldblatt’s translation. This is also a case of **syntactic explicitation**.

4) Specification

Specification is a procedure in which a technique is employed to eliminate ambiguity or a specific term/idea is used in the target language to render a general or vague term/idea in the source language. For example,

Source Text: “师傅，走吧，呆在这里没人管饭.....” (Mo, 2012, p.201)

Target Text: “Let’s go, Shifu. You’ll go hungry hanging around here...” (Mo, 2001, p.8;

Translated by Goldblatt)

In this example, the literal translation of the Chinese text is “Shifu, let’s go. If you stay here, nobody will take care of your meal...” A translation like this is vague

and ambiguous as “nobody will take care of your meal” can be “here”, “at home” or “anywhere else”. In his translation, Goldblatt eliminates the ambiguity by putting “here” at the end of the sentence and conveys the message in a more specific way by stating the effect of the cause of “nobody will take care of your meal”, i.e. “you’ll go hungry”. This is a typical example of **semantic explicitation**.

For another example, in Goldblatt’s translation of Mo’s novella *Shifu, You’ll Do Anything for a Laugh*, a great variety of specific terms is used to render the Chinese word *zou* (走), a general term meaning *walk*. Those specific terms include *hobble, falter, slink out, jump out of, draw near, drive off, come up, strut off, take off, leave, step out of, drove off, head back, head over to, and take a few unhurried steps* (Mo, 2001: 1-58). All are examples of **lexical explicitation**.

Analysis of the Reference Translations of the Four Assignments

The reference translations, translated by me and proofread by two veteran translators and one English native speaker, are analysed based on Figure 2.4. To be more specific, for each of the assignments, the four procedures of addition, clarification, foregrounding and specification were identified and tagged in BFSU Qualitative Coder 1.2, a corpus app developed by Jiajin Xu and Yunlong Jia, and their frequencies were counted in BFSU Qualitative Explorer 1.0, another corpus app developed by the two scholars as well. For each occurrence of each procedure, it was further identified whether it is obligatory or optional indicated in each table as

OB/OP and what type of explicitation it belongs to, grammatical, lexical, syntactic, semantic, or pragmatic.

1) Assignment 1 Text 1

The source text of Assignment 1 Text 1, an address written by me and published in the Freshman Reception Edition of Liyun Newspaper of Beijing Normal University at Zhuhai, is indicative of the paratactic feature of the Chinese language. As shown in Table 2.5, for the five sentences marked from S1 to S5, Sentences 1-3 are juxtaposed and separated by commas without any cohesive ties; the only explicit cohesive tie is *dan* (但 but) before Sentence 4 to connect the semantic whole of the first three sentences with that of the last two sentences.

Table 2.5. Source Text and Gloss of Assignment 1 Text 1

Source Text	Gloss
(S1)研究生两年时间很短， (S2)任务很重， (S3)课程学习、专业实习、论文写作，每个环节都需要同学们付出努力与辛劳， <u>但</u> (S4)我相信正因为如此，研究生生活忙碌中有了充实，充实中有了精彩， (S5)希望大家享受这份精彩！	(S1)Two years' postgraduate study [is] very short, (S2) tasks [are] very heavy, (S3) course learning, professional internship, thesis writing, each task needs students to make effort and hard work, but (S4) I believe due to this, in busy postgraduate life there is fulfillment, in fulfillment there is brilliance, (S5) [I] hope everybody [will] enjoy this brilliance!

As indicated in Table 2.6, the first three sentences of the source text are combined into one sentence in the reference translation, Sentence 1 converted into a

time adverbial, Sentence 2 foregrounded as the key sentence, and the first part of Sentence 3 listed as the parenthesis of “a number of commitments” and the second part changed into an attributive clause. Sentences 4 and 5 of the source text are combined into one sentence as well in the reference translation, and the two clauses of “研究生生活忙碌中有了充实，充实中有了精彩” are nominalized into “busyness” and “brilliance”.

Table 2.6. Source Text and Reference Translation of Assignment 1 Text 1

Source Text	Reference Translation
<p>(S1)研究生两年时间很短，</p> <p>(S2)任务很重，</p> <p>(S3)课程学习、专业实习、论文写作，每个环节都需要同学们付出努力与辛劳，</p> <p><u>但</u>(S4)我相信正因为如此，研究生生活忙碌中有了充实，充实中有了精彩，</p> <p>(S5)希望大家享受这份精彩！</p>	<p>During the short span of two years of postgraduate studies,</p> <p>you will be burdened with a number of commitments, learning courses, working as an intern, writing a thesis, etc., which all require you to put in much effort and hard work.</p> <p>However, I believe that in your busyness, you will enjoy the brilliance of a fulfilling life!</p> <p>(Word count: 57)</p>

In terms of the four strategic procedures used in the reference translation, Tables 2.7 and 2.8 reveal that there are seven cases of addition, four of clarification, four of specification, and two of foregrounding, 17 cases in total in a text of 57 words, which well demonstrates the high frequency of the strategic procedures employed. It should be noted that the two cases of foregrounding are a vital syntactic technique to highlight the core meanings originally obscure in the paratactic way of information

progression in the Chinese source text, thus facilitating English readers in understanding the target text.

Table 2.7. Tagged reference translation of Assignment 1 Text 1

Tagged	<A>During <A>the short span of two years <A>of postgraduate
Reference	studies, <F> <S>you</S> <C>will</C> be burdened with a number of
Translation	commitments</F>, learning <C>courses</C>, working as an intern, writing <C>a thesis</C>, <A>etc., <A>which all require <S>you</S> to put in <A>much effort and hard work. However, I believe <A>that in <S>your</S> busyness, <F><S>you</S> <C>will</C> enjoy the brilliance of a fulfilling life</F> !

Table 2.8. Categorisation of Explication in the Reference Translation of Assignment 1 Text 1

No.	Procedure	Tag Set	Freq.	Tagged Text(s)	OB/OP	Type
1	Addition	<A>...	7	During (1)	OB	Syntactic
				the (1)	OB	Grammatical
				of (1)	OB	Syntactic
				etc. (1)	OP	Semantic
				which (1)	OB	Syntactic
				much (1)	OP	Semantic
				that (1)	OP	Syntactic
2	Clarification	<C>...</C>	4	will (2)	OB	Grammatical
				courses (1)	OB	Grammatical
				a thesis (1)	OB	Grammatical
3	Specification	<S>...</S>	4	you (3)	OP	Pragmatic
				your (1)	OP	Pragmatic
4	Foregrounding	<F>...</F>	2	you will enjoy the brilliance of a fulfilling life (1)	OP	Syntactic
				you will be burdened with a number of commitments (1)	OP	Syntactic

2) Assignment 1 Text 2

The Chinese source text of Assignment 1 Text 2 is an anecdote written by me as a WeChat post, which consists of four sentences. Sentence 1 is a short exclamatory

sentence serving as a topic sentence; Sentences 3-4 are an account of what happened to support the topic sentence. As indicated in the gloss in Table 2.9, the subject “I” is omitted throughout the whole text, which is also typical of the paratactic feature of the Chinese language and renders it necessary to employ explicitation.

Table 2.9. Source Text and Gloss of Assignment 1 Text 2

Source Text	Gloss
(S1) 太神奇!	Too amazing!
(S2) 把一颗发了芽的土豆放在花盆里, 都没有用土埋它, 居然长出了茁壮的植株来。	[I] put one sprouted potato in a flower pot, without using soil [to] cover it, [there] grew a thriving plant.
(S3) 后来过年回老家, 多日未浇水, 植株枯死。	Later [during] the Spring Festival [I] returned to [my] hometown, without watering, the plant withered and died.
(S4) 今天浇花, 拔杂草时, 发现了五颗土豆!	Today [I] watered flower, when [I] pulled out the weeds, [I] found 5 potatoes!

In the reference translation of Assignment 1 Text 2 as shown in Tables 2.10 and 2.12 there are altogether 19 cases of explicitation, the majority of which are addition—14 cases, accounting for 73.68%. As a case of self-translation, I knew the context of the anecdote so well that I tended to explicitate what I thought might facilitate the English reader’s understanding of the messages intended to be conveyed. For example, in the Chinese source text, where the bonsai pot was put is not mentioned, but in the target text, “on my balcony” is added to explicitate it. For the cases of clarification, they concerns the explicitation of the tense of a verb, or the singular or the plural form of a noun, which involves an interpretation of information hidden in the text, or an overall grasp of the context. As far as this source text is

concerned, the tense is not indicated in the verbs, but based on the consideration that it is a narration of a past anecdote, the verbs are basically used in the past tense in the reference translation. On the other hand, the forms of quite some nouns, although not indicated in the Chinese text, are made explicit in the English reference translation.

Table 2.10. Source Text and Reference Translation of Assignment 1 Text 2

Source Text	Reference Translation
(S1) 太神奇!	So amazing!
(S2) 把一颗发了芽的土豆放在花盆里, 都没有用土埋它, 居然长出了茁壮的植株来。	I put a sprouted potato in a bonsai pot <u>on my balcony</u> without covering it with soil. But days later, <u>a plant grew</u> and <u>thrived</u> .
(S3) 后来过年回老家, 多日未浇水, 植株枯死。	During the Spring Festival holiday I <u>returned</u> to my hometown, so I <u>hadn't watered</u> the plant for quite a few days and it <u>withered</u> .
(S4) 今天浇花, 拔杂草时, 发现了五颗土豆!	Today, when I <u>watered</u> the plants and <u>pulled up</u> the weeds in that pot, <u>I was amazed</u> to see 5 potatoes!
	(Word count: 72)

Table 2.11. Tagged Reference Translation of Assignment 1 Text 2

Tagged Reference Translation	So amazing! <A>I put a sprouted potato in <C>a bonsai pot</C> <A>on my balcony without covering it with soil. <F><A>But <A>days later, <C>a plant</C> <C>grew</C> <A>and <C>thrived</C>.</F> <A>During <A>the <S>Spring Festival holiday</S> <A>I <C>returned</C> to <A>my hometown, <A>so <A>I <C> hadn't watered </C> <A>the plant for quite a few days <A>and it <C>withered</C>. Today, when <A>I <C>watered</C> <C>the plants</C> and <C> pulled up </C> <C>the weeds</C> <A>in that pot, <A>I <A> was amazed to see 5 potatoes!
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Table 2.12. Categorisation of Explicitation in the Reference Translation of Assignment 1 Text 2

No.	Procedure	Tag Set	Freq.	Tagged Text(s)	OB/OP	Type
1	Addition	<A>...	17	I (5)	OB	Syntactic
				and (2)	OB	Syntactic
				on my balcony (1)	OP	Semantic
				so (1)	OB	Syntactic
				was amazed (1)	OP	Semantic
				the plant (1)	OB	Syntactic
				my (1)	OB	Semantic
				days later (1)	OP	Semantic
				But (1)	OP	Syntactic
				in that pot (1)	OP	Semantic
				the (1)	OB	Grammatical
				During (1)	OB	Syntactic
2	Clarification	<C>...</C>	11	the weeds (1)	OB	Grammatical
				the plants (1)	OB	Grammatical
				thrived (1)	OB	Grammatical
				withered (1)	OB	Grammatical
				watered (1)	OB	Grammatical
				returned (1)	OB	Grammatical
				a plant (1)	OB	Grammatical
				a bonsai pot (1)	OB	Grammatical
				grew (1)	OB	Grammatical
				pulled up (1)	OB	Grammatical
hadn't watered (1)	OB	Grammatical				
3	Specification	<S>...</S>	1	Spring Festival holiday (1)	OP	Lexical
4	Foregrounding	<F>...</F>	1	But days later, a plant grew and thrived. (1)	OP	Syntactic

3) Assignment 2

In the Chinese source text of Assignment 2, Sentence 1, directly mentioning a love story related to the park, is a sentence with no subject; it is not grammatically right, if translated literally into English, which makes it necessary to explicitate the subject.

Sentences 2, 4 and 5 are all sentences with a “Subject + Verb” pattern similar to the

most frequently-used English syntactic pattern. Sentence 3, however, is a sentence with an adverbial clause and a main clause with no subject. It should be noted that in terms of semantics, Sentence 3 and Sentence 4 are not coherently connected, as the former only mentions the deer turned into a beautiful girl, but the latter abruptly says the statue based on the story is a witness to romantic love. Therefore, when it is translated into English, something should be added to make the story a love one, so that the logical gap between Sentence 3 and Sentence 4 can be bridged. However, generally speaking, the syntactic feature of the source text is not as markedly different from English as the two texts of Assignment 1 discussed above.

Table 2.13. Source Text and Gloss of Assignment 2

Source Text	Gloss
<p>鹿回头公园</p> <p>(S1) 位于三亚市区以南3公里处，关于这个公园，有一个美丽动人的爱情故事。</p> <p>(S2) 相传很久以前一位黎族猎人追逐一头山鹿，从五指山一直追到中国南海。</p> <p>(S3) 当山鹿面对大海，无路可逃时，回头一望，突然变成一位美丽的少女。</p> <p>(S4) 以此传说建成的壮观雕塑“鹿回头”已成为浪漫爱情的见证。</p> <p>(S5) 鹿回头公园也是登高鸟瞰三亚市和三亚湾全景的首选之地。</p> <p>(Wu & He, 2008, p.321-322)</p>	<p>Luhuitou Park</p> <p>Lying at the 3 kilometers' location south of Sanya downtown, about this park, there is a beautiful moving love story.</p> <p>According to legend[,] very long time ago[,] a Li nationality hunter went after a mountain deer, from Wuzhi Mountain to [the] South China Sea.</p> <p>When the mountain deer faced the sea, with no way to escape, [it] turned back and looked, suddenly [it] turned into a beautiful young girl.</p> <p>[The] grand statue "Luhuitou" built according to the legend has become the witness of romantic love.</p> <p>Luhuitou Park also is the first choice of place to climb [and] look at of Sanya City and the whole scenery Sanya Bay.</p>

In the reference translation of Assignment 2 as indicated in Tables 2.14-2.16, there are 16 cases of strategic explicitation procedures, 12 of addition, three of specification, one of foregrounding, and none of clarification. In the reference translation in Table 2.14, some vital cases of explicitation, are underlined. For addition, four cases are worth mentioning. “(Deer Looking Back)” and “(Five-finger)” are added to explain the meanings of two Chinese proper names, “at the hunter” to explicitate the object of the verb “look” and a whole sentence to bridge the incoherent gap between Sentence 3 and Sentence 4, which is mentioned above. In terms of specification, “is named after” is a shift from the vaguer expression “有 (have/there be)” in Chinese, “maiden” with its archaic feel is more specific to be in line with the ancient story, and “you” is a case to specify the subject and take the second person perspective to involve the reader, a typical stylistic feature of an English tourism text. With regard to foregrounding, the incomplete Sentence 1 in the Chinese source text is translated into a complete English sentence which serves as the topic sentence.

Table 2.14. Source Text and Reference Translation of Assignment 2

Source Text	Reference Translation
<p>鹿回头公园</p> <p>(S1) 位于三亚市区以南3公里处，关于这个公园，有一个美丽动人的爱情故事。</p> <p>(S2) 相传很久以前一位黎族猎人追逐一头山鹿，从五指山一直追到中国南海。</p> <p>(S3) 当山鹿面对大海，无路可逃时，回头一望，突然变成一位美丽的少女。</p> <p>(S4) 以此传说建成的壮观雕塑“鹿回头”已成为浪漫爱情的见证。</p> <p>(S5) 鹿回头公园也是登高鸟瞰三亚市和三亚湾全景的首选之地。 (Wu & He, 2008, p.321-322)</p>	<p>Luhuitou Park</p> <p>Located 3 kilometers south of Sanya downtown, <u>Luhuitou (Deer Looking Back) Park is named after a moving love story.</u></p> <p>Legend has it that once upon a time, a hunter of the Li ethnic group was chasing a deer from Wuzhi (Five-finger) Mountain all the way to the South China Sea.</p> <p>When the deer was cornered near the sea, it turned around to look <u>at the hunter and suddenly turned into a pretty maiden. The hunter and the maiden felt in love with each other at first sight and lived happily thereafter.</u></p> <p>The spectacular Luhuitou Statue, which was built based on the story, is testimony to love and romance.</p> <p>From Luhuitou Park, <u>you</u> can enjoy a bird's-eye view of Sanya City and Sanya Bay. (Word count: 124)</p>

Table 2.15. Tagged Reference Translation of Assignment 2

	Luhuitou Park
Tagged	Located 3 kilometers south <A>of Sanya downtown, <F>Luhuitou <A>(Deer Looking Back) Park <S>is named after</S> a moving love story</F>. Legend has it <A>that once upon a time, a hunter <A>of <A>the Li <S>ethnic group</S> <C>was chasing </C> a deer from Wuzhi <A>(Five-finger) Mountain all the way to <A>the South China Sea. When <A>the deer <C>was cornered</C> near <A>the sea, <A>it <C>turned</C> around to look <A>at the hunter <A>and suddenly <C>turned</C> into a pretty <S>maiden</S>. <A>The hunter and the maiden felt in love with each other at first sight and lived happily thereafter. <A>The spectacular Luhuitou Statue, <A>which <C>was built</C> based on the story, is testimony to love <A>and romance. From Luhuitou Park, <S>you</S> can enjoy a bird's-eye view of Sanya City and Sanya Bay.
Reference	
Translation	

Table 2.16. Categorisation of Explicitation in the Reference Translation of Assignment 2

No	Procedure	Tag Set	Freq.	Tagged Text(s)	OB/OP	Type
1	Addition	<A>...	16	the (5)	OB	Grammatical
				of (2)	OB	Syntactic
				and (2)	OB	Syntactic
				which (1)	OB	Syntactic
				that (1)	OB	Syntactic
				The hunter and the maiden felt in love with each other at first sight and lived happily thereafter. (1)	OP	Semantic
				(Five-finger) (1)	OP	Lexical
				(Deer Looking Back) (1)	OP	Lexical
				it (1)	OB	Syntactic
at the hunter (1)	OP	Semantic				
2	Clarification	<C>...</C>	5	turned (2)	OB	Grammatical
				was chasing (1)	OB	Grammatical
				was cornered (1)	OB	Grammatical
				was built (1)	OB	Grammatical
3	Specification	<S>...</S>	4	maiden (1)	OP	Lexical
				you (1)	OP	Pragmatic
				ethnic group (1)	OP	Lexical
				is named after (1)	OP	Lexical
4	Foregrounding	<F>...</F>	1	Luhuitou (Deer Looking Back) Park is named after a moving love story (1)	OP	Syntactic

4) Assignment 3

The source text of Assignment 3 is a reflection of the paratactic feature of the Chinese language in that the first three sentences are all without subjects and Sentence 4 juxtaposes a number of short sentences without subjects or conjunctions. To translate such a Chinese text into English, the translator needs to discern what subjects or conjunctions are missing and add them in the target text based on an interpretation of the semantic ties between any two neighbouring linguistic segments in the source text.

Table 2.17. Source text and Gloss of Assignment 3

Source Text	Gloss
(S1) “在国外旅行，特别是美国，最不习惯的就是处处要付小费。” (Zhang, 2010, p. 192)	When [I] travel abroad, especially [in] America, the most unaccustomed is everywhere needs to pay tip.
(S2) “说是小费，数目对于我这样的中国土鳖来说可不算小。” (Zhang, 2010, p. 192)	Although called small fee, the amount is not small to a Chinese hillbilly like me. [When] living in hotel, every morning [you] need to put one or two dollars on the pillow for the big sister who clean [your] room; [when] having [a] meal, [you] need to give [the] waiter 10% to 20% of [the] meal expense; even when taking a taxi, [I] need to give extra tip, actually many taxi drivers themselves are bosses.
(S3) “住旅馆，每天早上要在枕头放一两个美元，给打扫房间的大姐；吃饭要把餐费的10%到20%给服务员；甚至连坐出租车也要额外给小费，其实很多出租车司机自己都是老板。” (Zhang, 2010, p. 192)	I especially can't understand why not raise the price directly, calculating tip is troublesome, moreover [it] gives you a feeling of extra pay, especially for an always frugal person like me, in China [even when] [my] own throat is smoking, [I] am reluctant to buy a bottle of mineral water, in America [when] [I] extend [my] hand, [I] give a few dollars, [but] [it] [is] called “small fee”, [it] really makes my heart bleed.
(S4) “我特别不能理解，干吗不直接把价格提高，算小费除了麻烦，而且让人有额外付出的感觉，特别像我这样平时俭省惯了的人，在中国自己嗓子冒烟了都舍不得买瓶矿泉水，到了美国一伸手就得给人付出几美元，还叫“小费”，简直让我心头淌血。” (Zhang, 2010, p. 192)	

As shown in Table 2.18, for Sentence 1, the conjunction “when” and the subject “I” are added to shift the paratactic Chinese sentence into a hypotactic English sentence. In Sentence 2, “xiaofei”, though equivalent to “tip” in English, contains two Chinese characters literally meaning “small fee”; if it is merely translated into “Although it is called tip, it is not a small amount of money at all for a Chinese miser like me” without explaining the literal Chinese meaning of “small fee”, the adversative relationship between the main and the subordinate clauses will be rather illusive. For Sentence 3, the conjunctions “when-s” and “although” and the subjects “you-s” are

added to make the English text hypotactic. Sentence 4 is divided into four sentences with the first sentence foregrounded to lead the subsequent two sentences and cohesive ties, such as “who”, “but”, and “which”, are added in the English target text to make it hypotactic.

Table 2.18. Source Text and Reference Translation of Assignment 3

Source Text	Reference Translation
<p>(S1) “在国外旅行，特别是美国，最不习惯的就是处处要付小费。”(Zhang, 2010, p. 192)</p> <p>(S2) “说是小费，数目对于我这样的中国土鳖来说可不算小。”(Zhang, 2010, p. 192)</p> <p>(S3) “住旅馆，每天早上要在枕头放一两个美元，给打扫房间的大姐；吃饭要把餐费的10%到20%给服务员；甚至连坐出租车也要额外给小费，其实很多出租车司机自己都是老板。”(Zhang, 2010, p. 192)</p> <p>(S4) “我特别不能理解，干吗不直接把价格提高，算小费除了麻烦，而且让人有额外付出的感觉，特别像我这样平时俭省惯了的人，在中国自己嗓子冒烟了都舍不得买瓶矿泉水，到了美国一伸手就得给人付出几美元，还叫“小费”，简直让我心头淌血。” (Zhang, 2010, p. 192)</p>	<p><u>When I</u> travel abroad, especially in the United States, what makes me most uncomfortable is that <u>I</u> have to pay tips everywhere.</p> <p>Although a tip is called “xiaofei” <u>in Chinese, literally meaning “small fee”</u>, it is not a small amount of money at all for a Chinese miser <u>like me</u>.</p> <p><u>When you</u> stay in a hotel, <u>you</u> have to put one or two dollars on the pillow for the cleaner of your room; <u>when you</u> have a meal, you have to pay the waiter 10-20% of the total expense; even <u>when you take a taxi, you</u> have to pay extra fees, <u>although</u> many drivers are actually bosses themselves.</p> <p><u>I cannot understand why they don’t raise the price directly</u>. Calculating tips is troublesome. Moreover, it feels like it is an extra payout, especially for someone <u>who</u> is always frugal like me. In my home country China, I won’t buy a bottle of water, even when I’m so thirsty that my throat is at the edge of smoking. <u>But</u> when I’m in the United States, each time I have to pay several dollars, the so-called “small fee”, <u>which</u> gives me heartache.</p> <p>(Word count: 189)</p>

As regards the strategic procedures used in the reference translation, Tables 2.19 and 2.20 indicate that there are 25 cases of addition, four of clarification, and one of

specification. For the case of specification, “zhongguo tubie”, a figurative Chinese expression meaning “a Chinese country bumpkin”, in the source text, is rendered into “a Chinese miser” to make it more semantically relevant to the topic in discussion, as “a Chinese country bumpkin” is not necessarily associated with “being stingy with one’s money”.

Table 2.19. Tagged Reference Translation of Assignment 3

<p>Tagged Text</p>	<p><A >When <A >I travel abroad, especially <A >in <A>the United States, what makes <A >me most uncomfortable is <A >that <A >I have to pay <C>tips</C> everywhere. <A >Although <A >a tip is called “xiaofei” in Chinese, <A >literally meaning “small fee”, it is not a small amount of money <A >at all for <S> a Chinese miser <S> like me. <A >When <A >you stay in a hotel, <A >you have to put one or two dollars on <A>the pillow for <A>the cleaner of <A >your room; <A >when <A >you have a meal, you have to pay <A>the waiter 10-20% of <A>the total expense; even <A >when <A >you take<C> a taxi</C>, <A >you have to pay extra fees, <A >although many drivers are actually bosses themselves. I cannot understand why they don’t raise <A>the price directly. Calculating tips is troublesome. Moreover, it feels like it is an extra payout, especially for someone who is always frugal like me. In <A >my home country China, <A >I won’t buy a bottle of water, <A >even when I’m <A >so thirsty that my throat is at the edge of smoking. But when <A >I’m in <A>the United States, each time I have to pay several dollars, <A>the so-called “small fee”, <A >which gives me heartache.</p>
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Table 2.20. Categorisation of Explicitation in the Reference Translation of Assignment 3

No.	Procedure	Tag Set	Freq.	Tagged Text(s)	OB/OP	Type
1	Addition	<A>...	34	the (8)	OB	Grammatical
				you (5)	OB	Syntactic
				when (4)	OB	Syntactic
				I (3)	OB	Syntactic
				although (2)	OB	Syntactic
				so thirsty that (1)	OP	Semantic
				my home country (1)	OP	Semantic
				that (1)	OP	Syntactic
				which (1)	OB	Syntactic
				your (1)	OB	Semantic
				even when (1)	OB	Syntactic
				at all (1)	OP	Semantic
				a tip (1)	OB	Syntactic
				I'm (1)	OB	Syntactic
				me (1)	OB	Syntactic
literally meaning "small fee" (1)	OP	Semantic				
in (1)	OB	Syntactic				
2	Clarification	<C>...</C>	2	tips (1)	OB	Grammatical
				a taxi (1)	OB	Grammatical
3	Specification	<S>...</S>	1	a Chinese miser (1)	OP	Lexical
4	Foregrounding	<F>...</F>	1	I cannot understand why they don't raise the price directly. (1)	OP	Syntactic

5) Assignment 4

The source text of Assignment 4, an expository essay, consists of eight sentences.

Generally speaking, the pattern of each sentence is quite similar to that of English, so

as can be seen from the gloss, no square-bracketed additional messages are needed

to facilitate the English reader's understanding of the source text.

Table 2.21. Source Text and Gloss of Assignment 4

Source Text	Gloss
<p>(S1) 在中国大陆, 每年的11月11日被称作“光棍节”。</p> <p>(S2) 因为这一天的日期有四个“光棍”一样的“1”, 所以人们就形象地称其为“光棍节”。</p> <p>(S3) 光棍节之前只在大学校园流行, 现在光棍节已经成为时尚青年们的一个特殊节日。</p> <p>(S4) 奇怪的是, 光棍节也是一些人的爱情告白日。</p> <p>(S5) 很多人在这一天参加相亲会, 甚至有人在这一天结婚。</p> <p>(S6) 这些人认为四个“1”不仅可以代表单身, 还可以代表“唯一”。</p> <p>(S7) 除此之外, 很多商家也在这一天搞促销活动以吸引消费者的注意。</p> <p>(S8) 为此, 光棍节当天也成了全年中国人消费最多的一天。</p> <p>(XDF, 2014, p. 191)</p>	<p>In Chinese Mainland, every year’s November 11th is called “Bachelors’ Day”.</p> <p>Because this date has four “1” like “bachelor”, so people vividly call it “Bachelor’s Day”.</p> <p>Bachelors’ Day was only popular on college campus before, now Bachelors’ Day is also a special day for fashionable young people.</p> <p>Strangely, Bachelors’ Day is some people’s love confession day.</p> <p>Many people take part in blind dates on this day, even some people get married on this day.</p> <p>Some people think four “1” can not only stand for single, but also stand for “only”.</p> <p>Besides, many businessmen do promotion activities to attract consumers’ attention.</p> <p>Therefore, Bachelors’ Day also becomes Chinese people’s most consumption day in the whole year.</p>

As indicated in Table 2.22, in Sentence 1, the predicate “被称作” (*bei cheng zuo*, meaning “is called”) is changed to a more specific expression “is observed” in the reference translation, which is a case of specification. In Sentence 2, “each of” is added to specify the number of a noun, so that it corresponds to the singular form of “a single person”, although in the Chinese source text, the singular or plural form of the noun is not specifically indicated; the Chinese expression “guang gun jie” is

explained to ensure the target reader’s understanding of the message. For Sentences 3, 4, and 8, cohesive ties, such as the conjunction “but”, prepositions “for” and “of”, the relative adverb “when”, are added to ensure the conveyance of information.

Table 2.22. Source text and reference translation of Assignment 4

Source Text	Reference Translation
(S1) 在中国大陆, 每年的11月11日被称作“光棍节”。	In the Chinese Mainland, November 11th <u>is observed</u> as Singles’ Day.
(S2) 因为这一天的日期有四个“光棍”一样的“1”, 所以人们就形象地称其为“光棍节”。	As the date contains four “ones”, <u>each of</u> which is like a single person, it is named “guang gun jie” in Chinese, <u>literally meaning Bachelors’ Day or Singles’ Day.</u>
(S3) 光棍节之前只在大学校园流行, 现在光棍节已经成为时尚青年们的一个特殊节日。	Originally it was only celebrated <u>and</u> popular at college, <u>but</u> now it is a special day for all fashionable young people.
(S4) 奇怪的是, 光棍节也是一些人的爱情告白日。	Strangely, it is a day <u>for</u> confession <u>of</u> love <u>for</u> quite some people.
(S5) 很多人在这一天参加相亲会, 甚至有人在这一天结婚。	Some take part in a blind date. Others might even pick it as the day <u>for</u> their wedding ceremony.
(S6) 这些人认为四个“1”不仅可以代表单身, 还可以代表“唯一”。	They believe that each of the four “ones” of the date not only means “a single”, but also “the only one”.
(S7) 除此之外, 很多商家也在这一天搞促销活动以吸引消费者的注意。	Besides, on this day many businessmen have sales promotions to attract consumers.
(S8) 为此, 光棍节当天也成了全年中国人消费最多的一天。 (XDF, 2014, p. 191)	Therefore, Singles’ Day has become a day <u>when</u> Chinese people spend the most in the whole year. (Word count: 141)

Table 2.23. Tagged Reference Translation of Assignment 4

Tagged Text	<p>In <A>the Chinese Mainland, November 11th is <S>observed</S> as Singles' Day. As the date contains four "ones", <C>each of</C> <A>which is like a single person, <F>it is named "guang gun jie" <A>in Chinese </F>, <A >literally meaning Bachelors' Day or Singles' Day. Originally it was only <C>celebrated</C> and popular at college, <A>but now it is a special day for <A>all fashionable young people. Strangely, it is a day <A>for confession <A >of love for <C>quite some</C> people. <C>Some</C> attend blind date parties. Others might even pick it as the day <A>for their wedding ceremony. They believe that <C>each of</C> <A>the four "ones" <A>of the date not only means "a single", but also "<A>the only one". Besides, on this day many businessmen have sales promotions to attract consumers. Therefore, Singles' Day has become a day <A>when Chinese people spend <A>the most <A>in the whole year.</p>
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Table 2.24. Categorisation of Explicitation in the Reference Translation of Assignment 4

No.	Procedure	Tag Set	Freq.	Tagged Text(s)	OB/OP	Type
1	Addition	<A>...	15	the (4)	OB	Grammatical
				for (2)	OB	Syntactic
				of (1)	OB	Syntactic
				literally meaning Bachelors' Day or Singles' Day (1)	OP	Semantic
				when (1)	OB	Syntactic
				of the date (1)	OP	Semantic
				which (1)	OB	Syntactic
				but (1)	OB	Syntactic
				all (1)	OP	Semantic
				in Chinese (1)	OP	Semantic
				in (1)	OB	Syntactic
2	Clarification	<C>...</C>	5	each of (2)	OP	Semantic
				Some (1)	OP	Semantic
				quite some (1)	OP	Semantic
				celebrated (1)	OP	Semantic
3	Specification	<S>...</S>	1	observed (1)	OP	Lexical
4	Foregrounding	<F>...</F>	1	it is named "guang gun jie" in Chinese (1)	OP	Syntactic

6) The explicitation pattern in the reference translations of the 4 assignments

As indicated in Table 2.25, altogether 133 cases of explicitation are identified in the reference translations of the four assignments with a total word count of 583, accounting for 22.8%. The frequency of explicitation employed in each of the five reference translations of assignments ranges from 15.6% to 41.7%, all of which can be reckoned as a high frequency.

Table 2.25. Frequency of Explicitation Employed in the Reference Translations

Text	Frequency	Word Count	Percent
Assignment 1 Text 1	17	57	29.8%
Assignment 1 Text 2	30	72	41.7%
Assignment 2	26	124	21.0%
Assignment 3	38	189	20.1%
Assignment 4	22	141	15.6%
Total	133	583	22.8%

As shown in Table 2.26, in terms of procedures, addition is most frequently used, there being 89 cases in total accounting for 66.9%, and clarification, specification, and foregrounding are ranked 2nd, 3rd, and 4th, 27 cases (20.3%), 11 (8.3%), and 6 (4.5%) respectively. As for the obligatory/optional category, 91 of the 133 cases are obligatory and 42 optional, accounting for 68.4% and 31.6% respectively. With regard to the type, the most frequently employed one is syntactic, 57 cases in total making up 42.9%, grammatical, semantic, and lexical types follow, 43 cases (32.3%), 20 (15.0%)

and 8 (6.0%) respectively and the least frequently used type is pragmatic, only 5 cases, taking up 3.8%.

Table 2.26. The Overall Explicitation Pattern in the Reference Translations of the 4 Assignments

Category		Frequency	Percent
Procedure	Addition	89	66.9
	Clarification	27	20.3
	Specification	11	8.3
	Foregrounding	6	4.5
	Total	133	100.0
OB/OP	OB	91	68.4
	OP	42	31.6
	Total	133	100.0
Type	Syntactic	57	42.9
	Grammatical	43	32.3
	Semantic	20	15.0
	Lexical	8	6.0
	Pragmatic	5	3.8
	Total	133	100.0

In the following sections, each of the four strategic procedures will be further analyzed to find out to what extent they correspond to the OB/OP category and to each type of explicitation.

Addition

As can be seen from Table 2.27, of the 89 cases of addition in the five translated texts of the assignments, 68 are obligatory, accounting for 76.4% and 21 optional, making up 23.6%. As far as the type is concerned, those cases of addition fall into a variety of types, 50 of syntactic explicitation, 19 of grammatical explicitation, 18 of semantic explicitation, and 2 of lexical explicitation, which to some degree reveals

the complexity of the use of addition as a strategic procedure as no clear-cut rules could be summed up to inform the students and the employment of it has to be judged and decided on case by case.

As shown in Table 2.28, the top 12 frequently added words are basically functional words, including the definite article “the”, pronouns “I” and “you”, conjunctions “when” and “although”, prepositions “of”, “during”, “for”, and “in”, the relative pronoun “which”, and the lead word “that”. Those cases with the top 12 added words, making up 67.4% of the 89 cases of addition, are basically obligatory, which is justifiable in that functional words, though not very frequently used in Chinese, are to ensure grammatical and linguistic accuracy in the English target texts.

Table 2.27. Frequencies of the OB/OP Category and the Type Corresponding to Addition

Category		Frequency	Percent
OB/OP	OB	68	76.4
	OP	21	23.6
	Total	89	100.0
Type	Syntactic	50	56.2
	Grammatical	19	21.3
	Semantic	18	20.2
	Lexical	2	2.2
	Pragmatic	0	0
	Total	89	100.0

Table 2.28. Frequencies of Tagged Texts of Addition

No.	Tagged Text	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent	OB/OP	Type
1	the	21.3	19	21.3	OB	Grammatical
2	I	9.0	8	30.3	OB	Syntactic
3	when	5.6	5	36.0	OB	Syntactic
4	you	5.6	5	41.6	OB	Syntactic
5	and	4.5	4	46.1	OB	Syntactic
6	of	4.5	4	50.6	OB	Syntactic
7	which	4.5	4	55.1	OB	Syntactic
8	that	3.4	3	58.4	OP	Syntactic
9	although	2.2	2	60.7	OB	Syntactic
10	During	2.2	2	62.9	OB	Syntactic
11	for	2.2	2	65.2	OB	Syntactic
12	in	2.2	2	67.4	OB	Syntactic
13	(Deer Looking Back)	1.1	1	68.5	OP	Lexical
14	(Five-finger)	1.1	1	69.7	OP	Lexical
15	a tip	1.1	1	70.8	OB	Syntactic

	your	1.1	1	100.0	OP	Semantic
	Total	100.0	89			

Clarification

Tables 2.29 and 2.30 reveal that there are 27 cases of clarification, of which 23 are obligatory, grammatical explicitation, taking up 85.2% and 4 are optional, semantic explicitation, taking up only 14.8%. Those 23 cases of obligatory explicitation are mainly concerned with the form of a countable noun or the tense of a verb, both of which are not explicitly indicated in the Chinese texts, but are indispensable to grammatical accuracy in the English language. To decide on the singular or the plural form of a countable noun in the English target text, the translator has to discern the cues embedded in the Chinese text and/or even refer to his or her common sense or

some background knowledge. For example, in the Chinese source text of Assignment 1 Text 2, there is a segment “[I] put a sprouted potato on bonsai pot”, without indicating the form of the noun phrase “bonsai pot” at all, but as it is a common sense that one sprouted potato can only be put on one bonsai pot, it is reasonable to explicitate the singular form of it, hence “a bonsai pot” in the reference translation. For another example, in the Chinese source text of Assignment 2, all the Chinese verbs such as “追逐 (chase)”, “回头 (turn around)”, and “变成 (turn into)” do not have the tense at all, but to translate them into English, the tense has to be made explicit. Since it is an account of a story a long time ago, those words are supposed to be translated into English verbs or phrasal verbs with the proper tense, hence “was chasing”, “turned around”, and “turned into” in the reference translation.

Table 2.29. Frequencies of the OB/OP category and the Type Corresponding to Clarification

Category		Frequency	Percent
OB/OP	OB	23	85.2
	OP	4	14.8
	Total	27	100.0
Type	Grammatical	23	85.2
	Semantic	4	14.8
	Lexical	0	0
	Syntactic	0	0
	Pragmatic	0	0
	Total	27	100.0

Table 2.30. Frequencies of Tagged Texts of Clarification

Tagged Text	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent	OB/OP	Type
each of	2	7.4	7.4	OP	Semantic
Turned	2	7.4	14.8	OB	Grammatical
Will	2	7.4	22.2	OB	Grammatical
a bonsai pot	1	3.7	25.9	OB	Grammatical
a plant	1	3.7	29.6	OB	Grammatical
a taxi	1	3.7	33.3	OB	Grammatical
a thesis	1	3.7	37.0	OB	Grammatical
celebrated	1	3.7	40.7	OB	Grammatical
Courses	1	3.7	44.4	OB	Grammatical
Grew	1	3.7	48.1	OB	Grammatical
hadn't watered	1	3.7	51.9	OB	Grammatical
pulled up	1	3.7	55.6	OB	Grammatical
quite some	1	3.7	59.3	OB	Semantic
Returned	1	3.7	63.0	OB	Grammatical
Some	1	3.7	66.7	OP	Semantic
the plants	1	3.7	70.4	OB	Grammatical
the weeds	1	3.7	74.1	OB	Grammatical
Thrived	1	3.7	77.8	OB	Grammatical
Tips	1	3.7	81.5	OB	Grammatical
was built	1	3.7	85.2	OB	Grammatical
was chasing	1	3.7	88.9	OB	Grammatical
was cornered	1	3.7	92.6	OB	Grammatical
watered	1	3.7	96.3	OP	Grammatical
withered	1	3.7	100.0	OP	Grammatical
Total	26	100.0			

Specification

As shown in Table 2.31, all the 11 cases of specification fall into the optional category; in terms of the type, 6 of them are lexical, while 5 of them are pragmatic.

Table 2.32 indicates that those 6 cases of lexical explicitation involve shifts from those general or vague expressions in the source texts to those specific,

unambiguous ones in the English target texts. For example, in the source text of Assignment 2, the hunter is described as one of “黎族 (lizu)”, which could be translated into “the Li nationality” literally, but in that case, the term would be quite ambiguous, since “nationality” usually refers to the country a person is originated from, so to disambiguate it, it is translated into “the Li ethnic minority” in the reference translation. In this way, specific information is contained in the term so that the English reader could understand it better. As regards the five cases of pragmatic explicitation, three cases of “you” and the case of “your” occur in the reference translation of Assignment 1 Text 1; in the Chinese source text of this text, the third person perspective is used and the target reader is not directly addressed as “you”, but as “研究生 (postgraduates)”. The reference translation takes the function of the text into consideration and specifies and explicitates target readers by using “you” directly, thus involving them and conforming to the pragmatic use of the text as an address to the postgraduates. Another case of “you” is in the reference translation of Assignment 2, in which the target reader of the tourism text of Luhuitou Park is addressed as “you”, instead of using the third person perspective as the Chinese source text.

Table 2.31. Frequencies of the OB/OP Category and the Type Corresponding to Specification

Category		Frequency	Percent
OB/OP	OP	11	100.0
	OB	0	0
	Total	11	100.0
Type	Lexical	6	54.5
	Pragmatic	5	45.5
	Grammatical	0	0
	Semantic	0	0
	Syntactic	0	0
	Total	11	100.0

Table 2.32. Frequencies of Tagged Texts of Specification

Tagged Text	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent	OB/OP	Type
You	4	36.4	36.4	OP	Pragmatic
a Chinese miser	1	9.1	45.5	OP	Lexical
ethnic minority	1	9.1	54.5	OP	Lexical
is named after	1	9.1	63.6	OP	Lexical
Maiden	1	9.1	72.7	OP	Lexical
Observed	1	9.1	81.8	OP	Lexical
Spring Festival holiday	1	9.1	90.9	OP	Lexical
Your	1	9.1	100.0	OP	Pragmatic
Total	11	100.0			

Foregrounding

As indicated in Tables 2.33 and 2.34, all the 6 cases of foregrounding are categorised as optional and syntactic. Foregrounding, as the least frequently used strategic procedure in the reference translations, is a macro-strategic technique to tackle syntactic differences between Chinese and English. In a Chinese text, more often than not, there is a “mess” of messages in a number of Chinese short sentences

separated by commas and usually juxtaposed in the strict order of time sequence or reasoning sequence of presenting “the cause first, and the effect second”, but without highlighting the core message. However, in an English text, the core message of a stretch of language is usually highlighted and put in a main clause, or even at the beginning of a paragraph to serve as a topic sentence. To bridge this striking syntactic difference between Chinese and English, foregrounding could be employed. For example, in the reference translation of Assignment 1 Text 1, “you will be burdened with a number of commitments” is put at the beginning of the text to serve as a topic sentence, although this correspondent message “任务很重 (the tasks are heavy)”, the second sentence in the Chinese source text, is juxtaposed with the other two sentences and not foregrounded as the key sentence.

Table 2.33. Frequencies of the OB/OP Category and the Type Corresponding to Foregrounding

Category		Frequency	Percent
OB/OP	OP	6	100.0
	OB	0	0
	Total	6	100.0
Type	Syntactic	6	100
	Semantic	0	0
	Grammatical	0	0
	Lexical	0	0
	Pragmatic	0	0
	Total	6	100.0

Table 2.34. Frequencies of Tagged Texts of Foregrounding

Tagged Text	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent	OB/OP	Type
you will be burdened with a number of commitments (Assignment 1 Text 1)	1	16.7	16.7	OP	Syntactic
you will enjoy the brilliance of a fulfilling life (Assignment 1 Text 1)	1	16.7	33.3	OP	Syntactic
But days later, a plant grew and thrived. (Assignment 1 Text 2)	1	16.7	50.0	OP	Syntactic
Luhuitou (Deer Looking Back) Park is named after a moving love story (Assignment 2)	1	16.7	66.7	OP	Syntactic
I cannot understand why they don't raise the price directly. (Assignment 3)	1	16.7	83.3	OP	Syntactic
it is named "guang gun jie" in Chinese (Assignment 4)	1	16.7	100.0	OP	Syntactic
Total	6	100.0			

Summary

Based on what has been discussed in this chapter, I clarify a few assumptions for the present study as follows.

Firstly, although explicitation had not received much attention in Translation Studies in China until in the early 21st century, its similar notions, such as addition and amplification, had been introduced as translation techniques in most of the translation textbooks available in China, which will serve as a well-grounded point of departure for the present study.

Secondly, it remains controversial as to whether explicitation is a universal strategy or feature in translation, but as regards Chinese-English translation, explicitation is undoubtedly a frequently-used technique, which can be easily detected in any published English translated text compared with the Chinese source text. It, therefore, ensures the practical significance of the present study and merits my research endeavours.

Thirdly, to differentiate my investigation of explicitation from what is presented as a somewhat static notion of addition or amplification in translation textbooks, I will focus on explicitation as a procedural strategy, by categorising it into four procedures of addition, clarification, specification, and foregrounding, which can be used as micro-strategies to tackle corresponding translation problems.

Fourthly, the categorisations of explicitation vary from researcher to researcher. To investigate explicitation in its broad sense to tackle a wide range of differences between Chinese and English, the present study will categorise it into grammatical, lexical, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic, which is generated from an analysis of what should be taken into account in translating in the literature (See Palumbo, 2009).

Chapter 3: Research Design

In this chapter I have presented the methodology and design of the present study and a justification of triangulation of quantitative and qualitative approaches used to address the two research questions, which were:

- 1) In what ways does a teaching design that incorporates an aim and skills to establish participants' deliberate attention to explicitation as a procedural strategy improve their translation performances, their understanding of explicitation, and their awareness and skill in its application to address translation problems?
- 2) What explicitation patterns do participants manifest in their translations in terms of the four strategic procedures of addition, clarification, specification and foregrounding in relation to obligatory and optional explicitation and to the grammatical, lexical, semantic, syntactic, and pragmatic dimensions in Chinese-English translation?

Explicitation was used as a focal outcome of instruction in both participants' translating behaviour and the descriptive accounts they provided of what and how they came to know of it. Product-based and process-based methods helped identify participants' reports of the steps, impediments and enablers in their acquisition of explicitation as a translation procedural strategy.

Methodological Considerations

The complexity of translation studies entails a variety of research methods. An empirical approach involving descriptive and experimental studies was seen as an appropriate means to apply an objective, scientific dimension in investigating the complexity of translation to supplement the long tradition of subjective theorisation (Jiang and Yang, 2005). In the present study, a combination of descriptive and experimental methods was adopted to unveil the complexity of language students' acquisition of explicitation as depicted in Figure 3.1.

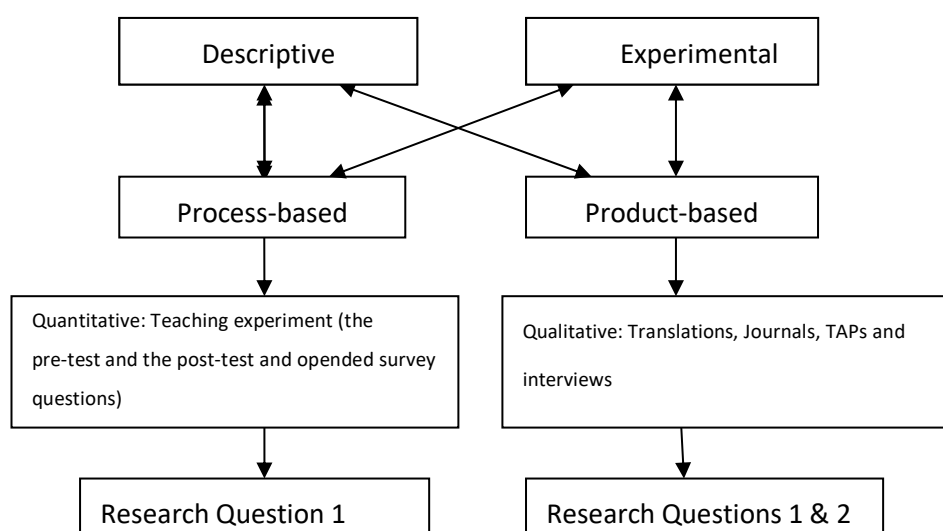


Figure 3.1. Methodological Considerations of the Present Study

Both descriptive and experimental methods correspond to process-based and product-based approaches in translation studies, which is indicated with four

double-sided arrows in the figure. Triangulating product-based and process-based approaches was an attempt to accommodate Fang's (2012) recommendation to treat "the texts, process and translators as one rather than separate entities" (p.3) and to capture the benefit Yang and Wang (2010) proposed in their overview and evaluation of research into translation competence, that the latter will facilitate the former in a researcher's better understanding of the production of the translated text and vice versa.

Marco (2012) also had pointed out that, "Effects can be gleaned from texts, whereas causes can only be legitimately identified by means of research methods and instruments centred on the translator (p.244)." Thus, I considered triangulation of product-based and process-based approaches was an appropriate approach in that explicitation occurrences in the participants' translations can be identified by means of the former, while their motives for strategically applying explicitation are ascertained by means of the latter.

To address the first research question, a pre-test and a post-test design was constructed to measure any effects in participants' translation performances associated with an explicit teaching of explicitation as a procedural strategy. Like groups of students in an experimental treatment (explicitation) and a control (business as usual) participated. Performance was measured on a quantified scale.

On the other hand, a number of product-based or qualitative data, including the participants' answers to some open-ended questions in the questionnaire, TAPs and interview data, will be collected and analysed to find out the participants' understanding of explicitation, and their awareness and skill in its application to

address translation problems. As regards Research Question 2, the participants' translations will be analysed by using Qualitative Coder (Xu & Jia, 2011) and Qualitative Explorer (Xu & Jia, 2011), two corpus tools, to reveal their patterns in the use of the four strategic procedures of addition, clarification, specification and foregrounding in relation to obligatory and optional explicitation and to the grammatical, lexical, semantic, syntactic, and pragmatic dimensions in Chinese-English translation.

Perspectives for the Research Design

In my instruction of explicitation to the experimental group, I will take the following perspectives.

- 1) In terms of the framework of content for my teaching, explicitation was conceptualized in its broad sense as a translation technique to bridge the grammatical, lexical, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic differences between Chinese and English. This perspective was influenced particularly by the earlier work of Séguinot's (1998) and Hjort-Pedersen and Faber's (2010) as detailed in Chapter 2, most markedly in my adoption of addition, clarification, foregrounding, and specification as observable behaviours for measuring strategic procedures of explicitation in Chinese-English translation. Participants were encouraged to explore and determine when to use explicitation and when not to use it.
- 2) Explicitation is perceived as a procedural strategy. Therefore, process-based methods or tools, such as think-aloud protocols and translation journals, were used to track how participants employed explicitation in their translation and decided how to employ it properly.
- 3) When teaching explicitation as a procedural strategy to participants, I sought to encourage participants to experiment with the target strategy while recognising the knowing-what, knowing-how and knowing-when features of using it well (Liyanage & Bartlett, 2012). Therefore, on the one hand while precise knowledge of explicitation and consciousness-raising tasks were designed and taught to help them master it; on the other hand, participants will be encouraged to learn and internalize explicitation by practice with trial and error they might better adjust to its mastery when translating.

A Quantitative approach: Teaching Experiment

The teaching experiment outlined above was conducive to quantitative observation with a pre-test and post-test design in which measured performances in translating would yield comparison scores that could be tested within and between experimental and control groups and differences statistically analysed.

Participants

The participants in my study were two classes of third-year English majors learning Chinese-English Translation at Beijing Normal University Zhuhai in China from February 2016 to July 2016; the two classes were allocated by the University each as an “administrative” class of students who took major-related compulsory courses together. The experimental group was comprised of 56 participants and the control group of 61 participants. In both groups, most participants were in their early 20s and had been learning English as their major for two years and a half at university. They had studied two introductory courses related to Chinese-English Translation (*Interpreting* and *English-Chinese Translation*) in the first semester of their third year at university, before I began my teaching of the *Chinese-English Translation* course to them. In April 2015, 53 students of the experimental group and 60 of the control group took the Test for English Major Band 4 (TEM4), China’s national English proficiency test for English majors; 40 examinees, accounting for 75.47%, in the experimental group passed the test with an average score of 62.89, whereas 45 examinees, accounting for 75%, in the control group passed the test with an average score of 62.03. The comparable test results suggest that the experimental and control

groups were not differed from each other in English language proficiency. Demographic variables of participants were shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1. Demographic Variables of Participants

Variable	Experimental	Control
Number	56	61
Age		
Mean	20.91	20.89
s.d.	.695	.839
Gender		
Male	7	8
Female	49	53
Years of English Study at University	2.5	2.5
Prior study of Translation or Interpreting at University 2x17 week courses (1 st Semester of Year 2)	56	61
TEM 4 Score (n.)	(53)	(60)
Mean	62.89	62.03
s.d.	6.314	7.779
Pass rate	75.47%	75%

Teaching Design

For both the control and the experimental groups, there were 17 weeks of teaching, each with 2 classroom hours, i.e., 34 classroom teaching hours in total. The teaching of explicitation to the experimental group was concentrated in nine of the 17 weeks.

In the two classroom teaching hours for each of the nine weeks of explicitation teaching with the experimental group, I allocated 10 to 20 minutes for this work. This time was a reassignment for a portion of that part of the lesson plan that otherwise would have been given to practice on exercises for topics under study. For the control group, teaching did not include instruction in explicitation, but rather followed the

business-as-usual pattern that included the full practice period. Throughout the semester both groups had four translation assignments to complete. Business-as-usual also involved them keeping written translation journals. Both groups did this but those in the experimental group received different questions (See Table 3.7).

My instruction on explicitation to the experimental group was dispersed across the semester into a concentrated block from Weeks 8-16. This allowed for fundamental content to be addressed and practiced and involved nine mini-lectures as part of the topics shown in Table 3.2 for those weeks. Four regular translation assignments were given to both groups, but they were provided with different questions to guide them to write translation journals (See Table 3.7).

Table 3.2. Teaching Outlines for the Experimental and the Control Groups

Week	Experimental Group	Control Group	Test/Assignment
1	Lecture 1 Basic translation theories	Lecture 1 Basic translation theories	
2	Lecture 2 Translation process	Lecture 2 Translation process	
3	Lecture 3 Contrast of Chinese and English I	Lecture 3 Contrast of Chinese and English I	
4	Lecture 4 Contrast of Chinese and English II	Lecture 4 Contrast of Chinese and English II	
5	Lecture 5 Translation methods	Lecture 5 Translation methods	
6	Lecture 6 Translation techniques I	Lecture 6 Translation techniques I	
7	Lecture 7 Translation techniques II	Lecture 7 Translation techniques II	pre-test +questionnaire

Table 3.2. Teaching Outlines for the Experimental and the Control Groups (continued)

Week	Experimental Group	Control Group	Test/Assignment
8	Lecture 8 Explicitation 1+Sentence translation: Syntactics	Lecture 8 Sentence translation: Syntactics	
9	Lecture 9 Explicitation 2+Sentence translation: the subject	Lecture 9 Sentence translation: the subject	
10	Lecture 10 Explicitation 3+Sentence translation: the predicate	Lecture 10 Sentence translation: the predicate	
11	Lecture 11 Explicitation 4+Paragraph translation: Division and combination	Lecture 11 Paragraph translation: Division and combination	
12	Lecture 12 Explicitation 5+Translation of Ads	Lecture 12 Translation of Ads	Assignment 1
13	Lecture 13 Explicitation 6+Translation of literary texts I	Lecture 13 Translation of literary texts I	Assignment 2
14	Lecture 14 Explicitation 7+Translation of literary texts II	Lecture 14 Translation of literary texts II	Assignment 3
15	Lecture 15 Explicitation 8+Translation of tourist texts	Lecture 15 Translation of tourist texts	Assignment 4
16	Lecture 16 Explicitation 9+Translation of corporate promotional texts	Lecture 16 Translation of corporate promotional texts	
17	Lecture 17 Revision	Lecture 17 Revision	Post-test +questionnaire

The explicitation content during the block covered topics as follows.

1) Introducing explicitation

A literature review of definitions of explicitation and its related concepts was introduced to reveal the worthiness and significance of explicitation as a topic in translation studies. Explicitation was illustrated as a translation strategy in its broad sense as a basis from which to address grammatical, lexical, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic differences between Chinese and English, with an aim to let the class know it as a practical tool to resolve a variety of translation problems.

2) Categorisation of explicitation

Distinctions between obligatory and optional explicitation were introduced to demonstrate that in some cases the use of explicitation is obligatory in ensuring grammatical or structural accuracy in the target language, while in others, it is optional. The purpose here was to show that a translator has to decide whether to use it or not. Four procedures of addition, clarification, foregrounding and specification were introduced as practical techniques to deal with translation problems related to grammatical, lexical, syntactic, semantic, and/or pragmatic gaps between English and Chinese.

3) Obligatory explicitation vs. optional explicitation

Participants engaged with identifying as many cases of explicitation as possible in a publishable English translated text in comparison with its Chinese source text and to decide whether each case was obligatory or optional. They were then encouraged to discuss and draw rules about when to use and when not to use explicitation in Chinese-English translation.

4) Explicitation as a procedural strategy

The four procedures of addition, clarification, foregrounding and specification were revisited and illustrated with many examples. Participants were guided to discover the problem-directed nature of using each of the four procedures in Chinese-English translation.

5) Explicitation: a close look at a translated text

The five types of grammatical, lexical, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic explicitation were revisited. To put the categorisation of explicitation into more practical use, participants were asked to identify as many cases of explicitation as possible in an English translated text and explain which strategic procedure is used for each case, addition, clarification, foregrounding, or specification, whether it is obligatory or optional, and what type of explicitation it is, grammatical, lexical, syntactic, semantic, or pragmatic.

6) Making implicit semantic ties explicit

Participants' attention was drawn to the paratactic features of the Chinese language in contrast with the hypotactic features of the English language. They were asked to identify the semantic tie between Chinese segments in a text and decide whether a cohesive tie would be added in considering an English translation.

7) Explicitation: Translation as an act of communication

Participants and I discussed translation as an act of communication. This included contemplation of a target text not as a lifeless stream of language, but one that will fulfil a particular function in real-life communication. Their attention was then drawn to the role explicitation plays in facilitating the target reader's comprehension of the target text and in mediating between the author of the source text and the reader of the target text.

8) Bridging the gap between two cultures

Participants made a list of Chinese culture-loaded terms and discussed in what ways it was difficult to translate them into English. They were then guided to examine how some culture-loaded terms in Chinese source texts were explicitated in the English target texts and decide to what extent an addition of information was a reasonable case of explicitation or an unreasonable one of overtranslation. Finally, they explored how to bridge cultural gaps in translating Chinese dishes into English by means of explicitation.

9) Explicitation in proofreading

A poorly-translated English text was presented as a case work to participants. They were asked to proofread it, identify inadequate parts related to explicitation, and, to explore and determine in what ways an awareness of the technique of explicitation was useful in proofreading.

To overcome the drawbacks of traditional translation teaching (Chen, 2005; Huang, 2011; Lyu, 2010), I took a social constructivist approach to my teaching of explicitation, with three major guidelines as follows. For all the examples given below, please refer to Appendix 6 "Lesson Plans for Explicitation Teaching".

1) Construction and co-construction

Social constructivism views learning as an active process of constructing knowledge on the part of the learner on the basis of his previous experience and, more importantly, through cooperation with others (Adams, 2006; Ebrahimi, 2013).

Construction and co-construction are vital principles aligned with a social constructivist approach. Construction lays emphasis on the initiative and subjectivity of the learner, whereas co-construction attaches importance to joint endeavours where the learner and others collaborate. A social constructivist approach indicates that the teacher plays the role as a facilitator to help students build understanding, solve problems, and adapt to various cultural settings and social changes (Yang, 2004), as social constructivism holds that knowledge is constructed by learners rather than being imparted by others (Lyu, 2010). Students' initiative during the process of co-constructing knowledge should, therefore, be encouraged and valued (Zhang & Zhang, 2015). To ensure participants' effective construction and co-construction of knowledge and skills related to explication, I made sure that I was a facilitator rather than a knowledge imparter talking most of the time in the classroom, and participants were given abundant opportunities to voice their opinions and contribute to the learning process. As a facilitator, I endeavoured to use scaffolding and ensure the "learnability" (Wang, 2000, p. 26) in the task designs so that participants could construct new knowledge better based on their prior knowledge. For example, in Lecture 1 (See Appendix 6), instead of introducing explication directly, I posed a warm-up question, "What do you know about the translation technique of amplification that you learned in your Chinese-English translation class last semester?" After a discussion of the question, participants recalled what they had learned and prepared themselves better for the similar but new concept of explication. For another example, in Lecture 2, as a summary of the categorisation of

explicitation, a figure was shown to the students to ensure the key concepts could be presented in a clear way.

To refrain from being a dominating talker in the classroom, I designed questions for my students to discuss and tasks for them to complete. If a teacher is always ready to give students answers and put on the fancy front of an “infallible truth-giver” (Varney, 2009, p. 41), students are in fact deprived off the opportunity to construct knowledge by themselves or co-construct it with others. Therefore, in my teaching, students were encouraged to think critically and share their opinions in a class where individuals’ perspectives were valued. For example, in our discussion of optional explicitation in Lecture 3, students were guided to think critically whether it was acceptable to use explicitation in a target text. In doing so, students were encouraged to take a personal stance and justify it in collaborative work, since there is no clear-cut rule governing how and when to explicitate in translation. Another example was offered in Lecture 8. In our discussion of the employment of explicitation in translating some culturally-loaded Chinese terms, participants were guided to examine the translations critically and locate translations that they considered inappropriate.

2) Collaboration

Collaboration, as a feature of my teaching design, is derived from the key principle of social interaction of a social constructivist approach. Social constructivism maintains that collaboration between the teacher and students and between peers is critical for promoting a dynamic learning environment (Gao, & Wu, 2014). Karoly

(2000, p. 20) suggested that the development of translation skills should “be grounded in collaborative social experiences in the construction of meaning”. In my teaching of explicitation, I therefore attached importance to student-student interaction as well as teacher-student interaction, particularly by organising pair work and group work to enable students to construct knowledge through peer interaction. I also endeavoured to make whole class work interactive. For example, in Step 3 of Lecture 6, one student was asked to write the translation of his/her group on the blackboard and then the class and I jointly discussed the translation and whether the inclusion of a cohesive tie was appropriate.

As can be seen in Appendix 6, pair work and group work were both organised seven times to ensure peer collaboration in nine lectures. With regard to pair work, students were asked to complete a simple task together in two to four minutes. For example, in Lecture 4, students worked in pair and matched each of the four strategic procedures of explicitation with one definition. In Lecture 6, they paired up to compare a target text with its source text to highlight the striking differences between Chinese and English.

Compared to pair work, group work was complicated and lasted eight to 12 minutes. Students teamed up to complete tasks and present their results. Due to restrictions of time, different groups might be assigned different tasks. For example, in Lecture 4, the class was divided into eight groups of seven students; Groups 1 to 4 identified “addition” and “clarification” in the eight target texts in comparison with

the source texts, and Groups 5 to 8 “foregrounding” and “specification”. In this way, time could be saved and findings of different groups could be shared afterwards.

3) Situatedness

Situatedness as a key feature of a social constructivist approach is associated with authentic learning (Pritchard & Woollard, 2010). A constructivist learning environment provides learners with authentic problems or projects in a real-life situation (Jonassen, Marra, & Palmer, 2003). Likewise, Kiraly (2000, p. 3) attached importance to “authentic situated action” that can be incorporated into translation teaching activities. Yang (2004) asserted that proper teaching material can arouse students’ learning motivation in a positive way and authentic situations should be a vital factor to take into account in material selection. To ensure “situatedness” in my teaching of explicitation, I attempted to contextualise my teaching and selected learning materials and case studies that students could relate to the real world. In addition to asking participants to identify the cases of explicitation in translated texts employed by established translators such as Goldblatte as in Lecture 4 and Zhang Peiji as in Lecture 5, a variety of authentic texts based on students’ everyday encounters and my reflections on real-life translation situations were selected. Examples include the bilingual texts narrated by an announcer that I heard in a clothing store (used in Lecture 2); the bilingual texts introducing Chimelong International Ocean Resort in Zhuhai (used in Lecture 3); some humorous sentences collected from the Internet (used in Lecture 7); and some names of Chinese dishes from a menu of a local restaurant (used in Lecture 8). Purposefully use of these

real-life texts was conducive to the creation of an authentic learning environment where students could explore, discuss and critically reflect on translation practices used in the real world.

The Pre-test and the Post-test

After the ethics application of this study was approved by ACU (See Appendics 1-5) , the pre-test was applied in Week 7 of the second semester of 2015-2016 academic year at Beijing Normal University, Zhuhai. The post-test was administered in Week 17.

In both tests, participants were given 30 minutes to translate a Chinese text into English. Two Chinese source texts, coded as ST1 and ST2, were selected on the basis of apparent equivalent ease of translation which included slight editing from parts of the entries of “情侣路 (Lovers’ Road)” (Baidubaike, 2016a) and “东澳岛 (Dong’ao Island)” (Baidubaike, 2016b) in Baidu Encyclopaedia online and counterbalanced in distribution to participants across the two tests. In other words, the two Chinese texts were used for both tests, but each participant translated different texts in the two tests.

For both source texts, the same translation brief was provided, “Suppose the Culture, Sports, and Tourism Bureau of Zhuhai will launch an English version of the official website, in order to let the world know the city better. One of the sections, Magic Zhuhai, introduces some major tourist attractions in the city. The following

passage is about one of the attractions. Please translate those parts underlined into English in 30 minutes.”

To ensure that the two tests had the same level of difficulty, the topics of the two Chinese texts were about two tourist attractions familiar to the participants, Lovers’ Road and Dong’ao Island, in Zhuhai City where they had all lived for at least 2 years. The texts were of similar length, one with 194 characters, the other with 191 (See Table 3.3).

Table 3.3. Descriptive Information of the Source Texts

Text	Title	Length
ST1	珠海情侣路 (Lovers’ Road in Zhuhai)	194 characters (excluding punctuations)
ST2	珠海东澳岛 (Dong’ao Island in Zhuhai)	191 characters (excluding punctuations)

In Table 3.4 below, the two Chinese source texts are divided into 5 segments, each with 30 to 47 characters. The text type and the English reference translated text are provided. In terms of text type, Segments 1, 2, 4, and 5 of ST1 and Segments 1, 3, 4, 5 of ST2 are all informative; Segment 3 of ST1 and Segment B of ST2 are both informative with Chinese poetic language, which might be difficult and constitute a great challenge for the participants to translate.

Table 3.4. Analysis of Segments of the 2 Source Texts

Segment	ST1 珠海情侣路[Lovers' Road]	ST2 珠海东澳岛 [Dong'ao Island]
1	<p>珠海情侣路是珠海的一大看点，珠海城市的标志性建筑之一。游客不会错过到此一游。(35 characters; informative)</p> <p>[Lovers' Road is one of the must-visit tourist attractions in Zhuhai.]</p>	<p>珠海东澳岛森林覆盖率达 80%，全岛非常完整地保留着原始自然的生态环境，自然风貌独特，景色迷人。(41 characters; informative)</p> <p>[With a forest coverage rate of 80%, Dong'ao Island off the shore of Zhuhai boasts a well-preserved ecology and unique natural scenery.]</p>
2	<p>情侣路，沿海边，从南向北，长达 28 公里，分为三个主要地段：香洲，吉大和拱北。拱北与澳门相连，是海关口岸。(42 characters; informative)</p> <p>[It extends 28 kilometers from south to north along the coast, running through 3 districts, Gongbei which borders Macao, Xiangzhou and Jida.]</p>	<p>东澳岛的蓝天、白云、青山和绿水巧妙地结合在一起，画卷天成，渔村悠悠，炊烟袅袅。(33 characters; Descriptive+Poetic)</p> <p>[Under the blue sky with floating white clouds, among the green hills, and beside the crystal water, there is a quiet fishing village, which presents a tranquil, harmonious picture.]</p>
3	<p>珠海情侣路，西依高山大厦，东临碧海归帆。游客多结伴于此瞭望大海，窥视澳门，浮想连天，流连忘返。(40 characters; Descriptive+Poetic)</p> <p>[On the west of the road, there are skyscrapers and rolling hills and on its east, it is the blue sea. Tourists gather here to watch over the sea and enjoy the skyline of Macao.]</p>	<p>在东澳岛，最吸引的要数沙滩，东澳岛有南沙湾、大竹湾、小竹湾 三个沙滩，(30 characters; informative)</p> <p>[What makes Dong'ao Island appealing to the tourists is its beaches of Nansha (South Sand) Bay, Dazhu (Big Bamboo) Bay, and Xiaozhu (Small Bamboo) Bay.]</p>

Table 3.4. Analysis of Segments of the 2 Source Texts (continued)

Segment	ST1 珠海情侣路[Lovers' Road]	ST2 珠海东澳岛 [Dong'ao Island]
4	<p>珠海渔女塑像是这里的标志性物。海神女儿，手捧宝珠，屹立海上，给珠海人民送来希望和幸福。(38 characters; informative)</p> <p>[By the road stands the Fisher Girl Statue, the landmark of Zhuhai. The Fisher Girl, the daughter of the Sea God, holding a pearl, is believed to bring Zhuhai people hope and happiness.]</p>	<p>尤以南沙湾为好，享有“钻石沙滩”的美誉，这是在珠海市区或附近海岛难得一见的沙滩。沙质洁白细腻，沙滩平缓宽阔。(47 characters; informative)</p> <p>[The beach of Nanshawan Bay, the best of the three as a rarity in Zhuhai and off its shore, is honoured as “the Diamond Beach”. The beach is flat and broad with fine white sand]</p>
5	<p>情侣路是珠海人民举行重大活动的地方，被誉为珠海的‘万里长城’，珠海的旅游观光地。(35 characters; informative)</p> <p>[Lovers' Road is a venue for grand events of the city. As there is the Great Wall in Beijing, so there is Lovers' Road in Zhuhai. It is a tourist spot that you should not miss.]</p>	<p>冲浪、潜水、风帆等是这里的主要旅游项目。岛上有住宿服务，海鲜更是这里的美味佳肴。(35 characters; informative)</p> <p>[and you can indulge yourself in surfing, diving, and sailing there. Accommodation and great seafood are available on Dong'ao Island.]</p>

In addition to the above-mentioned endeavours in ensuring the levels of difficulty of the two source texts were as identical as possible, two veteran translation teachers were invited to evaluate both texts for equivalence. They independently confirmed that the texts were approximately at the same level of difficulty.

As regards the marking of the translations of the pre-test and the post-test, besides me, a veteran translation teacher was recruited to assist with the scoring and an inter-rater reliability analysis was done through testing the correlation of obtained scores on a sample of 20 participants (See Appendix 8). Moreover, in the marking of the participants' translations, the target texts of the same source text completed by both the experimental and the control groups in both the pre-test and the post-test were put together and mixed up and the participants' identity data on the exam papers were covered and stapled, so that the raters did not know whether one translation was written by a student in the experimental group or the control group or whether it was done in the pre-test or in the post-test. Concerning the grading mechanism, each text was divided into 5 segments, for each of which two scores both out of 20 points were given for Faithfulness and Smoothness, respectively. A final score for a text was based on the calculation of the total scores of Faithfulness (60%) and Smoothness (40%) with the weighting reflecting the convention used in the Test for English Majors Band 8 (TEM8), a well-recognised, standardised national English proficiency test for English majors in China.

The grading criteria for the pre-test and the post-test were mainly based on those for the Chinese-English Translation section in TEM8. In the grading of Chinese-English Translation in TEM8, global scoring is adopted to evaluate two parameters as follows (Changchunteng, 2005).

1) Faithfulness (60%)

- ✧ Excellent (100-90): All messages are conveyed and the tone and style of the target text are completely in line with those of the source text.
- ✧ Good (89-80): Except for a couple of minor messages, all key messages are conveyed and the tone and style of the target text are in line with those of the source text.
- ✧ Acceptable (79-70): There are a few misinterpretations or a couple of losses of messages; the main spirit of the target text is in line with that of the source text.
- ✧ Passable (69-60): There are a couple of critical misinterpretations or losses of messages; some messages are vague, but generally speaking, the main messages are expressed.
- ✧ Failed (59 and below): There are quite some misinterpretations and losses of messages; the main spirit cannot be conveyed.

2) Smoothness (40%)

- ✧ Excellent (100-90): The language is natural, with a proper use of vocabulary and syntax.
- ✧ Good (89-80): The language is smooth and conforms to the norm of English.
- ✧ Acceptable (79-70): The language is not smooth enough, with a few lexical and syntactic mistakes.
- ✧ Passable (69-60): There are some cases of word-for-word translation and unnatural expressions; sentences are not coherently written and hard to understand.
- ✧ Failed (59 and below): There are quite a number of mistakes in grammar and vocabulary; 1/3 of the sentences and above are unreadable.

Based on the two parameters above, each translated text of the pre-test and the post-text for both groups was divided into 5 segments and each segment was given two scores both out of 20 points and 100 points in total for Faithfulness (60%) and Smoothness (40%). A total score was calculated based on the percentages of the two parameters.

The two parameters of Faithfulness and Smoothness are actually inclusive of the grammatical, lexical, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic dimensions in the use of language related to translation. Generally speaking, Faithfulness concerns the accurate and appropriate reproduction of messages intended to be conveyed in the

source text, which means it has much to do with the semantic and pragmatic dimensions, whereas Smoothness has a bearing on the readability of the target text, which to a great extent depends on whether accuracy in vocabulary, syntax, and grammar can be achieved. If Smoothness has much to do with participants' mastery of linguistic knowledge of the target language, which might be universally reflected in any type of translation, Faithfulness needs to be analysed based on the specific features or text type of a source text. It should be noted that given that the two source texts for the pre-test and the post-test were both a tourism text, "Faithfulness" should not be regarded as a mechanical copying of the messages of the source text, but as a proper use of the tone and style that conform to an English tourism text with a reference to the messages of the source text.

It follows that in the conveyance of the messages in the source text, a translator should take into account that the Chinese way of writing a tourism text might be different from the English norm and some changes should be made in the English target text to "package" the messages in the natural English way. The following is an analysis of how the two Chinese source texts were translated in the reference translations in terms of the rendering of the original messages.

1) Source Text 1

Segment 1: 珠海情侣路

珠海情侣路是珠海的一大看点，珠海城市的标志性建筑之一。游客不会错过到此一游。(Baidubaike, 2016a)

Gloss: Zhuhai Lovers' Road

Zhuhai Lovers' Road is Zhuhai's big watching point, one of Zhuhai City's landmark

structures. Tourists will not miss [the chance of] touring here.

Reference Translation: Lovers' Road

Lovers' Road is one of the must-visit tourist attractions in Zhuhai.

In Segment 1, the original title in the source text was “珠海情侣路 (Zhuhai Lovers' Road)”, but in the reference translation, “Zhuhai” was omitted, given that the translation brief for this source text indicated that the English translated text would be put under the section of Magic Zhuhai on the English official website about this city and therefore “Zhuhai” in the title was redundant. Between the two sentences that follow the title in Segment 1, no cohesive tie is used. In the first sentence, the road is described as one of the city's landmark structures, which is in fact a mistake in common sense, since a road cannot be a structure. So, the translation will not be logical and readable if it is done word-for-word into English. In the reference translation, Segment 1 was translated into a simple sentence by combining the two messages of the first sentence in the source text into “one of the tourist attractions in Zhuhai” and adding an attribute “must-visit” to convey the meaning of the second sentence “Tourists will not miss [the chance of] touring here”. The use of a short simple sentence in this case was to ensure that there was a direct, clear-cut description of what Lovers' Road was at the beginning of the passage, which could well serve as a topic sentence.

Segment 2: 情侣路，沿海边，从南向北，长达 28 公里，分为三个主要地段：香洲，吉大和拱北。拱北与澳门相连，是海关口岸。(Baidubaik, 2016a)

Gloss: Lovers' Road, along the coast, from South to North, is as long as 28 kilometres, dividing into three major sections: Xiangzhou, Jida and Gongbei. Gongbei borders

Macao, [it] is the custom port.

Reference Translation: It extends 28 kilometers from south to north along the coast, running through 3 districts, Gongbei which borders Macao, Xiangzhou and Jida.

In Segment 2 of the source text, there are two sentences, one about Lovers' Road, the other about Gongbei, one of the districts Lovers' runs through. In light of the theme of the passage, namely Lovers' Road, it is not desirable to translate the second sentence as a separate sentence, because in this way, "Gongbei" is highlighted, but in fact it should be put to the background so as to foreground the theme of Lovers' Road. That was why in the reference translation, the separate sentence in the source text was translated into an attribute clause "which borders Macao" to modify "Gongbei".

Segment 3: 珠海情侣路, 西依高山大厦, 东临碧海归帆。游客多结伴于此瞭望大海, 窥视澳门, 浮想连天, 流连忘返。(Baidubaike, 2016a)

Gloss: Zhuhai Lovers' Road leans on high mountains and skyscrapers on the west and is close to the blue sea and returning ships on the east. Tourists usually gather here to watch the sea [and] peep at Macao, indulging in a train of thoughts [and] enjoying themselves so much as to forget to go home.

Reference Translation: On the west of the road, there are skyscrapers and rolling hills and on its east, it is the blue sea. Tourists gather here to watch over the sea and the skyline of Macao.

Segment 3 in the source text contains two sentences. Both are poetic and literary. In the first sentence, a number of images, including "high mountains", "skyscrapers", "the blue sea" and "returning ships", are used. Two of the four images

cannot be translated word-for-word. Firstly, “high mountains” is not accurate to describe the actual state, as in fact, there are “hills” rather than “high mountains” beside Lovers’ Road. Secondly, it sounds more natural to omit “returning ships”, as it connotes “late afternoon” or “early evening” and it is too specific in this case of a general description of what can be seen near the road. In the second sentence, the description of tourists’ “indulging in a train of thoughts [and] enjoying themselves so much as to forget to go home” sounds too exaggerated and evocative in English, so it was omitted in the reference translation.

Segment 4: 珠海渔女塑像是这里的标志性物。海神女儿，手捧宝珠，屹立海上，给珠海人民送来希望和幸福。(Baidubaike, 2016a)

Gloss: The Fisher Girl Statue of Zhuhai is a landmark here. The daughter of the Sea God, holding a pearl, standing above the sea, brings hope and happiness to Zhuhai people.

Reference Translation: By the road stands the Fisher Girl Statue, the landmark of Zhuhai. The Fisher Girl, the daughter of the Sea God, holding a pearl, is believed to bring Zhuhai people hope and happiness.

Segment 4 in the source text, with two sentences, is an account of the Fisher Girl Statue. As indicated in the gloss above, the second sentence starts with “the daughter of the Sea God” as the subject, but it is quite abrupt to mention a new subject without an explicit reference to something before it if it is directly translated into English, so in the reference translation, “The Fisher Girl” was added as the subject and “the daughter of the Sea God was used as its appositive. On the other hand, the second sentence states in a factual tone that “the daughter of the Sea God... brings hope and happiness to Zhuhai people”, but in English, a more precise

and logical language than Chinese, it is uncustomary to express it this way. That was why in the reference translation “is believed to” was added to conform to the logicity required in an English text.

Segment 5: 情侣路是珠海人民举行重大活动的地方，被誉为珠海的‘万里长城’，珠海的旅游观光地。(Baidubaike, 2016a)

Gloss: Lovers’ Road is a place for Zhuhai people to hold important activities and is praised as the Great Wall in Zhuhai.

Reference Translation: Lovers’ Road is a venue for grand events of the city. As there is the Great Wall in Beijing, so there is Lovers’ Road in Zhuhai. It is a tourist spot that you should not miss.

The translation of Segment 5 could challenge a translator, as a literal rendering of the comparison of Lovers’ Road to “the Great Wall” does not sound logical in English, since they do not share much similarity. To straighten the illogical confusion, the reference translation has it as an analogy which emphasises the popularity and significance of Lovers’ Road as a tourist spot. It should also be noted that in the last sentence of the reference translation, the second person perspective “you” was used to comply with the norm of an English tourism text.

2) Source Text 2

Segment 1: 珠海东澳岛

珠海东澳岛森林覆盖率达 80%，全岛非常完整地保留着原始自然的生态环境，自然风貌独特，景色迷人。(Baidubaike, 2016b)

Gloss: Zhuhai Dong’ao Island

Zhuhai Dong’ao Island has a forest coverage rate of 80%, the whole island very perfectly preserves primitive natural eco-environment, the natural landscape is unique, [and] the

scenery is charming.

Reference Translation: Dong'ao Island

With a forest coverage rate of 80%, Dong'ao Island off the shore of Zhuhai boasts a well-preserved ecology and unique natural scenery.

Like Source Text 1, the original title for Source Text 2 was “珠海东澳岛 (Zhuhai Dong'ao Island)”, but in the reference translation, “Zhuhai” was crossed out, due to the translation brief for this source text that stated that the English translated text would be put under the section of Magic Zhuhai on the English official website about this city. In Segment 1 of Source Text 2, there are four sentences separated by commas without any explicit cohesive ties. If it is translated word-for-word as the gloss above, the English target text sounds syntactically loose and sluggish. The reference translation, therefore, combined the messages of the four sentences and rendered it into a simple sentence, which changed the first sentence in the source text into an absolute construction “with+ ...” and integrated the messages in the last three sentences into “Dong'ao Island off the shore of Zhuhai boasts a well-preserved ecology and unique natural scenery”.

Segment 2: 东澳岛的蓝天、白云、青山和绿水巧妙地结合在一起，画卷天成，渔村悠悠，炊烟袅袅。(Baidubaike, 2016b)

Gloss: Dong'ao Island's blue sky, white clouds, green hills and green water are combined brilliantly, a scroll of picture has been created by the heaven, there is a quiet fishing village, smoke curls up from kitchen chimneys.

Reference Translation: Under the blue sky with floating white clouds, among the green hills, and beside the crystal water, there is a fishing village, which presents a tranquil, harmonious picture.

As indicated in the gloss of Segment 2, there are four sentences separated by commas without any explicit cohesive ties. A juxtaposition of the messages in the target text as the gloss indicates sounds syntactically monotonous and unnatural. Therefore, in the reference translation, the first sentence was changed into three prepositional structures, the third sentence “there is a fishing village” was highlighted as the key sentence in the target text and the messages of the second sentence “a scroll of picture has been created by the heaven”, which will be too metaphoric and nonfactual in English if literally translated, and of the last sentence “smoke curls up from kitchen chimneys”, which is not associated with “tranquillity” and “harmony” in English as in Chinese, were combined into an attributive clause “which presents a tranquil, harmonious picture”.

Segment 3: 在东澳岛，最吸引的要数沙滩，东澳岛有南沙湾、大竹湾、小竹湾三个沙滩， (Baidubaikē, 2016b)

Gloss: On Dong’ao Island, the most attractive is beaches, Dong’ao Island has three beaches, Nansha Bay, Dazhu Bay, [and] Xiaozhu Bay,

Reference Translation: What makes Dong’ao Island appealing to the tourists is its beaches of Nansha (South Sand) Bay, Dazhu (Big Bamboo) Bay, and Xiaozhu (Small Bamboo) Bay.

As indicated in the source text and the gloss above, Segment 3 in the source text contains two sentences divided by commas with a repetition of “Dong’ao Island”. The two separate sentences were combined into one in the reference translation by using “of” to connect “beaches” with the three bays. It should be also noted that in the reference translation, the meanings of the names of the three bays were explained.

Segment 4: 尤以南沙湾为好，享有“钻石沙滩”的美誉，这是在珠海市区或附近海岛难得一见的沙滩。(Baidubaiké, 2016b)

Gloss: Especially Nansha Bay is the best, enjoying the beautiful name of “the Diamond Beach”, this is a beach rarely seen in Zhuhai City or its islands nearby.

Reference Translation: The beach of Nansha Bay, the best of the three as a rarity in Zhuhai and off its shore, is honoured as “the Diamond Beach”.

Segment 4 is also a juxtaposition of two sentences, which are “especially Nansha Bay is the best, enjoying the beautiful name of ‘the Diamond Beach’” and “this is a beach rarely seen in Zhuhai City or its islands nearby”. The reference translation combined the two sentences into one as well, highlighting the name that honours the beach of Nansha Bay.

Segment 5: 沙质洁白细腻，沙滩平缓宽阔。冲浪、潜水、风帆等是这里的主要旅游项目。岛上有住宿服务，海鲜更是这里的美味佳肴。(Baidubaiké, 2016b)

Gloss: The sand is pure, white, [and] fine, the beach is flat and broad. Surfing, diving, sailing, etc. are the major tourism events. On the Island there is accommodation service, sea food is the delicacy here.

Reference Translation: The beach is flat and broad with fine white sand and you can indulge yourself in surfing, diving, and sailing there. Accommodation and great seafood are available on Dong’ao Island.

There are five sentences separated by commas or full stops in Segment 5 of the source text. A literal translation as the gloss above indicates will make the target text syntactically loose. That was why in the reference translation, the originally separate sentences were combined into two. In the second part of the first sentence in the reference translation, i.e., “you can indulge yourself in surfing, diving, and sailing

there”, the second person personal perspective was used to conform to the norm of an English tourism text.

From the analysis of the reference translations of Source Texts 1 and 2, we can see that in terms of the rubric of “Faithfulness”, what messages the participants chose to convey and how they conveyed them should be examined in the marking of their translated texts. The following is an illustration of how participants’ texts were scored by looking at six sample target texts, three for ST1 “情侣路 (Lovers’ Road)” and three for ST2 “东澳岛 (Dong’ao Island)”. As participants’ scores ranged from 50 to 79, the sample target texts chosen for both source texts were scored with one “Acceptable (79-70)” score, one “Passable (69-60)”, and one “Failed (59 and below)”. In the following sample target texts, mistakes are underlined and the two scores of Faithfulness and Smoothness for each segment are in a square bracket.

Sample Target Text 1:

Qinglü Road in Zhuhai

Qinglü Road (literally means the road for couple) is a spotlight and symbol of Zhuhai City that you will never want to miss. [Segment 1: 15; 14]

Segment 2: Along the beachside of the seashore, the road winds 28 kilometers from south to north of the city and passes 3 major blocks, Xiangzhou, Jida and Gongbei which is the Customs Port that connected with Macau. [Segment 2 15; 14]

Segment 3: West side of the road lie high mountains and tall buildings while the ferries and ships are floating in the sea on the east side. Tourists will get together in couples here and enjoy the panorama of the sea, the distant Macau and the blue sky. The association always seduce you to stay in the pleasant masterpiece. [Segment 3: 14; 14]

Segment 4: Zhuhai Yunü, the statue of a Fishing Lady, is the landmark of the road. Daughter of the Ocean God, standing on the sea with a pearl in her Hand to the sky prays for hope and happiness to Zhuhai people. [Segment 4: 14; 14]

Segment 5: Moreover, the road is boasted as the Great Wall of Zhuhai which not only enables it as a tourist resort, but also a place for galas. [Segment 5: 13; 14]

[Faithfulness: $15+15+14+14+13=71$; Smoothness: $14+14+14+14+14=70$; Final Score: $71 \times 0.6 + 70 \times 0.4 = 70.6$]

This sample target text was graded as “Acceptable”, with 71 points for Faithfulness, 70 for Smoothness and thus a final score of 70.6. As those parts underlined in the sample text above indicate, in terms of faithfulness, there are a few cases of unclear or mistaken reproduction of the messages in the source text. For example, the sentence “The association always seduce you to stay in the pleasant masterpiece” was intended to express the original meaning of “[游客] 浮想连天, 流连忘返 ([the tourists] indulge in a train of thoughts [and] enjoying themselves so much as to forget to go home”, but because “seduce” is derogatory and it is unclear as to what “the pleasant masterpiece” refers to exactly, it failed to get the meaning across to the reader. For another example, “Daughter of the Ocean God”, a literal translation of “海的女儿” was used as the subject in the sentence, but in the Chinese source text, it actually refers to “the Fisher Girl”, although it is not mentioned; the use of it in this sample target text as the subject without making clear what it referred to makes it incoherent and thus the original meaning was not well expressed as well.

As far as “Smoothness” is concerned, there were some mistakes in the choices of words, such as “spotlight [tourist attraction]”, “blocks [districts]”, “seduce you to

stay [keep you]", "lie [stand]", "is boasted as [is honoured as]", and "enables it as a tourist resort [makes it a tourist resort]", and in grammar, such as "literally means [which literally means]", "will never want to [should not]", and "connected with [connects]".

Generally speaking, the target text above was an "Acceptable" translation, with most of the messages conveyed, and a few misinterpretations in terms of Faithfulness and with some lexical and grammatical mistakes in terms of Smoothness, so it was scored with a mark of 70.6.

Sample Target Text 2:

Road of lovers is, not only a famous visiting place but also a symbol building of urban of Zhuhai. Tourists would never miss it if they travel at Zhuhai. [Segment 1: 12; 13]

It consist of three part: Xiangzhou, Jilin University at Zhuhai and Gongbei, along the seaside north toward from south, reaching 28 kms long. Gongbei is a port of the custom, connecting with Macau. [Segment 2: 12; 12]

Road of lovers, adjent to great mountains and gigantic buildings on the westside, On the east is the blue sea and returning ships. Visitors often get accompanied here, looking at the sea and Macau, thinking imaginative things and stay here for hous unwilling to leave. [Segment 3: 13; 13]

Statue of Fisher Girl is the symbol of here. The daughter of God of Sea, with the jewels in her hands, standing on the sea, bring hope and happiness to people in Zhuhai. [Segment 4: 13; 12]

Road of lover, whose reputation is "The Great Wall in Zhuhai", is the place where local people hold important activities and for people to sightsee. [Segment 5: 13; 14]

[Faithfulness: 12+12+13+13+13=63; Smoothness: 13+12+13+12+14=64; Final Score: 63 X 0.6 + 64 X 0.4= 63.4]

The sample text above was graded as a “Passable” text, with 63, 64 and 63.4 points for Faithfulness, Smoothness and the final score. In terms of Faithfulness, the name of the road “Road of Lovers” was not well translated. Secondly, there were quite a number of inaccuracies in conveying the original messages. For example, in the sentence, “The daughter of God of Sea, with the jewels in her hands, standing on the sea, bring hope and happiness to people in Zhuhai”, there were at least three inaccuracies in terms of the reproduction of the messages in comparison with the source text. Firstly, just as in Sample Target Text 1, “the daughter of God of See” was used as a subject, which was incoherent as what the subject referred to was not made clear. Secondly, “with the jewels in her hands” did not convey the factual information accurately, as what the Fisher Girl holds is a pearl rather than “jewels”. Thirdly, in “bring[s] hope and happiness to people in Zhuhai”, the use of the simple present tense implies that it is a fact that the statue “brings hope and happiness to people in Zhuhai”, but in fact, a literal reading like this sounds rather imprecise and subjective in English. That is why in the reference translation of ST1, it was translated into “The Fisher Girl, the daughter of the Sea God, holding a pearl, is believed to bring Zhuhai people hope and happiness”, in which “is believed to” was added to conform to the logicity of the English way of expression.

As regards Smoothness, there were quite a few cases of word-for-word translation, such as “a symbol building” for “标志性建筑” which actually means “landmark” and “Jilin University at Zhuhai” for “吉大” which refers to “Jida District” rather than a university. Second, there were quite a number of unnatural expressions,

such as “a famous visiting place [a tourist attraction]”, “urban of Zhuhai [Zhuhai City]”, “gigantic buildings [skyscrapers]”, and “thinking imaginative things [indulging in a train of thoughts]”. Thirdly, there are some grammatical mistakes. For example, the third person singular form was not used for some verbs, including “consist” and “bring”.

Sample Target Text 3:

Lover’s road in Zhuhai

The Lover’s road is a famous attraction, more significantly, it is one of the landmark in Zhuhai. Tourists usually would choose to visit this landmark when they come to Zhuhai. [Segment 1: 14; 13]

The Lover’s Road, which is located next to the sea, extending from south to north, and it reaches the length of 28 km, besides, it divided into 3 main parts which named Xiangzhou, Jida and Gongbei. Gongbei is closed to Macau, moreover, it is a custom port. [Segment 2: 13; 12]

The Lover’s road, next to the high mountains and tall buildings to the west, east to the sea. Generaral speaking, tourists love to join together to take an overview of the sea and enjoy the view of Macau, having a fantastic imaging in their minds and have no tend to leave with hovering. [Segment 3: 12; 12]

The fishing lady is one of the symbolic landmark in Zhuhai, the daughter of the God of Sea, holding a jewery ball, standing right above the sea, bring hope and happiness to all the citizen in Zhuhai. [Segment 4: 12; 12]

When there’s some significant activity [Segment 5: 5; 5]

[Faithfulness: 14+13+12+12+12+5=56; Smoothness: =13+12+12+12+5=54; Final Score: 56 X 0.6 + 54 X 0.4= 55.2]

Sample Target Text 3 was marked as a “Failed” text with 56 points for Faithfulness, 54 for Smoothness, and 55.6 as the final score. As far as Faithfulness is concerned, first of all the last sentence of the source text was only half-translated,

which lost a key message as the last sentence was a concluding remark and made the text complete. Secondly, some parts in the target text were not readable, such as “having a fantastic imaging in their minds and have no tend to leave with hovering”. In terms of Smoothness, there were many grammatical mistakes, particularly in the plural or singular form of a noun, such as “one of the landmark [one of the landmarks]” and “all the citizen [all citizens]”. Syntactically speaking, there were many traces of negative transfer from paratactic Chinese, which means quite some short sentences were juxtaposed and separated by commas, such as “The Lover’s road is a famous attraction, more significantly, it is one of the landmark in Zhuhai.” Another critical problem in this sample text is that there were a few incomplete sentences, such as “The Lover’s Road, which is located next to the sea, extending from south to north...” and “The Lover’s road, next to the high mountains and tall buildings to the west, east to the sea”.

Sample Target Text 4:

The East Island in Zhuhai

The East Island in Zhuhai has a forest coverage of 80%, which keeps the original nature environment entirely. It has spectacular landscape and fantastic view. [Segment 1: 14; 15]

You can see blue sky, white cloud, green mountains and crystal river combine together to present a perfect scene which just like the painting created by God. Around the island, there are many villages where fisher locals live and enjoy themselves. [Segment 2: 14; 15]

In this island, the most attractive things are beaches which includes Nansha Bay, Big Bamboo Bay and Small Bamboo Bay. Among these, Nansha Bay is the best and people call it the “beach of the diamond” [Segment 3: 13; 15]

which is also an uncommon one exists in downtown Zhuhai and nearby islands. The sand there has the top quality which is soft and glittering white. The whole beach is smooth, flat and broad. [Segment 4: 15; 14]

You can totally relax yourselves by surfing, diving and railing, which are major entertainment activities in this island. Especially, we also provide you with comfortable and convenient accommodation service. Last but not least, the delicious sea food here is also strongly recommended, you can't miss it! [Segment 5: 15; 15]

[Faithfulness: 14+14+13+15+15=71; Smoothness: 15+15+15+14+15=74; Final Score: $76 \times 0.6 + 74 \times 0.4 = 72.2$]

This sample target text was marked as an “Acceptable” text, with 71 points for Faithfulness, 74 for Smoothness and a final score of 72.2. As regards Faithfulness, most of the messages were conveyed and one advantage of the translation was that the second person perspective was used in some sentences, which is in line with the norm of an English tourism text. There were, however, a couple of inaccuracies in terms of the conveyance of information. For one thing, this target text used “many villages”, which was not accurate. Although the number of villages was not indicated in the source text, a good knowledge of the island could reveal that there are only a couple of fishing villages there and more importantly, tranquillity is an appealing feature for the island as a tourist attraction. For another, in the sentence “Among these, Nansha Bay is the best and people call it the “beach of the diamond” which is also an uncommon one exists in downtown Zhuhai and nearby islands”, there is a logical mistake concerning the location of the island, since “one” island cannot exist both in downtown Zhuhai and nearby islands. That was why in the reference translation, the sentence was translated into “The beach of Nanshawan Bay, the best

of the three as a rarity in Zhuhai and off its shore, is honoured as “the Diamond Beach”.

With regard to Smoothness, there were some lexical mistakes or unnatural expressions, such as “nature environment [nature/environment]”, “relax yourselves [relax]”, “railing [sailing]”, and “convinient [convenient]”. Moreover, there were a couple of syntactic mistakes concerning the use of the attributive clause, such as “which just like the painting created by God [which is just like a painting created by God]” and “which is also an uncommon one exists in downtown Zhuhai and nearby islands [which is also an rare one in downtown Zhuhai and nearby islands]”.

Sample Target Text 5:

Dong’ao Isle remains completely original natural and ecological environment with the approximately 80 percent of the area covering with forest. It is noted for special natural signs and fascinating scenes. [Segment 1: 12; 13]

It is the fantastic combination of the blue sky, the white cloud and clear water like a natural painting describing various countryside that fishman live in and continuous smoke that comes from chimney of kitchen. [Segment 2: 13; 13]

In this island, beach is the most attractive spot, including Nansha Gulf, Dazu Gulf and Xiaozu Gulf and the best of which is Nansha Gulf, enjoying the name of Diamond Beach. [Segment 3: 12; 12]

The beach is rarely found in Zhuhai Downtown and its nearby islands. The sand of the beach is white and soft with its broad and even rouge. [Segment 4: 12; 13]

Drifting, snorkling, crafting are the main activities, and the accomodation, delicious cuisine especially for sea food are available and offered in there. [Segment 5: 12; 13]

[Faithfulness: 12+13+12+12+12=61; Smoothness: 13+13+12+13+13= 64; Final Score: 61 X 0.6 + 64 X 0.4= 62.4]

This sample target text was graded as “Passable”, with 61 points for Faithfulness, 64 for Smoothness and a final score of 62.4. In terms of Faithfulness, on the one hand, some parts were not readable and thus unable to convey the original messages well, such as “remains [preserves]”, which was mistaken for a transitive verb, making the whole sentence incomprehensible, and “with its broad and even rouge [with its broadness and flatness]”, which was incomprehensible as well. On the other hand, other parts were not adequately expressed in light of the English way of expression. For example, “continuous smoke that comes from chimney of kitchen” was a literal translation of “炊烟袅袅 (smoke curls up from kitchen chimneys)”, but the Chinese idiom conjures up a tranquil, harmonious picture of a Chinese village to the Chinese reader; since the literal translation of it cannot provoke the same response from the English reader, it could not be regarded as an adequate translation.

As far as Smoothness is concerned, there were quite a number of inaccurate choices of words, such as “natural signs [landscape]”, “Gulf [Bay]”, “Drifting [Surfing]”, “snorkling [diving]”, and “crafting [sailing]”, and grammatical mistakes, particularly in the form of a noun or a verb, such as “covering [covered]”, “fishman [fishermen]”, “chimney of kitchen [kitchen chimneys]”, and “beach [beaches]”.

Sample Target Text 6:

Withing 80% covery of forest, Dongao Island in Zhuhai remains the original natural environment completely and has a attractive and special senery. [Segment 1: 12; 11]

The blue sky, clouds, mountains and clean water combine together harmounously.
[Segment 2: 9; 9]

Known as its beaches, Dongao Island has three islands which are Nan Sha Beach, Da Zhu Beach and Xiao Zhu Beach. Among them, Nan Sha Beach is the best, which is called "Diamon Beach" [Segment 3: 13; 12]

for it is a special beach in the centre of Zhuhai and island nearby. Sands in Nan Sha Beach are small and the whole beach is smooth. [Segment 4: 12; 12]

Rushing waves, diving under water and flying boat's fans are the main activities here. The island is also equipped with boarding service and sea foods there are delicious cuisine. [Segment 5: 12; 12]

[Faithfulness: 12+9+13+12+12=58; Smoothness: 11+9+13+12+12=57; Final Score: 58 X 0.6 + 54 X 0.4= 57.6]

As indicated in those parts underlined above, there were a great number of mistakes in Sample Target Text 6. It was, therefore, graded as a "Failed" text, with 58 points for Faithfulness and 57 for Smoothness and a final score of 57.6. As regards Faithfulness, the biggest problem of this target text was its inadequacy in logically using the English language, thus making the text imprecise and unreadable. For example, in the sentence "Known as its beaches, Dongao Island has three islands which are Nan Sha Beach, Da Zhu Beach and Xiao Zhu Beach", "beaches" and "islands" were used interchangeably and thus the original meaning of the source text for this sentence was distorted. In another example, the sentence "it is a special beach in the centre of Zhuhai and island nearby", has the beach as a single place. But the student translator expressed it as being in two places, which was illogical as well.

As far as Smoothness is concerned, there were a great number of spelling mistakes, such as "withing [with]", "senery [scenery]", "harmounously

[harmoniously]", and "diamon [diamond]", and inaccuracies in the choice of words and expressions, such as "covery of forest [forest coverage rate]", "remains [preserves]", "a attractive and special senery [attractive and special scenery]", "Rushing waves [Surfing]", "flying boat's fans [sailing]", and "boarding service [accommodation]".

In summary, to ensure the reliability in the marking of the participants' translations in the pre-test and the post-test, the veteran translation teacher and I, as raters, communicated with each other well to reach a consensus in the marking mechanism and the grading criteria.

The Questionnaire with 3 Open-ended Questions

After participants completed the translation tasks in the pre-test and the post-test, the same subsequent questionnaire (See Appendix 7) with three open-ended questions was delivered to determine how participants defined explicitation, how they understood its usefulness in Chinese-English translation and how they evaluated their competence in using explicitation it when translating.

A qualitative Approach: Translations, Journals, TAPs and Interviews

The qualitative approach in the study concerns how participants' translated texts in response to the four set assignment tasks and their journals completed could be treated as corpora to identify the explicitation patterns of the two groups, and

specifically for 6 volunteers recruited for a close study, whose translated texts, TAPs, and interview data would be analysed in detail.

Assignments and Translation Journals

Both the experimental and the control groups completed four Chinese-English assignments (See Table 3.5) that had been included as regular tasks in their coursework learning. Participants were required to compile a translation journal to report or record their translating process for each assignment.

The suggested time for each translation task ranged from 25 to 35 minutes based on the number of characters of the source text, while that for the translation journals was 15 minutes. Description of the four assignments was included on the teaching platform for the translation course provided to students at the beginning of their course. This work was done outside class hours and could be completed and uploaded before the stipulated deadlines.

As regards the variety of English used for the target texts, participants were expected to use grammatically and linguistically correct English as in any of the English native countries, since accuracy, readability and coherence are perceived as vital criteria in grading translation work (See Chen, & Li, 2004; Sun, 2003). When Chinese characteristics needed to be conveyed in the translation, China English as identified by Li (1993) and Zhang and Zhou (2014) as a variety of English in the Chinese context could be used.

Table 3.5. Basic Information of the 4 Assignments

Assignment	Text Type	Topic/Title	No. of Characters	Suggested Time
1	WeChat posts	Post 1: An address to MA students Post 2: An anecdote	Post 1: 99 Post 2: 76	30 minutes +15minutes
2	Tourist text	鹿回头公园 (Luhuitou Park)	154	25 minutes +15minutes
3	Expository text	Tipping in America	232	35 minutes +15minutes
4	Expository text	Singles' Day in China (XDF, 2014, p. 191)	223	35 minutes +15minutes

A translation brief was provided with each of the four assignments as indicated in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6. Translation Briefs for the 4 Assignments

Assignment	Topic/Title	Translation Brief
1	WeChat Post 1	The following short passage was written by Alex, your translation teacher, and was published in the Liyun Newspaper as an address for first year postgraduates. Suppose an English edition of Liyun Newspaper is to be published and distributed to international students and English native teachers. Translate the passage into English to include in the English edition.
	WeChat Post 2	The following short passage and picture is a WeChat post written by Alex. Suppose the English version of the passage will be posted on Facebook or Twitter. Translate it into English for the English posting.

Table 3.6. Translation Briefs for the 4 Assignments (continued)

Assignment	Topic/Title	Translation Brief
2	Luhuitou (Deer Looking Back Park)	Suppose the Tourism Bureau of Sanya City will publish <i>A Travel Guide to Sanya</i> in English. Your translation of the following tourist attraction will be included in the book.
3	Tipping in America	Suppose your translation of the first paragraph will be posted on a travel forum online which will be read by English readers from all over the world.
4	Singles' Day in China	Suppose your translation of the following passage will be posted on a forum entitled, "Across Cultures" online which will be read by English readers from all over the world.

As indicated in Table 3.7, the first question provided in the task description aimed to guide students in the course to pay close attention to their difficulties or problems in translation and to be aware of how they tackle them. It applied for all who participated in the study. The second and the third questions differed for students who were participants in one or other of the experimental and control groups. Those in the control received the customary guidance to observe what translation methods and techniques they used in their translations while those used for students participating in the experimental group focused on explicitation.

Table 3.7. Questions to Guide Journal Writing for the Control and the Experimental Groups

Control Group	Experimental Group
1) What difficulties or problems did you encounter when you were translating? How did you tackle them?	1) What difficulties or problems did you encounter when you were translating? How did you tackle them?
2) What translation methods did you use in your translation?	2) Compare your translation with the source text and find an example from your translation for each of the categories: grammatical, lexical, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic explicitation.
3) What translation techniques did you use in your translation?	3) Identify from your translation examples of obligatory and optional explicitation. Explain how your examples match the two categories of obligatory and optional explicitation.
	4) Identify the cases of addition, clarification, foregrounding, and specification from your translation and explain why you used them.

The participants' translated texts of the four assignments were used as a corpus to investigate participants' patterns in employing the four categories of addition, clarification, specification, and foregrounding in relation to obligatory and optional explicitation and to the grammatical, lexical, semantic, syntactic, and pragmatic dimensions in Chinese-English translation. As indicated in Table 3.8, 28 key points in each source text of the four assignments were identified and then each student's translation of each key point was tagged in Qualitative Coder 1.1 (Xu & Jia, 2011) based on how a strategic procedure had been used. The tagged texts of both

groups were then run by Qualitative Explorer 1.0 (Xu & Jia, 2011) to calculate the frequencies of right, wrong, and null cases related to the explicitation procedures, as well as determining frequencies for some specific translation mistakes, such as “Inaccuracy” and “Not Translated”.

Table 3.8. Key Points from the 4 Assignments to Investigate Participants’ Explicitation Patterns

Key Point	Text	Content	Procedure	OB/OP	Type
1	Assignment 1 Text 1	研究生 (yangjiusheng)	Addition	OB	Semantic
2	Assignment 1 Text 1	任务 (renwu)	Clarification	OB	Grammatical
3	Assignment 1 Text 1	专业实习 (zhuan yeshixi)	Clarification	OB	Grammatical
4	Assignment 1 Text 1	环节 (huanjie)	Clarification	OB	Grammatical
5	Assignment 1 Text 1	享受 (xiangshou)	Clarification	OB	Grammatical
6	Assignment 1 Text 1	“You” Perspective	Specification	OP	Pragmatic
7	Assignment 1 Text 1	Foregrounding 1	Foregrounding	OP	Syntactic
8	Assignment 1 Text 2	花盆 (huapen)	Clarification	OB	Grammatical
9	Assignment 1 Text 2	花 (hua)	Clarification	OB	Grammatical
10	Assignment 1 Text 2	Tense	Clarification	OB	Grammatical
11	Assignment 1 Text 2	年 (nian)	Specification	OB	Semantic

Table 3.8. Key Points from the 4 Assignments to Investigate Participants' Explicitation Patterns (continued)

Key Point	Text	Content	Procedure	OB/OP	Type
12	Assignment 1 Text 2	Subject "I"	Addition	OB	Syntactic
13	Assignment 1 Text 2	Foregrounding 2	Foregrounding	OP	Syntactic
14	Assignment 2	鹿回头公园 (Luhuitou Park)	Addition	OP	Semantic
15	Assignment 2	Inter-sentential Addition	Addition	OP	Semantic
16	Assignment 2	黎族 (Lizu)	Specification	OB	Lexical
17	Assignment 2	"you" perspective	Specification	OP	Pragmatic
18	Assignment 2	追逐 (Zhuizhu)	Clarification	OB	Grammatical
19	Assignment 2	Foregrounding 3	Foregrounding	OP	Syntactic
20	Assignment 3	中国土鳖 (zhongguo tubie)	Specification	OP	Lexical
21	Assignment 3	住旅馆 (zhu lvguan)	Addition	OB	Grammatical
22	Assignment 3	嗓子冒烟 (sangzi maoyan)	Clarification	OP	Semantic
23	Assignment 3	Foregrounding 4	Foregrounding	OP	Syntactic
24	Assignment 4	光棍节 (guanggu jie)	Clarification	OP	Semantic
25	Assignment 4	爱情告白 (aiqing gaobai)	Addition	OB	Grammatical
26	Assignment 4	相亲会 (xiangqinhui)	Clarification	OB	Grammatical
27	Assignment 4	四个 '1' (sige '1')	Specification	OP	Semantic
28	Assignment 4	成了 (cheng le)	Clarification	OB	Grammatical

A Qualitative Study: 6 Volunteers

To delve into the “mystery” of the translation process, 6 volunteers from the experimental group were recruited to provide the work they had done on three texts of the first two regular assignments, given that the frequencies of explicitation employed for them in the reference translations were the highest of the five texts as indicated in Table 2.6 in Chapter 2. They were required to do think-aloud protocols (TAPs) at the same time. In this way, the volunteers’ audio descriptions of their translating process were recorded, through which each volunteer’s thinking about problems encountered and decision-making concerning their resolution could be tracked. Interviews of the 6 volunteers followed after they had completed all the four assignments. These were semi-structured interviews based on the following questions:

- 1) *What if any difficulties or problems did you encounter when you were translating the four assignments? How did you tackle them?*
- 2) *What if anything have you learned from the Chinese-English Translation course?*
- 3) *How did you treat the translation brief for Assignment 1 and the other three assignments?*
- 4) *For Assignment 2, did you consider anything was missing or illogical in the source text?*
- 5) *For Assignment 3, what did you take into account when you translated such Chinese expressions as “中国土鳖 (a Chinese miser)”, “嗓子冒烟 (my throat comes to the edge of smoking)”, and “让我心头淌血 (which makes my heart*

bleed/ which gives me heartache)”?

- 6) *For Assignment 4, how did you decide on the translation of such Chinese expressions as “光棍节 (Singles’ Day)”, “因为这一天的日期有四个 ‘光棍’ 一样的 ‘1’ (as the date contains four “ones”, each of which is like a single person)” and ‘爱情告白日 (a day for confession of love)’?*
- 7) *In summary, what are your comments on the translation course this semester?*

Questions 1, 2, and 7 were general questions prompting the volunteers to sum up the problems or difficulties they encountered in translation and what they had learned from the course. Questions 3-6 were directed at volunteers’ reflections on each of the four translations one by one to ascertain how they had treated the translation brief and what they had taken into consideration when they translated the indicated expressions or sentences.

Chapter 4: Results

In this chapter I present data that reveal whether and how the qualities of faithfulness and smoothness of translation changed in the translation tasks performed by participants before and following an instructional intervention on explicitation as a translation strategy, and the extent to which participants attributed any such change to the intervention. These data relate to the first of two research questions that guided the study. In addition, I report participants' explicitation patterns that were revealed in their translations of the four regular assignments and that provide an evidence base for addressing the second of the research questions.

Data Display and Analysis for Research Question 1

Research Question 1 for the present study asked:

In what ways does a teaching design that incorporates an aim and skills to establish students' deliberate attention to explicitation as a procedural strategy improve their translation performances and their awareness of its application to address translation problems?

Based on this research question, data are presented in the following sections first in relation to participants' translation performances, and second in reporting participants' awareness of employing explicitation in Chinese-English translation.

Translation Performances

To determine whether there was significant improvement in translation performances in the experimental group in comparison with the control group after an explicit instruction of explicitation to the former, the scores of faithfulness, smoothness and the total for the pre-test and the post-test were compared. In the first place, to ensure the reliability of the results of the two tests, an inter-rater reliability analysis was done through testing the correlation of obtained scores on a sample of 20 participants

Quantitative data on inter-rater reliability.

Table 4.1 shows the mean, standard deviation, and standard error of the Faithfulness, Smoothness, and total scores given by the two independent raters for participants' pre-test and the post-test performances, and the paired sample correlation between the raters' scoring outcomes. As revealed in the data, the scores given by the two raters for the three parameters are significantly correlated (*Faithfulness: sig=.001; Smoothness: sig=.001; Total: sig=.001*).

Table 4.1. Scores from Two Independent Raters of Translation Performances in the Study

	Faithfulness				Smoothness			Total		
	n	Mean	s.d.	Standard error	Mean	s.d.	Standard error	Mean	s.d.	Standard error
Rater 1	20	63.80	3.07	0.69	62.30	3.54	0.79	63.20	3.12	0.70
Rater 2	20	63.25	3.00	0.67	62.65	4.00	0.89	63.25	3.12	0.74
Paired Sample Correlation (significance)	.90 (.001)				.90 (.001)			.90 (.001)		

Qualitative data on inter-rater reliability.

In marking the translated texts, raters scored on a 20-points scale for each of five segments of the translated text. The awarded mark was based on an assessment of the extent to which messages in the source text were conveyed faithfully and appropriately, and the extent to which the language used was smooth and readable. The following two sample target text translations show how the two raters awarded scores (shown in the square bracket at the end of each segment, the first for Faithfulness and the second for Smoothness).

Sample Target Text 1

[Segment 1] Lovers' Road, a fantastic senery in Zhuhai, is one of the most remarkable buildings of Zhuhai. Tourists never miss to visit there. [Rater 1: 12; 12; Rater 2: 12; 12]

Both raters agreed that in terms of Faithfulness, “one of the most remarkable buildings” is a word-for-word translation of the Chinese term of “标志性建筑之一” in the source text, which constitutes a logical mistake in the English target text, since a road cannot be regarded as a building. For Faithfulness for this segment, Rater 1 gave a score of 12 and Rater 2 one of 11. On the other hand, in terms of Smoothness, there are some lexical mistakes; “senery” is the misspelled form of “scenery” which is misused as a countable noun and “there” is misused as a pronoun to follow “visit”. Both raters gave a score of 12 for Smoothness.

[Segment 2] Along the sea side and from south to north, Lovers’ Road has 28 miles **length, which is divided into three main areas**: Xiangzhou, Jida and Gongbei. Gongbei is a custom port connected to **Macco**. [Rater 1: 15; 13; Rater 2: 15; 13]

In the translation of Segment 2, the original message is well conveyed, except that “areas” is used instead of a better term “districts”. That was why both raters gave an “Acceptable” score of 15 for Faithfulness. For Smoothness, there are mistakes in vocabulary, including “length”, which should be “in length” and “Macco” which should be spelled as “Macao”, and in syntax, “which is divided into three main areas...” is an attributive clause which should be used to modify “Lovers’ Road”, but it is not placed after “Lovers’ Road”. The raters both gave a “Passable” score of 13 for Smoothness.

[Segment 3] **West of Lovers’ Road** is surrounded by spectacular buildings and mountains, and **east of it** faces beautiful sea. Visitors get together here to enjoy the mighty sea and gaze at **Macco**. They are always unwilling to leave there **with free thinking of their lives**. [Rater 1: 14; 14; Rater 2: 14; 13]

In the translation of Segment 3, most messages in the source text can be seen as conveyed, although “with free thinking of their lives” at the end of this part is a translation close to “浮想连天” in the source text and could be expressed in a better way. Both raters gave an “Acceptable” grade of 14. With regard to Smoothness, the first sentence is syntactically awkward, and “Macco” is a spelling mistake. Rater 1 gave a grade of 14 and Rater 2 one of 13.

[Segment 4] The maiden sculpture of Zhuhai called “Yu Nv” is **a symbol building** of this road. There is a story about this sculpture. It is said that **the daughter of Sea Emperor** stands on the sea with **treasure jewels holding** in her hands, bringing hope and happiness to people of Zhuhai. [Rater 1: 12; 13; Rater 2: 11; 13]

Concerning Faithfulness in this translation segment, there are several inaccuracies. Firstly, the proper name “珠海渔女 (Zhuhai Fisher Girl Statue)” is not translated properly, even with a spelling mistake of “sulpture”. Secondly, a “sculpture” is regarded as “a symbol building”, which does not make sense in English. Thirdly, “the daughter of Sea Emperor” is mentioned abruptly and what it actually refers to is not clear. Given these inaccuracies, Rater 1 gave a score of 12 and Rater 2 one of 11. On the other hand, in terms of Smoothness, although there are some lexical mistakes, syntactically speaking, there are no serious mistakes, and both raters scored it at 13.

[Segment 5] In addition, Lovers’ Road is an important place for **Zhuhai’s** people to hold big events and has become a place of interest of **Zhuhai**, which is also called “The Great Wall” of **Zhuhai**. [Rater 1: 15; 15; Rater 2: 15; 15] (EPO32)

The Segment 5 translation conveys the original messages from the source text acceptably, so both raters gave a score of 15 for Faithfulness, although a veteran translator might think that a road is quite different from “the Great Wall” and the English target reader might wonder why the Lovers’ Road is called “the Great Wall in Zhuhai” (As can be seen in the reference translation, it is translated into “As there is the Great Wall in Beijing, so there is Lovers’ Road in Zhuhai”, which is an analogy that may explain the logic.) With regards to Smoothness, there are few mistakes except that “Zhuhai” is mentioned three times in this segment, which is a Chinese habitual way of repeating a noun in a text that is not the case in English. Both raters gave an “Acceptable” score of 15 for Smoothness.

In summary, Rater 1 gave a total score of 67.6 (Faithfulness=68; Smoothness=67) and Rater 2 one of 66.6 (Faithfulness=67; Smoothness=66).

Sample Target Text 2

[Segment 1] Dong’ao Island The **covering of forestry** in this island is 80% percent. It retains entirely original and natural ecological environment. And **on every hand was** a charming view of unique natural landscape. [Rater 1: 12; 12; Rater 2: 12; 13]

Both raters agreed that concerning Faithfulness in Segment 1, “the covering of forestry”, a translation of the Chinese term “森林覆盖率 (the forest coverage rate)”, is not accurate and the meaning of the last sentence is not clear cut, so they both gave a “Passable” grade of 12. With regard to Smoothness, syntactically speaking, the Segment 1 translation is not well structured with a juxtaposition of three sentences, which is a reflection of the Chinese way of syntactic progression. Moreover, it is not grammatically right to use the past tense in the last sentence, since it is an

introduction to an island and it is not indicated in the source text that it is about an event in the past. For Smoothness, the raters gave a “Passable” grade of 12 and 13 respectively.

[Segment 2] Dong’ao combines blue sky, white clouds, green hills and clear water all together. It has a beautiful country scene, with smoke curling upward. [Rater 1: 14; 16; Rater 2: 14; 16]

In terms of Faithfulness, the translation of Segment 2 is quite good, except that “with smoke curling upward” is a literal translation of “炊烟袅袅” in the source text and it would be better if the implied meaning of “quietness” could be explicitated. Both raters gave an “Acceptable” score of 14 for Faithfulness. As far as Smoothness is concerned, there is no grammatical mistake and the use of the absolute construction of “with...” creates syntactic diversity in English. That was why the raters gave a “Good” grade of 16.

[Segment 3] In the island, the most attractive scenic spot is sandbeach. There are three beaches, Southbay, Dazhu Bay and Xiaozhu Bay. The best one of them, Southbay, has the reputation of Diamond Beach, [Rater 13: 12; Rater 2: 13; 13]

For the translation of Segment 3, in terms of Faithfulness, the major problem lies in the second sentence in which “Southbay”, “Dazhu Bay” and Xiaozhu Bay” are used as the appositive of three beaches, but as bays are not equivalent to beaches, it constitutes a logical mistake. That was why both raters only gave a “Passable” score of 13. With regard to Smoothness, “sandbeach”, a word-for-word rendering of “沙滩” in Chinese, is not right in English and its singular or plural form is not indicated. The two raters both gave a “Passable” grade of 12 and 13 respectively.

[Segment 4] which is a rare vision in both Zhuhai downtown and its nearby islands. The sand here—is jade white, wide and gentle slop. [Rater 1: 12; 12; Rater 2: 12; 12]

In the Segment 4 translation, “a rare vision” is not appropriate to describe a beach and the meaning of the second sentence is not clear cut. So both raters gave a “Passable” score of 12 for Faithfulness. In terms of Smoothness, “slop (slope)” is a misspelling mistake and as a noun, its plural or singular form is not indicated; syntactically speaking, “wide and gentle slop” is a stretch of language without a connector and thus unable to convey the original meaning in the source text well. Therefore, for Faithfulness, the raters both gave a score of 12.

[Segment 5] And the primary tourism projects are surfing, diving and sailing. There also accommodation services on the island, where has an excellent cuisine—seafoods. [Rater 1: 14; 12; Rater 2: 14; 12] (EPO33)

As regards Faithfulness for Segment 5, the key factual messages of “surfing, diving and sailing”, “accommodation” and “seafood” are all conveyed, so it was given a score of 14 by both raters. For Smoothness, “tourism projects” is not the right diction to describe “surfing, diving and sailing”, “accommodation services” is not an accurate expression, and “where has an excellent cuisine...”, as an attributive clause, is not used in the right way. Given the mistakes, both raters only gave a score of 12 for Smoothness.

In short, for Sample Target Text 2, Rater 1 gave a total score of 64.6 (Faithfulness=65; Smoothness=64) and Rater 2 one of 65.4 (Faithfulness=65; Smoothness=66).

To sum up, the analysis of the scoring of the two sample target texts indicates that the two raters did the marking carefully and meticulously, their understandings of the grading mechanism were in line with each other and the grades they gave to each segment were close.

Quantitative data on participants' translation performances.

At pre-test, 51 test papers were collected from the experimental group and 56 from the control group, while in the post-test 52 and 58 test papers were collected. As three participants in the experimental group and six in the control group translated only 3 or 4 segments of the text either in the pre-test or the post-test, their test papers were excluded given that each segment was worth 20 points and a deduction of points in this regard might not reflect the participants' genuine competence in translation. Other participants whose test papers had to be excluded were those who completed the research task on only one of the test occasions. Following this attrition, the number of assessable test papers was 45 for the experimental group and 47 for the control group. For the scores of the pre-test and the post-test for both groups, please check Appendix 9.

In Table 4.2 results are presented of the test of homogeneity of variances of the three categories of the pre-test and post-test scores, namely for faithfulness, smoothness and total.

Table 4.2. Test of Homogeneity of Variances of the Pre-test and Post-test Scores

Scores	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig
F1 (Pre-test Faithfulness)	2.131	1	90	.148
S1 (Pre-test Smoothness)	.196	1	90	.659
T1(Pre-test Total Score)	1.322	1	90	.253
F2 (Post-test Faithfulness)	.708	1	90	.402
S2 (Post-test Smoothness)	.105	1	90	.747
T2 (Post-test Total Score)	.072	1	90	.789

In all cases the probability was significant ($\text{sig} > .05$), indicating that the homogeneity of variances is ensured and ANOVA could be tested.

Table 4.3 shows results of the paired samples test of the pre-test and the post-test scores of the two group in relation to faithfulness, smoothness and total scores.

Table 4.3. Paired Samples Test of the Pre-test and the Post-test of the Experimental and the Control Groups

Pair	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 F1 - F2 (EG)	-2.9333	3.8900	.5799	-4.1020	-1.7647	-5.059	44	.000
Pair 2 S1 - S2 (EG)	-2.9000	4.4487	.6632	-4.2365	-1.5635	-4.373	44	.000
Pair 3 T1 - T2 (EG)	-2.9200	3.9944	.5955	-4.1201	-1.7199	-4.904	44	.000
Pair 1 F1 - F2 (CG)	-1.5426	4.1688	.6081	-2.7665	-.3186	-2.537	46	.015
Pair 2 S1- S2 (CG)	-1.3404	4.8219	.7034	-2.7562	.0754	-1.906	46	.063
Pair 3 T1 - T2 (CG)	-1.4574	4.2914	.6260	-2.7174	-.1974	-2.328	46	.024

Note. F1= Pre-test Faithfulness; F2= Post-test Faithfulness; S1= Pre-test Smoothness; S2= Post-test Smoothness; T1= Pre-test Total; T2= Post-test Total.

For the experimental group, the post-test scores were significantly improved ($p < .05$) on all three variables. The control group's post-test scores on faithfulness and total were both significantly improved (faithfulness: $p < .05$; total: $p < .05$), whereas that for smoothness was not significantly improved (smoothness: $p > 0.05$).

In Table 4.4 the ANOVA outcome is presented for pre-test and post-test scores of the two groups indicating no differences between groups on pre-test. On the other hand, significant differences occurred in the post-test scores for smoothness ($F=5.124$; $p < .05$) and in the total ($F=3.964$; $p = .05$), whereas there were no significant differences in faithfulness ($F=2.817$; $p > .05$) between them.

Table 4.4. ANOVA of the Pre-test and the Post-test Scores of the Experimental and the Control Groups

Test Variable		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
F1 (Pre-test Faithfulness)	Between Groups	1.066	1	1.066	.055	.815
	Within Groups	1746.464	90	19.405		
	Total	1747.530	91			
S1 (Pre-test Smoothness)	Between Groups	1.798	1	1.798	.080	.778
	Within Groups	2029.993	90	22.555		
	Total	2031.791	91			
T1 (Pre-test Total)	Between Groups	.011	1	.011	.001	.982
	Within Groups	1795.438	90	19.949		
	Total	1795.449	91			
F2 (Post-test Faithfulness)	Between Groups	31.762	1	31.762	2.817	.097
	Within Groups	1014.695	90	11.274		
	Total	1046.457	91			
S2 (Post-test Smoothness)	Between Groups	77.768	1	77.768	5.124	.026
	Within Groups	1365.884	90	15.176		
	Total	1443.652	91			
T2 (Post-test Total)	Between Groups	47.733	1	47.733	3.964	.050
	Within Groups	1083.745	90	12.042		
	Total	1131.477	91			

Table 4.5 shows the value-levels of post-test total scores of the experimental and the control groups attributed by the raters. The maximum scores for the experimental group and the control group are 72.6 and 72 respectively, and none of the participants in the experimental group or the control group received an “Excellent” or “Good” score. The translation performances of the majority of the participants in both groups was “Passable” (EG=35; 77.78%; CG=38, 80.85%).

Table 4.5. Levels of Post-test Total Scores of the Experimental and the Control Groups

Group	n	Min.	Max.	N of Score Levels (Percent)				
				Excellent	Good	Acceptable	Passable	Failed
Experimental	45	58.2	72.6	0	0	7 (15.55%)	35 (77.78%)	3 (6.67%)
Control	47	56.8	72.0	0	0	2 (4.26%)	38 (80.85%)	7 (14.89%)

Note. Excellent: 100-90; Good: 89-80; Acceptable: 79-70; Passable: 69-60; Failed: 59-0. (A categorisation based on Changchunteng (2005))

Analysis of Pragmatic Explicitation in pre-test and post-test translations.

Both source texts for the pre-test and the post-test are a Chinese tourism text. The perspective of a Chinese tourism text is usually the third person, which creates a tone of objectivity without involving the reader. In contrast, in an English tourism text, the second person perspective is usually adopted to create a tone of closeness to the reader (Zhang & Hou, 2015). Thus, in translation of the two Chinese source texts, any shift from the third person perspective to the second person can be regarded as a case of specification with a pragmatic orientation towards the involvement of the target readership.

Unlike other types of explicitation, such as grammatical, lexical, and semantic explicitation, occurrences of such pragmatic explicitation are easily identified and countable. On the other hand, pragmatic explicitation as a macro-strategy involves a higher level of thinking and decision-making. Consequently, it merits greater effort to investigate whether those in the experimental group made any post-intervention

improvement in their employment of this type of explicitation, when compared with their peers in the control group.

In Table 4.6 the frequencies of pragmatic explicitation employed by the participants in the experimental group and the control group are presented. It reveals that on the pre-test, nine of the 45 participants in the experimental group, and eight in the control group, used pragmatic explicitation in their translations. The comparison changed for post-test performances where 17 of the experimental group and nine of the control group did so. That is to say, although there was not much improvement in the employment of pragmatic explicitation in the control group after learning the customary Chinese-English Translation course for nine weeks, there was a sharp increase in numbers of participants in the experimental group in this regard after the intervention of an explicit instruction on explicitation.

Table 4.6. Frequencies of Pragmatic Explicitation in the Pre-test and the Post-test

Group	n	Pre-test		Post-test	
		No. of Cases	Rate	No. of Cases	Rate
Experimental	45	9	20%	17	37.78%
Control	47	8	17.02%	9	19.15%

Awareness

The extent to which participants were aware of the employment of explicitation is presented below.

Open-ended questions.

In the subsequent questionnaires delivered to the participants in both the experimental group and the control group in the pre-test and the post-test after the translation tasks were completed, the following three open-ended questions were asked, with an aim to find out whether there were changes in the participants' understanding and awareness of explicitation. The participants were allowed to write their answers either in English or in Chinese and were told that if they knew nothing about “显化(explicitation)”, they could choose not to answer the questions. Based on the three questions, the findings are as follows.

Question 1: Define explicitation.

● Pre-test performances across the groups

Twenty-four of the 45 participants in the experimental group, accounting for 53.33%, and 26 of the 47 in the control group, accounting for 55.32%, either did not write down any answer for the definition question or wrote that they had never heard of the concept of explicitation.

Of those who attempted a definition, only one participant in each group mentioned explicitation as a translation technique or method. Some defined explicitation in ways probably based on their interpretation of the Chinese term “显

化”, which literally means “making something clear”. They used “clear” or “clearly” in their definitions in English, or such words in their definitions in Chinese as “清晰 (*qingxi*, clear)”, “清楚 (*qingchu*, clear)”, “明显 (*mingxian*, clear or evident)”, and “明白 (*mingbai*; clear or obvious)”, all of which connote “clear”. All these data are provided in Appendix 10 and some typical definitions are shown below with translation provided if they were given in Chinese:

- 1) “把语言里隐含的意思清晰化、明朗化。(To make the meaning implied in the language clear and obvious)” (Participant E51)
- 2) “使译文意思清晰, 通俗易懂。(To make the meaning clear and easy to understand in the target text.)” (Participant E28)
- 3) “显化是指在翻译时, 将源语中隐含的内容显现出来, 在译成目标语时将其说明或表达清楚。(Explication means that in translation, the content implied in the source language is explained or expressed clearly.)” (Participant E33)
- 4) “To make a word or phrase or sentence’s meaning clear.” (Participant E18)
- 5) “[E]xplicitation make[s] it more transparent and clear to give an idea; it help[s] people understand the idea well through its expression.” (Participant C28)
- 6) “表达清楚明了。(To express clearly and obviously.)” (Participant E15)
- 7) “使句子的意义表达得更清楚。(To express the meanings of sentences more clearly.)” (Participant C40)
- 8) “将意思更明白清楚[地]表达出来。(To express meanings more clearly and obviously.)” (Participant C60)

Other participants mentioned *addition* in their definitions, which indicates that they might have identified the relevance between explication and addition/amplification, a translation technique they had opportunity to learn in their

English-Chinese class in the previous semester, although the former concept was new to them. Some definitions typical in this regard were as follows:

- 1) “The translator **adds** some phrase[s] or words to make the readers understand easily” (Participant E45)
- 2) “将原文所隐含的意义，明确、清晰地写在译文中，有时需要译者**增加**原文中所没有的成分，帮助译语读者理解译文所表达[的]含义或文化背景知识。(To definitely and clearly write in the target text the implied meaning in the source text; sometimes the translator needs to **add** some elements which are not in the source text, thus helping the target reader understand the meaning or culture-related background knowledge.)” (Participant E40)
- 3) “It means you need to understand exactly what it means and try to use another language to translate it in an obvious and correct way. So you need to **add** some words or sentence structure to help you translate it.” (Participant E32)
- 4) “一些原文中忽视的成分在翻到目标语言的时候要写出来，例如：主语、谓语。(Some elements [omitted] in the source text need to **be added**, such as the subject and the predicate.)” (Participant E17)
- 5) “具体化，在原文的基础上加解释。(It refers to specification, i.e., **adding** explanations based on the source text.” (Participant E11)
- 6) “指我们在翻译的过程中通过增补一些词语，如形容词短语、名词短语等，使译文更加具有可读性，更符合地道的母语表达。(It means by adding some [phrases] such as adjective or noun phrases in translation, the target text is more readable, idiomatic and native-like.)” (Participant E02)
- 7) “将句子中隐含的主语、逻辑关系等信息在翻译时增加出来。(To **add** the subject, logical ties or other information implied in sentences.)” (Participant C29)

On the other hand, some had taken a target-reader perspective in their definitions. For example,

- 1) “Explicitation is to express the whole information behind the text which is clearly for native speaker[s], but not for second language learners.” (Participant E37)
- 2) “In my view, explicitation means emphasize on the difference. And the author want to catch readers’ attention for some reasons.” (Participant E50)

- 3) 将原文中所隐藏的信息在译成目标语中体现出来，使其方便读者理解。(To present in the target [text] the hidden information in the source text, so as to facilitate the reader's understanding.)" (Participant E13)

Generally, most participants across both groups had not given a proper or all-sided definition. The following are some examples:

- 1) 显化是在英语翻译中，你需要提供的信息，你想要表达的意思，在句子中显化出来。(Explicitation means in English translation, you explicitate the information you need to provide and the meaning you want to express.) (Participant E20)
- 2) “通过改变源语(部分的)词性或突显源语词语功能而在译语中适当体现，以求译语自然、通顺、灵活。(By converting the parts of speech in some parts of the source text or by highlighting the functions of words in the source text, natural, smooth, flexible target texts are produced.)” (Participant E53)
- 3) “Explicitation is to express the whole information behind the text which is clearly [clear] for native speaker[s], but not for second language learners.” (Participant E37)
- 4) “显化即在表达过程中，能一眼识出词性，并理解出作者的意思，例如，英语中的后缀-ed, -ly 等这些便是显化的过程。(Explicitation means in the process of reproduction, [the translator] can identify the part of speech and understand the author's meaning at one glance, for example, [identifying] such suffixes as “-ed” and “-ly” is a process of explicitation.)” (Participant E47)
- 5) “英语的句法比较显化，体现在词语的词性-tion, -er, -logy。(English syntax is more explicit, which can be exemplified in the suffixes such as -tion, -er and -logy to indicate the part of speech of a word.)” (Participant C52)
- 6) “显化是英文行文的特点.....是指英文文本中文本意思清晰、准确、无歧义的表达方式，与中文相比，中文则显得模糊、写意。(Explicitation is a feature of English writing; it refers to clear, accurate, unambiguous expressions in the English text in contrast to Chinese which is ambiguous and paratactic.)” (Participant C31)

In the previous list, the writer of the first item has used “explicitate” to define “explicitation”, which means the term was not defined at all. The second example has much to do with the translation technique of conversion of the part of speech, rather than with explicitation. The writer of the third item incorrectly regarded “second

language learners” as the readership of a target text. While the fourth item mentions “In the process of reproduction”, the participant seems to have considered explicitation as a procedure in the step of comprehension, but in fact it is a technique employed in reproduction of source content that acts to evoke comprehension. The fifth and sixth examples suggest their writers had assumed that explicitation is a linguistic feature rather than a strategic technique or procedure.

In summary, an analysis of the participants’ pre-test answers to Open-ended Question 1 revealed that few defined explicitation well. Only one in each group pointed out that explicitation is a technique or method, and participants in both groups gave definitions based either on their interpretation of the Chinese term “显化”, reflecting their previous knowledge of addition, or on their understanding of a specific feature in translation which was insufficient in explaining explicitation.

- **Post-test performances by those in the control group**

Twenty-five of the 47 participants (53.19%) in the control group in the post-test, in comparison to 26 (55.32%) in the pre-test, did not write an answer or stated that they had never heard of the concept of explicitation in response to the definitional probe question. Moreover, 21 of the 25 post-test “non-responders” or “never heard of it- responders” had repeated their pre-test performance. Of the remaining 22 responders, again several defined explicitation in ways reflecting their interpretation of the Chinese term “显化”. For example,

- 1) “‘显化’就是翻译的明显，让读者能够一读就明白作者想要表达什么，由此译者就需要将译文翻译得尽量明白和浅显。(Explicitation refers to clarity in translation, which means the reader can make sense of what the author wants to express as

soon as they read the text. Therefore, the translator needs to make sure he or she will produce the clear and simple target text.)” (Participant C30)

- 2) “译者在翻译过程中增添解释性的词语或增加连接词,从而让读者更好地理解目标文本所传达的含义。([Explicitation means that the translator adds explanative words or connectors so that the reader can better understand the meaning the target text conveys.” (Participant C37)

Other participants who had explained explicitation did so indicating its association with amplification/addition, a translation technique they had met in a previous course and re-visited in the current semester from the perspective of Chinese-English translation, or with other translation knowledge they acquired in the current course, such as the concepts of parataxis and hypotaxis. The two examples following are typical:

- 1) “显化即在译文中添加一些解释性的词和句子,使译文更加清晰明了,有点类似于 Amplification。 (Explicitation means that in the target text, some explanative words or sentences are added to make it clear and obvious; it is somewhat similar to Amplification.)” (Participant C28)
- 2) “由于汉语是意合语言,英语是形合语言,所以在[汉译英]的过程中,要把汉语比较笼统的概念翻译为比较具体、明确的语言,这一过程为“显化”。(Because Chinese is a paratactic language while English is a hypotactic language, general concepts in Chinese should be translated into specific, definite ones in English. This process is called “explicitation”.)” (Participant C44)

In summary, as explicitation has not been taught to the control group, no significant differences were detected in their definitions of explicitation between the pre-test and the post-test. In other words, generally participants in the control group performed in much the same way as they had on the pre-test occasion

● **Post-test performances by those in the experimental group**

All 45 participants in the experimental group answered the definitional question at the post-test. Unlike the pre-test data where most in both groups who had

answered had given only brief explanations in defining explicitation, 17 participants (37.78%) of the experimental group at post-testing wrote elaborate definitions that addressed the multifarious features of explicitation. For example,

1) “通过增补、阐述、突显、具体化的方法使译文在语法、词汇、语用、语义、句法方面符合译语[规范], 使译语读者能够清晰地理解原文所表达的意思。(By means of addition, clarification, foregrounding, and specification, the target text is produced with conformity to the norms of the target language in terms of grammar, vocabulary, pragmatics, semantics, and syntax, so that the target reader can clearly understand the meanings the source text intends to convey.)” (Participant E40)

In this example, the answer mentions the four procedures of explicitation and possible types of explicitation.

2) “显化是对原文背景知识、宏观信息、隐含信息的解读后加以阐释说明。原文缺乏主语或语义有歧义时通过增词, 增添信息, 使译文完整明白。(Explicitation means that background knowledge, macro information, and implied information in the source text are interpreted and then clarified and explained [in the target text]; when there is no subject in the source text or the meaning is ambiguous, words or information can be added to make the target text complete and clear.)” (Participant E31)

Here the answer points out three types of knowledge or information that needs to be made clear through interpretation, clarification and explanation.

3) “显化分为必须要进行的显化和不是必须的显化。显化是一种翻译技巧。必须要进行的显化包括 lexical, syntactic, grammatical 等, 涉及补充主语, 添加连词、介词、时态、语态和[第三人称单数], 即是把中文的意合转化为英语的形合, 这样的显化是必须的。如果不进行这样的显化就会造成语法错误。而不是必须的显化包括 semantic 和 pragmatic, 如果没有进行显化也不会造成特别大的语法错误, 但是显化之后能使阅读更流畅易懂。(Explicitation, as a translation technique, can be categorised into obligatory and optional explicitation. Obligatory explicitation includes lexical, syntactic, grammatical, etc.; it involves adding subjects, conjunctions, tenses, the voice, and the third person singular, i.e., converting Chinese parataxis to English hypotaxis. Such explicitation is obligatory in that if it is not employed, there will be grammatical mistakes. On the other hand, optional explicitation includes semantic and pragmatic; if such explicitation is not employed, there will be no big grammatical

mistakes, but if it is employed, the text is more readable, smoother, and easier to understand.)” (Participant E19)

The participant in Example 3 has illustrated how to distinguish between obligatory and optional explicitation and covers the various types of explicitation.

In summary, after the teaching of explicitation to the participants of the experimental group, all participants, in contrast to 21 out of the 45 participants, wrote an answer to Open-ended Question 1 and more importantly. Although most participants wrote a brief definition, 17, accounting for 37.78%, defined explicitation in an elaborate way, which reveals their better understanding of explicitation as a multifarious concept.

Question 2: How does explicitation help in Chinese-English translation?

● Pre-test performances across the groups

As found in data from pre-test responses to the first question, similar proportions of participants (26 of the 45 (57.78%) in the experimental group and 26 of 47 (55.32%) in the control group) either made no response to Question 2 or stated that they had not heard of the concept of explicitation. Similarly, of those who did respond (19 participants in the experimental group and 21 in the control group), many based their answers on their perception of “clarity” connoted in the Chinese term “显化” and used those words related to “clarity” such as “clear”, and “clearly” as shown in Appendix 10 and exemplified in the following samples that follow:

- 1) “帮助译语读者理解译文内容, 使译文**明晰**、通顺、逻辑正确。(It helps the target reader understand the content of the target text and makes the target text clear, smooth and logically correct.)” (Participant E40)

- 2) “可以使目标语更充分表达原语信息，使目标语读者清晰理解原语语言所要传达的内容。(It enables the target text to express the source information more fully and the target reader to **clearly** understand the content the source text intends to convey.” (Participant C43)
- 3) “显化能让译文更加清楚表明原文的真正意思。(Explicitation enables the target text to express the real meaning of the source text **more clearly**.)” (Participant E51)
- 4) “I think that explicitation can help readers to understand the meaning of original text easily and **clearly**.” (Participant C37)

Others who responded on the basis of advantages they saw in employing explicitation as an enabler in relation to what they already knew of translation techniques. For example,

- 1) “显化若运用得体，课使译文更自然流畅，为译语读者提供便利与亲切感，一定程度上可以大幅度改变 Chinglish 的现象。(If explicitation is properly employed, it will make the target text more natural and smoother, provide the target reader convenience and a sense of familiarity and to some extent help greatly reduce Chinglish.)” (Participant E53)
- 2) “能够更好地实现语言转化，使句子通顺，能够被另一语言的人理解，因为每个语言的习惯不同。(It can make linguistic conversion possible, produce smooth sentences and make it understood by people who use another language, since there are differences in habitual use between any two languages.)” (Participant E17)

Although many participants mentioned “culture”, it was limited as without the needed additional information the concept could be either too general as culture is an issue translation itself involves, or one-sided, since explicitation is a broad concept that involves many other aspects, such as semantics, syntax and pragmatics. Here are some samples of answers:

- 1) “帮助读者更好地理解全文，有利于文化之间的交流。 ([It] helps the reader understand the whole text better and facilitates communication between cultures.)” (Participant E44)

- 2) “使不同文化背景或不在同一语境下的读者更容易理解。([It] enables [target] readers in a different context or cultural background to understand [the target text] better.)” (Participant C06)
- 3) “可以更好地使其翻译转换后,让读者在一定文化背景中理解翻译过来的意思。([It] can help the [target] reader in a specific cultural background better understand what has been shifted in the translation.)” (Participant C21)
- 4) “有助于外语读者更加贴切地了解原文文化。([It] helps the foreigner reader more accurately understand culture of the source text.” (CPR26)
- 5) “跨越文化差异,更好让读者理解。([It] bridges cultural gap to facilitate the target reader’s understanding.)” (Participant C34)

Similarly, other answers had limited specificity concerning help that using explicitation would provide in translating. For example,

- 1) “It can make reader understand the books when they read the foreign books or information.” (Participant E40)
- 2) “可以帮助我们读懂作者的意思,无需过多的推敲。有助于节省翻译的时间以及准确翻译原文的内容。(It can help us understand the author’s meaning without too much deliberation, save translation time and accurately translate the content of the source text.)” (Participant E47)

The two examples above mistake explicitation, a technique in reproduction of known meaning from a source text, for a technique in reading or in the step of understanding the source text.

Other participants answered from their knowledge of differences between Chinese and English, which probably had been acquired in the English-Chinese Translation course in the previous semester. In the following examples, “parataxis”, “hypotaxis”, “concreteness” and “abstractness”, appear as key concepts to discuss differences between English and Chinese. These are important content areas introduced in the earlier English-Chinese Translation course.

- 1) “显化使汉英翻译形化意合，使英文翻译突出中文逻辑。(Explicitation means that in Chinese-English translation, parataxis is converted into hypotaxis and Chinese logic is highlighted in the English target text.)” (Participant C51)
- 2) “因为英语本身就比中文更需要具体化而不是抽象化，所以显化更符合汉译英的译法。(Because unlike Chinese, English is characterized by concreteness rather than abstractness, explicitation is more suitable for Chinese-English translation.)” (Participant C54)

In summary, participants’ pre-test answers to the Open-ended Question on advantages in using explicitation indicates that in both experimental and the control groups, they had most often discussed the advantages based on their perception of “clarity” connoted in the Chinese term “显化”，or on an association they had made with previous knowledge of translation or differences between Chinese and English.

- **Post-test performances by those in the control group**

Twenty-five of the 47 participants (53.19%) in the control group in the post-test, in comparison to 26 (55.32%) in the pre-test, either did not answer Question 2 or in doing so stated that they had never heard of the concept of explicitation. Moreover, 21 of the 25 post-test “non-responders” or “never heard of it- responders” had repeated their pre-test performance. Of the remaining 22 responders, some answered in much the same way as they had to the first question, framing their notions of how explicitation helped in translation around their definition where they had relied on the connotation of “clarity” in the Chinese term “显化”. For example,

- 1) “显化可以使汉语中的蕴含意义更为具体、**清晰**地传达给译文（英文）读者。(Explicitation can help specifically and **clearly** convey the implied meaning in

Chinese to the English target reader.)” (Participant C31). This participant’s answer to the first question had been: “The explicitation is a kind of translation technique implicated in the process of Chinese to English. The aim of it is to make the Chinese context **clear** and specific in English version.”

- 2) “显化使译语读者**更加明白**译作的意义.....(Explicitation enables the target reader to understand the meaning of the target text more **clearly**...)” (Participant C60). This participant’s answer to the first question had been: “将意思**更明白清楚**表达出来。(To express the meaning in a **clearer**, more obvious way. ”)

Other participants still discussed the significance of explicitation based on their knowledge of translation, particularly differences between English and Chinese. For example,

- 1) “在汉英翻译中，汉语为意合语言，英语为形合语言，显化则将汉语中的逻辑意象用英语更具体的表达。(In Chinese-English translation, as Chinese is a paratactic language while English is a hypotactic language, explicitation is employed to change the Chinese logic and imagery into concrete expressions in English.)” (Participant C51)
- 2) “因为汉语和英文在某些方面有很大的区别，比如意[合]和形合，译者就应该将不同文化承载的内涵和文化缺失的部分通过加词、阐释等方法显化表达。(Because there are striking differences, e.g., parataxis vs hypotaxis, between Chinese and English, the translator should explicitly express the implied meaning connoted in a different culture and the missing cultural part by adding words, explaining and other means.)” (Participant C16)

Like what they had done in the pre-test, some participants discussed the advantages of explicitation in very general ways that clouded any specific meaning they might otherwise have had of explicitation beneath translation as the bigger concept or as a technique in comprehension of the source text. For example,

- 1) “可以使汉英两种语言的差异问题得到最大化的转换，更便于英语读者理解原文，最大化的避免因文化障碍造成的误解。(Explicitation can convert the differences between Chinese and English, to facilitate the English reader’s understanding of the source text and avoid misunderstanding caused by cultural barriers.)” (Participant C44)

2) “有助于译者更好的消化原文及读者更好的理解原文。([Explicitation] helps the translator better digest the source text and the reader better understand the source text.)” (Participant C19)

In summary, no significant differences were found in control group participants’ pre-test and post-test answers on what they saw as the advantages of explicitation in translating.

● Post-test performances by those in the experimental group

Of the 45 participants in the experimental group, 44 (97.78%) wrote a post-test answer to Question 2 on the advantages of employing explicitation. This contrasted the 26 participants who had done so at pre-test. Further, those who had answered at the pre-test typically had provided a brief response. In comparison, post-test answers were more elaborate, some reflecting the perspective of explicitation assisting to reveal language and culture, others providing lists of advantages (See Appendix 10).

For example,

- 1) “使读者阅读译文时在语言和文化两方面都更好地理解译文，减少文章在翻译过程中带来的误解，减少译文的‘翻译味道’，让读者更好地接收文中的内容和意义。(Explicitation enables [target] readers to better understand the target text in terms of language and culture; it reduces the misunderstanding in the translating process and “translationese” in the target text, thus enabling target readers to better accept the content and meaning in the [target] text.)” (Participant E03)
- 2) “显化能使汉英翻译中由于一些语言上、文化上的差异得到消除，汉语中许多表达，如果直接翻译会使得读者不了解，或者读不懂，显化使得意思更加到位。(In Chinese-English translation, explicitation helps eliminate differences in terms language and culture; quite some expressions in Chinese, if translated literally, cannot be understood by the [target] reader; [in this case,] explicitation ensures a better conveyance of meaning.)” (Participant E29)
- 3) “①让译文的表达更清楚；②突显源语言隐含的信息；③减少由于文化差异带来的理解问题。(①[It] makes [meanings] more clearly expressed in the target text; ② [It] highlights the implied meaning in the source text; ③ [It] reduces problems in understanding resulting from cultural differences.)” (Participant E11)

Several participants in the experimental group in the post-test now mentioned “grammar”, a connection that had not been found in answers from either experimental or control group respondents at pre-test, or from those in the control at post-test. This probably was due to the teaching of “grammatical explicitation” and “obligatory explicitation” to the experimental group. The following are some examples:

- 1) “可以使目标读者更了解译文。了解不同文化的差异，显化在某一种程度上也可以了解正确使用英语语法。([Explicitation] enables the target reader to better understand the target text and cultural differences; it to some extent enables [students] to know how to use English **grammar** correctly.)” (Participant E16)
- 2) “有助于读者明白译文，显化也有助于使意思表达完整，以及对语法，意思表达上更精确。([Explicitation] helps the [target] reader understand the target text, and ensure completeness in the expression of meaning and accuracy in **grammar** and the conveyance of meaning.)” (Participant E47)
- 3) “可以帮助读者更好的理解，因为中文和英文，语法、文化、习惯有很大不同，显化可以在忠实原文的基础上，让翻译更好理解。([Explicitation] helps reader achieve better understanding. Because there are striking differences in grammar, culture, and habit between Chinese and English, explicitation ensures better understanding on the basis of faithfulness to the source text.)” (Participant E52)
- 4) “使得译文更符合英语表达和语法，能够使读者对文中内容有更好的理解。([Explicitation] ensures conformity to English ways of expression and **grammar**, thus enabling the [target reader] to better understand the content in the [target] text.)” (Participant E54)

In summary, as had occurred with data for responses to Question 1, there was a large increase in numbers of participants who answered the second question at post-test and they did so in a more elegant way suggesting their better understanding of explicitation as an advantageous translation technique.

Question 3: Can you use explicitation skilfully in Chinese-English translation (If you can, please illustrate how you use it)?

● **Pre-test performances across the groups**

Twenty-six of the 45 participants (57.78%) in the experimental group did not give any answer to the third question at pre-test. All others of the remaining 19 participants gave an answer that they could not use explicitation in Chinese-English translation skilfully. On the other hand, of the 47 participants in the control group, 26 did not answer and 19 of 21 participants who did answer stated that they could not use explicitation in Chinese-English translation skilfully.

The other two gave the following answers:

- 1) “简单的一些可以，比如逻辑关系，e.g. ‘你不来，我就走。If you do not come, I will go.’ (If it is easy, I can use explicitation, for example [with regard to] the logical tie. E.g. ‘你不来，我就走’ can be translated into ‘If you do not come, I will go’.)” (Participant C29)
- 2) “有时可以，有时不可以，取决于我对句子理解的程度。(Sometimes I can [use explicitation] and sometimes I can't; it depends on how much I understand the sentence.)” (Participant C06)

Sample Answer 1 indicates that the participant believed he or she knew to add the cohesive tie in Chinese-English translation. In contrast, Sample Answer 2 does not contain detail suggesting that the participant could explain the basis for his or her competence in using explicitation.

In summary, at pre-test, all in the experimental group and the majority of those in the control group had indicated insufficient competence in using explicitation skilfully.

- **Post-test performances by those in the control group**

Twenty-five of the 47 participants (53.19%) in the control group did not give any post-test answer to the question. Only one of the remaining 32 participants stated that he or she was competent in using explicitation and another wrote that his or her competence in using explicitation was somewhat good. Thirty of those in the group considered they were not competent to use explicitation in Chinese-English translation skilfully.

- **Post-test performances by those in the experimental group**

Six of the 45 participants in the experimental group did not answer Question 3 at post-test. Of the remaining 39 participants who did answer, only 8 were confident that they could use explicitation skilfully. The rest stated either that they could not use it skilfully in Chinese-English translation or that their competence in using it was still forming. While most participants did not give an affirmative answer to Question 3, several answers suggest a respectable understanding of explicitation. For example,

- 1) “我能使用一些显化，但不够娴熟。适当增加主语，改变时态，将模棱两可的内容说清楚。(I can use some explicitation, but not skilfully enough, [such as] adding the subject, changing the tense, and stating some ambiguous content clearly.)” (Participant C42)
- 2) “一般般。一般比较会使用语法、句法、词义、语用的显化。(So-so. Usually [I can] use pragmatic, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic explicitation.)” (Participant C51)
- 3) “一般。缺主语是要增加主语，使译文句子结构完整。有时可以通过更换主语使译文更通顺，更具有逻辑性。(So-so. When there is no subject, it should be added to ensure syntactic completeness. Sometimes the subject can be changed to ensure better smoothness and logicity in the target text.)” (Participant C28)

On the other hand, some participants expressed their uncertainty at this point in using explicitation or some sub-types of explicitation. For example,

- 1) “不是很熟练使用显化。虽然在翻译中会努力将自己的注意力更多放在显化上，但有时候会分不清楚该用哪种技巧（或不确定哪一种更合适）去翻译。（I cannot use explicitation skilfully. Although I think much about explicitation in translation, sometimes I am not sure which technique should be used or which technique is more suitable.）” (Participant E31)
- 2) “有显化的意识，但还不能很熟练的应用，基本语法还比较薄弱。（[I] have an awareness of explicitation, but cannot used it skilfully and [I] am still poor at basic grammar.）” (Participant E53)
- 3) “What challenges me is the procedure of clarification. To be honest, I’m not good at figuring out what authors want to imply [the author implies].” (Participant E50)
- 4) “事实上，我仍对单复数时态有些疑惑。（In fact, I am still somewhat uncertain of the plural or singular form [of a noun] and the tense.）” (Participant E16)

In summary, only 8 of the 45 participants were confident that they could use explicitation skilfully in Chinese-English translation. The majority, while demonstrating a reasonable awareness and understanding of explicitation, were not yet ready to claim that they were competent users of explicitation in their translating.

Translation journals.

● **Data from the Control Group**

Given that participants’ journals for the last translation task might better reveal their understanding of translation at the final stage of the course, those for Assignment 4 (the last of the four assignments with the text of “Singles’ Day”)

was selected and tagged in Qualitative Coder to identify patterns in participants' discussions of explicitation or of translation techniques employed in this translation task.

Participants' discussions were categorised into four types "Only Amplification Mentioned (OAM)", "Amplification & Other Techniques Mentioned (AMOT)", "No Amplification but Other Techniques Mentioned (NAOT) and "No Techniques Mentioned (NTM)". As amplification is a notion similar to explicitation, it was chosen as the focus of analysis.

In Table 4.7 frequencies are shown of participants' journal discussion of any translation techniques. Twenty-eight participants (OAM=5; AOTM=24) specified amplification in their illustrations of translation techniques used in their translation journals. This accounted for 51.85% of the group (OAM=9.26%; AOTM=42.59%).

Table 4.7. Frequencies of Participants' Discussions of Translation Techniques in the Control Group

Type	Frequency	Rate
Only Amplification Mentioned (OAM)	5	9.26%
Amplification and Other Techniques Mentioned (AOTM)	23	42.59%
No Amplification but Other Techniques Mentioned (NAOT)	11	20.37%
No Techniques Mentioned (NTM)	15	27.78%
Total	54	100%

Key words used by control group participants in their discussions of amplification employed in their translations of Assignment 4 are shown in Table 4.8. As the participants were allowed to write their translation journals either in English or in Chinese, some tagged key words are in English, while others are in Chinese; those Chinese key words are provided with bracketed English translations. As indicated in Table 4.8, 14 of the 28 participants who mentioned amplification talked about addition of words or elements, such as conjunctions, the subject, and connectives; two participants stated that they added their explanations or interpretations of the message. On the other hand, 11 participants mentioned amplification either without examples, or with an example that was not a case of amplification. These data indicate that those in the control group typically perceived amplification as a technique to address the linguistic or semantic dimension in their translation.

Table 4.8. Tagged Key Words Related to Discussions of Amplification in the Control Group

No.	Category	Freq.	Tagged Key Words
1	Addition of Words or Elements	14	<p>增词，将缺失的动作主语补全(amplification, supplementing the subject of the verb) (1)</p> <p>增补主语(addition of the subject) (1)</p> <p>增补连词(addition of a conjunction) (1)</p> <p>增加连词(addition of a conjunction) (1)</p> <p>“增译法“，增加了”however“一词 (amplification, “however” is added) (1)</p> <p>增添了 “in a year” (“in a year” is added) (1)</p> <p>增加连词和所缺内容 (addition conjunctions and what is missing) (1)</p> <p>I added “ to purchase” to make the meaning integrated (1)</p> <p>Amplification: Subjects such as “it” “those” (1)</p> <p>Addition is also used in it, like “since” (1)</p> <p>I also add some connected words which make it more connected between sentences, such as “therefore, in occasion that, in addition” (1)</p> <p>增补法，例如在 only 后面加了 love (amplification, e.g. “love” is added after “only”) (1)</p> <p>文中并无体现关系词，于是翻译的时候我使用关系词承接了上下文 (In the source text, there are no connectives, so when I was translating, I used connectives to link some co-texts) (1)</p> <p>补充了动词 (a verb was added) (1)</p>
2	Addition of Explanations	2	<p>补充了商家光棍节促销的原因" with the purpose of 'comfort' the singles" ([I] added the reason why the businessmen hold sales promotions “with the purpose of) (1)</p> <p>I add the extra translation for the missing part. such as my explanation of the symbol of number ‘1’ (1)</p>
3	No Examples Provided or Wrong Examples	12	<p>增译法 (amplification) (4)</p> <p>amplification (4)</p> <p>增加成分 (addition of elements) (1)</p> <p>So I added the reason why business would like to holding promotional activities. (1)</p> <p>用了一点点增译法 (a little amplification was used) (1)</p> <p>Amplification, in second sentence, when translated this part, the source text just said ‘四个光棍一样的 1’ that will confused some foreigners, what is a ‘光棍’. So I translated ‘just as four single people’ (1)</p>

- **Data from the Experimental Group**

Participants in the experimental group wrote a translation journal after completing their translation assignments, with guidance provided through three questions about explicitation, a notion similar to amplification, but with greater breadth: 1) types of grammatical, lexical, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic explicitation; 2) obligatory and optional explicitation; and 3) the four strategic procedures of addition, clarification, foregrounding, and specification.

With the guidance of these three questions, most in the experimental group wrote meticulous, elaborate journals. Two concepts were common - grammatical explicitation and foregrounding, neither of which appeared in any of the translation journals written by the control group.

- 1) Grammatical explicitation**

Twenty-eight of 43 participants in the experimental group mentioned or illustrated grammatical explicitation that they had employed in their translation of Assignment 4. Of these, 16 illustrated a consideration of tense in English, 7 others explained how they treated the singular or plural form of nouns in English, 3 mentioned their awareness of the third person singular in English, and 2 (talked about the conversion of voice. Collectively, these responses indicate that over half of the participants in the experimental group had mentioned specific grammatical rules that might constitute “blind spots” for Chinese learners of English as they are features of the Chinese language.

Table 4.9. Tagged Texts of Grammatical Explicitation in Translation Journals of the Experimental Group

No	Category	Freq.	Tagged Text
1	Singular or Plural	7	<p>1. 原文中“消费者”并没有明确单复数，根据汉语思维我们可以知道文中的消费者是复数，所以译文中“consumers”使用复数形态。(In the source text, no definite singular or plural form is indicated in “消费者 consumer”. Based on a consideration of the Chinese text, we can know, it is the plural form, so in the target text, “consumers” is used.) (1)</p> <p>2. 在翻译时我很注意语法上单复数的使用，比如“the date is comprised of four“ones” (In translation, I paid close attention to the use of the singular or the plural form, e.g. “the date is comprised of four‘ones’”) (1)</p> <p>3. 中文中“四个光棍一样的 1”，没有复数概念，但是在翻译成英文时，要加上复数。(In the Chinese text, “四个光棍一样的 1 (four 1 like bachelor), no plural forms are indicated, but when it is translated into English, the plural form should be added.) (1)</p> <p>4. 因为在英语中有单复数的区别所以在翻译的过程中需要保持性数的一致。而且根据英语的语法，在翻译节假日的时候，有 DAY 的前面不能加定冠词 The。(Because the singular and plural forms are distinguished, in translation, the form should be consistent. Besides, according to English grammar, when DAY is used to refer to a holiday, the definite “the” should not be added.) (1)</p> <p>...</p>
2	Third Person Singular	3	<p>5. 语法上的显化有:“is”11 月 11 日这是个单数概念要显化出来 (Grammatical explicitation: “is” used to connect with the singular concept of “November 11th”.) (1)</p> <p>6. 单数第三人称 “Singles’ Day has...” (Third person singular: “Singles’ Day has...”. (1)</p> <p>7. Becomes,第三人称单数 (Becomes, third person singular)(1)</p>
3	Tense	16	<p>8. Singles’ Day was only celebrated on campus formerly. (这句话中的 was 涉及时态，通过对原文的理解选择用过去时，所以这句话用了 grammatical explicitation (“Singles’ Day was only celebrated on campus formerly.” In this sentence, “was” concerns the tense. Based on my understanding of the source text, I used the past tense, so grammatical explicitaiton was used in this sentence.) (1)</p>

Table 4.9. Tagged Texts of Grammatical Explicitation in Translation Journals of the Experimental Group (continued)

No	Category	Freq.	Tagged Text
3	Tense	16	<p>9. Grammatical: was just popular in 表示之前只流行于...中文意思体现了过去时 (Grammatical: “was just popular in” to translate “之前只流行于...”; the Chinese meaning indicates the past tense.) (1)</p> <p>10. 在翻译过程中我有注意语法上的显化, 例如“it was only popular”中“was”为过去式 (In translation, I was aware of grammatical explicitation, e.g. in “It was only popular”, “was” is the past tense. (1)</p> <p>11. 整段话大部分用一般现在时, 除了根据第二句中‘之前的光棍节’使用过去式, 还有‘现在已经成为’说明对现在或以后有影响, 所以使用一般完成时 (In the passage [of my translation], the simple present tense is largely used, expect that in the second sentence, the past tense is used for “之前的光棍节”, and “the present perfect tense is used to convey “现在已经成为” which indicates the influence on the present and the guture.) (1)</p> <p>12. Grammatical explicitation :文段中的 光棍节之前只在大学校园流行 译为 Previously Singles’ Day was only popular in campus, 文中的“之前”说明要把时态变为过去时。(Grammatical explicitation: in the target text “光棍节之前只在大学校园流行” was translated into “Previously Singles’ Day was only popular in campus; “之前” means the tense should be the past. (1)</p> <p>...</p>
4	Voice	2	<p>13. 主动变被动的变化 (The active voice was converted to the passive voice.) (1)</p> <p>14. Grammatical: the number"1"is regarded as 中 regard 要表被动加 ed. (Grammatical: in “the number"1"is regarded as”, “ed” should be added to “regard”) (1)</p>
5	No Explanation Provided	6	<p>15. Grammatical: 原文(Source Text): 在中国大陆, 每年的 11 月 11 日被称作“光棍节”。 译文 (Target Text): In Chinese Mainland, 11th, November of each year is called “Sticks’ Day” (1)</p> <p>16. 语法 (Grammar): 在中国大陆, 每年的 11 月 11 日被称作“光棍节”。——In China Mainland, the Singles Day falls on every November 11th(1)</p> <p>...</p>

2) Foregrounding

In the corpus of the 43 experimental group participants' translation journals there were 22 cases identified where foregrounding was discussed in their translation journals of Assignment 4. The following are examples:

- 1) "Foregrounding: Bachelor's Day falls on November 11th. . 换主语进行强调 (Foregrounding: Bachelor's Day falls on November 11th. In this sentence, changing the subject is a way of foregrounding. (Participant E17)"

This example shows the participant's understanding that syntactically speaking, changing the subject is a foregrounding technique in translation.

- 2) "Foregrounding: 通过'though'引导的从句 it was only popular with students in the university campus before 来强调主句中的信息 Now Singles' Day has been a special holiday for all fashionable youths. (Foregrounding: By using 'though' to lead the clause "it was only popular with students in the university campus before", the information "Now Singles' Day has been a special holiday for all fashionable youths" in the main clause is highlighted.)" (Participant E34)

This excerpt from his or her journal indicates the participant was aware that foregrounding as a technique could be related to the use of the main clause to highlight important information intended to be conveyed in the English target text.

Interview data.

Interview Questions 2 and 7 (See Chapter 3) were opportunities for participants who had volunteered to be interviewed to comment on the translation course or what they learned from it. All four interviewees from the experimental group gave positive feedback about the course and their learning of explicitation. For example, according

to Participant E50 (See Appendix 11), the translation course was very helpful and “explicitation” was now reminding her to pay close attention to grammar, such as the use of “a” or “the” in English and she got to know how words should be used to bridge the gap between cultures when translating. One (Participant E02, see Appendix 11) of the other two participants stated that connectors could be used to create links throughout a whole text to ensure its logicity and naturalness, and that she was aware of using explicitation in translation. The other participant (Participant E05, See Appendix 11) pointed out that she could not yet employ explicitation well as in many cases, she was not certain which type of explicitation should be used.

Question 4 was a probe of whether participants realized something was missing and illogical in the source text of Assignment 2, in which the story ended with the deer turning into a beautiful maiden, and then abruptly mentioned that the park was testimony to love and romance. Three of the six volunteering participants pointed out that they had not realized anything was missing or that they had not given it much thought. Three participants mentioned that they sensed something strange or unnatural in the source text, but that they dared not add an extra sentence. This is illustrated in the following excerpt:

“我觉得有点怪但是我不敢把它不上去，因为我感觉翻译还是要忠实于原文，因为如果你自己把它加上去就好像有点违背原文的感觉，就好像加入你个人主观太多的因素会不太好，因为你是一个翻译者，不是一个创作者，所以对不太敢加。(I found it weird, but I dared not add something, because I thought translation should be faithful to the source text and if something was added, it seemed that it betrayed the source text. It is like you add too many subjective elements, but you are a translator, not a creator, so I was cautious to add something.” (Participant E02)

The content of Question 5 was focused on particular expressions in Assignment 3. Participants' accounts of how they translated “嗓子冒烟 (The throat is smoking)” are reported here. None of the six volunteers had translated the expression literally, but had employed specification to convey the message of “being thirsty”, as in “I'd rather suffer from thirst”, “even my throat get super dry”, “when I am really thirsty”, “even when I was almost dying of thirst”, “even if I felt really thirsty”, and “even I feel extremely thirsty”. Four of these participants said that they had not translated it literally fearing an English target reader might not understand the literal translation version. Two accounted for their problems in translating this expression, revealing their trouble in finding the exact words or expressions in English:

1) “.....首先因为它这里用得夸张的嘛, 然后我又不知道如何用英文怎么把它夸张的修辞手法表现出来, 又找不到一个词, 所以我就把它的意思表达出来..... (...Firstly, because the Chinese expression is quite exaggerated, but I didn't know exactly how to convey the exaggeration in English, I could not find a word, so I just expressed the meaning...)” (Participant E02)

2) “.....因为我觉得“嗓子冒烟”的话, 像我们中国这种可以, 但是放到那些说英文的国家就不知道“嗓子冒烟”什么意思吧, 然后我觉得不要把它翻译错, 就说很渴, 但是我又觉得自己翻译得不是很好、很到位, “很渴”跟“嗓子冒烟”可能还不是一个程度..... (... Because I thought as for “sangzi maoyan”, it is okay in Chinese, but people in the English-speaking countries might not understand the meaning. I was afraid it might be wrong [if it was translated literally], so I decided on “very thirsty”, but at the same time, I knew it was not adequately translated, because “very thirsty” and “sangzi maoyan” might concern different degrees of thirst...) (Participant E50)

TAPs.

Six volunteers in the experimental group were recruited to translate the three texts of Assignments 1 and 2. They were asked to talk about what they were thinking

while they were translating. All six mentioned explicitation or terms related to it, from time to time. For example,

When Participant E52 was translating Assignment 1 Text 1, she said,

“...但是整段话里面，这个主语都没有体现出来，所以在翻译的时候，我应该会把它显化出来，而且这是直接写给研究生新生的，所以我应该直接用 you 来指代... (...in the whole text, there is no subject, so in translation, I should **explicitate** the subject. Moreover, it is a text written for postgraduates, so I should use “you” to refer to the subject...)”

In her translating of Assignment 1 Text 2, Participant E11 said,

“....然后我就用一个 so 来连接，就是因为我回了好多天老家，所以 so I had gone a long time without watering it, 所以用了一个因果关系来连接这两句话.... (... then I **use “so” for connection**, I returned home, ‘so I had gone a long time without watering it’ ... so I use it for connection to indicate the relationship of cause and effect between the two sentences...)”

For the translation of Assignment 2, Participant E50 pointed out,

“...所以我在想如何把“黎族猎人”翻译成也能给那些外国游客也能理解的方式，然后所以我就把它翻译成: Li hunter, 然后在 Li hunter 后面打了个括号进行解释了下，就是‘which is a minority in China’... (... So I am thinking about how ‘黎族猎人’ can be translated into something understandable to foreign tourists, so I translate it into “Li hunter” and **put in a bracket “which is a minority in China” to explain it...**)”

In these examples, participants mentioned the addition of the subject “you” (pragmatic explicitation), the conjunction “so” (syntactic explicitation), and an explanation (semantic explicitation) respectively. This suggests that they identified a problem concerning pragmatics, syntax or semantics and then employed explicitation as a technique to solve it.

On the other hand, analysis of some of the participants’ TAPs related to explicitation and the target texts they actually wrote revealed a possible gap between awareness and performance. For example,

1) **TAP:** “下一个句子.....它这里是有有一个转折的作用，所以我会用到显化，一个连词 *however*, 将它这个逻辑关系显化出来，这个也是上课老师多次提到过的这个作用；然后，我也一直用在翻译过程中。下一个句子是.....其实它和上面是有一个逻辑性关系的，所以我用 *therefore*, 将它显化出来 (In the next sentence... there is an adversative tie, so I know to use explicitation, a conjunction “however” to explicitate this logical tie. This is what our teacher emphasized many times. Then I always use it in my translation. The next sentence is... in fact, it has a logical connection with the previous sentence, so I use “therefore” to explicitate it.)” (Participant E02)

Target Text: “When in desperately moment. However, it changed into a beautiful maid. Therefore. The Sculpture “Turn-round-deer” from this romantic fancy becomes a loving witness.” (Participant E02)

In this example, the participant’s TAP reflects her reasonable understanding of explicitation as a technique to ensure a text’s cohesion. However, she was unable to achieve cohesion due to her incorrect way of drafting English sentences.

In another example,

2) **TAP:** “.....当我读到这句话的时候，首先我想的是先确定这句话的主语，也就是它就是围绕这个公园发生的，所以我想就变化一下句子的顺序，把公园放在句子中间的位置.....然后再用一个地点状语来修饰这个公园..... (...When I read this sentence, it first occurs to me that I want to decide on the subject. That is to say, it revolves around the park, so I want to change the sentence order, by putting “the park” in the middle... and then use a place adverbial to modify “the park”.)” (Participant E50)

Target Text: “There was a touching and romantic love story happened in the park which located 3 miles in south away from the downtown of Sanya.” (Participant E50)

In this example, the participant’s TAPs indicate that she intended to highlight “the park” as it was the theme of the passage. This is a reflection of her awareness of using foregrounding to highlight something important in the text. However, in her target text, “the park” was actually not highlighted. On the other hand, her inaccurate use of attributive clauses negatively affected the readability of the text.

3) **TAP:** “.....第二句.....这句话，前两个小句的主语应该是‘我’，然后第三小句的主语应该是那颗土豆，所以我觉得这句话要想连在一起的话，我选了一个可以把它们三句连起来的一个主语，也就是‘放在花盆里一颗发了芽的土豆’，所以就主语选了这个，再用一个 *without* 引导的独立主格结构..... (...the second sentence...in the second sentence, the subject for the first two clauses is ‘I’, and that the for the third clause is “the potato”, so I think if the three clauses are to be combined, I choose ‘a

sprouting potato' as the subject, and then 'without' is used to lead an absolute construction... (Participant E22)

Target Text: Without covered by soil, a sprouting potato in the flowerpot, had grown the robust plant unexpectedly. (Participant E22)

This participant's TAP indicates she knew to add the subjects in the target text although they were omitted in the source text, and, that she should use and highlight the subject that she regarded as important. This reflects her good understanding of addition and foregrounding. Nonetheless, the target text she produced has mistakes in grammar. For example, "without covered by soil" should be "without being covered with soil" and "had grown the robust plant unexpectedly" should be "grew into a robust plant unexpectedly." Moreover, the foregrounding of the subject "a sprouting potato" might not be desirable since the text was an account of an anecdote and "I" might be a better choice to be used as a subject.

In summary, analysis of participants' TAPs indicates that they were using explicitation as a procedure to address translation problems in their translating, albeit that it was not the only factor they were using to ensure satisfactory translations.

Data Display and Analysis for Research Question 2

Research Question 2 for the present study was:

What explicitation patterns do participants manifest in their translations in terms of the four strategic procedures of addition, clarification, specification and foregrounding in relation to obligatory and optional explicitation and to the grammatical, lexical, semantic, syntactic, and pragmatic dimensions in Chinese-English translation?

A Corpus of Participants' Translated Texts of Regular Assignments

For each assignment, participants uploaded their electronic versions of translations onto the teaching platform of the Chinese-English Translation course. As some participants failed to upload their translated texts, the number of texts collected for each assignment was different as indicated in each of the tables of the frequencies of tagged texts for each key point in this section. To compare the explicitation patterns in the translated texts of the regular assignments written by participants, key points in each source text were first identified where it might be expected that they should use the four explicitation procedures of addition, clarification, specification and foregrounding. Each participant's translation of each key point was tagged in Qualitative Coder 1.1 (Xu & Jia, 2011) based on whether and how a strategic procedure was used. The tagged texts of the two groups were then run by Qualitative Explorer 1.0 (Xu & Jia, 2011) separately to calculate the frequencies of right, wrong, and null cases related to the explicitation procedures, as well as some translation mistakes, such as "Inaccuracy" and "Not Translated" and a table with tag sets, the number of occurrences of the category each tag set stands for were generated by running Qualitative Explorer.

Based on the data generated by Qualitative Explorer, two new tables were created, one categorising the translations of the key point pertaining to explicitation and tagged texts of both groups for each category, and the other to show the frequency and the rate of each category related to the proper or improper use of explicitation-related procedures.

For tagging and calculating of the participants' translated texts, the following rules were followed:

1) Each tag set to describe the participants' translated texts of a key point could be either a single one, such as "<AR>...</AR>" (Right Addition), "<CW>...</CW>" (Wrong Clarification), and "<FN>...</FN>" (Null Foregrounding), or a dual one, such as "<ARCN>...</ARCN>" (Right Addition+ Null Clarification), "<CRSW>...</CRSW>" (Right Clarification+ Wrong Specification), and "<SNCN>...</SNCN>" (Null Specification+ Null Clarification).

2) For each key point of each text of the regular assignments, each participant's translated text was tagged only once with a particular tag set so that the total number of cases could correspond to the number of the participants.

3) For the calculation of the frequency of each category, those of a dual tag set were separated into two items and both were counted. For example, suppose there were 9 cases of Right Clarification+ Wrong Specification, then it would be counted as 9 cases of Right Clarification and 9 cases of Wrong Specification.

1) Assignment 1 Text 1

For Assignment 1 Text 1, seven key points were selected to cover all the four procedures of addition, clarification, specification, and foregrounding with an aim of revealing explicitation patterns in participants' translations. The first five key points were Key Point 1 "研究生 (*yanjiusheng*)" in Sentence 1, Key Point 2 "任务 (*renwu*)" in Sentence 2, Key Point 3 "专业实习 (*zhuanyeshishi*)", Key Point 4 "环节(*huanjie*)" in Sentence 3, and Key Point 5 "享受 (*xiangshou*)" in Sentence 5 (See those words underlined in the source text below. These are concerned mainly with addition and clarification.

Source Text of Assignment 1 Text 1: (S1) 研究生 (Key Point 1) 两年时间很短, (S2) 任务很重 (Key Point 2), (S3) 课程学习、专业实习 (Key Point 3)、论文写作, 每个环节 (Key Point 4) 都需要同学们付出努力与辛劳, 但 (S4) 我相信正因为如此, 研究生生活忙碌中有了充实, 充实中有了精彩, (S5) 希望大家享受 (Key Point 5) 这份精彩!

With regard to specification, each participant's translated text of the assignment was checked to see whether the "you" perspective was used consistently throughout

the text. This was identified as Key Point 6. For foregrounding, which was sequenced as Key Point 7, the first few sentences of each participant's translated text were examined to determine whether the core message of Sentence 2 “任务很重” had been highlighted.

Key Point 1: 研究生 (*yanjiusheng*)

In the first sentence of the source text “研究生两年时间很短 (Gloss: The two years of postgraduates is very short)”, “研究生 (*yanjiusheng*)” does not refer to a group of people, but to “postgraduate studies” or “the postgraduate program”. If it is translated literally into “postgraduates” as a group of people, the logic embedded in the meaning expressed in the sentence has to be reconsidered and reconciled by adding some other linguistic elements. This means that when translated into English, addition, which can be categorised into obligatory, semantic explicitation, needs to be used.

As indicated in Table 4.10, seven tag sets were created to indicate Right Addition, Wrong Addition, Null addition, Null clarification, Right Addition+ Null Clarification, Null Addition+ Null Clarification, and Wrong Addition+ Null Clarification in the translations of Key Point 1 were written by 46 participants of the experimental group and 53 of the control group. For the right cases of addition, besides those of adding “study”, “studies”, and “period”, several participants kept the literal meaning of “postgraduates” as a group of people, but made it logical by adding “for”, “to”, “as” and “being”, or, by using it as the subject and adding a predicate verb, such as “have” and “experience”, which is a good reflection of the fact that there is no such thing as

one single definite answer to any translation and that students should be encouraged to explore what is acceptable in their translations.

Those wrong cases of addition involve inaccurate diction (e.g. “postgraduate life”, “postgraduate education”, and “graduate time”), wrong spelling (e.g. “be a postgraduate studengt”), wrong punctuations (e.g. “in postgraduate' study”), and wrong form of a word (e.g. “for postgraduating study”, and “graduate studying”). For inaccurate diction, some cases are not simply about unnatural expressions or wrong collocations, but whether they are accurate or not should be examined from a macro-perspective. For example, “postgraduate life” seems acceptable on the surface, but as the whole passage mainly concerns the postgraduates’ learning experience, “life” is not specific enough to fit into the theme of the text and was coded as a wrong case of addition.

Null clarification refers to a case in which the form of a noun is not made explicit in the English target text and thus is grammatically incorrect. For example, in “for postgraduate”, the form of the countable noun “postgraduate” was not explicitated, and was regarded as a case of null clarification.

In the translations of Key Point 1, some cases were coded with a dual tag set, including Wrong Addition+ Null Clarification, and Null Addition+ Null Clarification. In order to reflect the frequency of each type of pattern in using addition or clarification in an objective way, each translation was tagged with one tag set. Thus, if a

participant’s translation of Key Point 1 belongs to Wrong Addition, and the form of the noun is not explicitated, it is tagged with one tag set of “AWCN” to indicate “Wrong Addition+ Null Clarification” instead of two tag sets of “AW” and “CN”. In this way, the total number of tagged cases corresponds to the number of participants.

Participants’ Sign-oriented Mistakes (SOM), as in those cases of Null Addition, Null Clarification, Wrong Addition+ Null Clarification, and Null Addition+ Null Clarification were also identified.

Table 4.10. Tagged Texts of Key Point 1

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
1	AR	for graduate students (6) for postgraduates (5) being a graduate student (2) postgraduate study (2) being a postgraduate (2) graduate study (2) Post-graduates have (1) your postgraduate study (1) Two-year’s postgraduate period (1) To graduate students (1) for postgraduate study (1) for postgraduate students (1) for a postgraduate (1) for the postgraduate students (1) for post-graduates (1) as a postgraduate (1) attending graduate school (1)	for postgraduates (5) Postgraduate study (3) being a postgraduate (2) For graduate students (1) postgraduate studies (1) Postgraduates will experience a two-year short time (1) The two-year graduate study (1) The graduate students only have (1) for a postgraduate (1) As a postgraduate student (1) for postgraduate students (2) graduate study (1) as a postgraduate (1)

Table 4.10. Tagged Texts of Key Point 1 (continued)

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
2	AW	<p>The two-year postgraduate life (1)</p> <p>Two years of undergraduate education (1)</p> <p>The 2-year postgraduate courses (1)</p> <p>be a postgraduate studengt (1)</p> <p>for your postgraduates (1)</p>	<p>postgraduate course (2)</p> <p>postgraduate education (1)</p> <p>in postgraduate' study (1)</p> <p>your graduate life (1)</p> <p>The two-year-master study (1)</p> <p>postgraduate-student life (1)</p> <p>for postgraduating study (1)</p> <p>As for postgraduates (1)</p> <p>2-year life as graduate students (1)</p> <p>graduate time (1)</p> <p>graduate studying (1)</p> <p>postgraduate studying (1)</p> <p>graduate student's study (1)</p> <p>The time of two-year graduate students (1)</p> <p>postgradute study (1)</p> <p>being two years postgraduates (1)</p>
3	AN (SOM)	<p>The two years of postgraduates (1)</p>	<p>Two-year post graduation (1)</p> <p>Two years of postgraduates (1)</p> <p>The time of postgraduate (1)</p>
4	CN (SOM)	<p>for postgraduate (2)</p> <p>graduate student will have (1)</p>	<p>Postgraduate only has (1)</p> <p>Postgraduate has (1)</p> <p>Postgraduate (1)</p> <p>for two-year postgraduate (1)</p> <p>for postgraduate (1)</p> <p>being graduate student (1)</p>
6	AWCN (SOM)	<p>in postgraduate (1)</p> <p>in Graduate (1)</p> <p>postgraduate career (1)</p>	<p>be in graduate (1)</p> <p>The career of postgraduate (1)</p>
7	ANCN (SOM)	<p>The two years time of postgraduate (2)</p> <p>The two years of postgraduate (1)</p> <p>Postgraduate may take you (1)</p>	<p>The two years of postgraduate (1)</p> <p>The two years of graduate student (1)</p> <p>Graduate (2)</p>

Note. AR=Right Addition; AW=Wrong Addition; AN=Null Addition; SOM=Sign-oriented Mistakes; CN=Null Clarification; AWCN=Wrong Addition+ Null Clarification; ANCN=Null Addition+ Null Clarification.

To reveal participants' pattern of using addition and clarification, those cases of dual tag sets, including "Wrong Addition+ Null Clarification" and "Null Addition+ Null Clarification", were added to those cases of "Wrong Addition", "Null Addition" and "Null Clarification". The explicitation frequencies of the translations of Key Point 1 are shown in Table 4.11. The data show differences favouring those taught about explicitation for Right Addition (using addition properly) and for not having Wrong Addition while performances on Null Addition, Null Clarification, and Sign-oriented Mistakes were similar.

Table 4.11. Explicitation Frequencies for Key Point 1

Group	Right Addition	Wrong Addition	Null Addition	Null Clarification	Sign-oriented Mistakes
Experimental (n=46)	30 65.22%	8 17.39%	5 10.87%	10 21.74%	11 23.91%
Control (n=53)	21 39.62%	19 35.85%	7 13.21%	12 22.64%	15 28.30%

Key Point 2: 任务 (*renwu*)

Key Point 2 “任务 (*renwu*, task)” is in the second sentence of the source text “任务很重” (Gloss: Task [is] very heavy.). As the singular or plural form of the word is not indicated in Chinese, to translate it into English, one has to draw on common sense or world knowledge that usually there are quite a number of tasks for a student during his or her postgraduate studies and then explicitate the plural form of the word in the target text, which involves the use of clarification as a strategic procedure. Therefore, “任务” was selected as Key Point 2 mainly to find out whether

participants were able to properly employ clarification, in relation to obligatory, grammatical explicitation.

As shown in Table 4.12, the cases of Right Clarification are the ones that make clear the plural form of the word in English that corresponds to the Chinese word “任务”; cases of Wrong Clarification consists of those that mistakenly translate “任务” into a countable English word in the singular form, such as “a heavy task” and “the heavy task”, or an uncountable English word in the plural form, such as “heavy works”; cases of Null Clarification includes those of merely writing down the base form of a countable noun without indicating its singular or plural form, such as “task” and “heavy task”.

In terms of diction, some participants used some inaccurate expressions, such as “missions”, “work”, “undertakings”, “the burden”, and “a challenge”, which were coded as “Inaccuracy”; others used too specific terms, such as “studying tasks”, “assignments”, and “learning tasks”, which were regarded as “Wrong Specification”.

There are also a few cases of “Not Translated”, in which no English words corresponding to the Chinese word “任务” could not be found in the translated texts.

Table 4.12. Tagged texts of Key Point 2

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
1	CR	tasks (7) heavy tasks (4) the tasks (2) many tasks (2) tough tasks (1) your tasks (1) difficult tasks (1)	heavy tasks (9) tasks (6) the tasks (3) hard tasks (2)
2	CW	the task (3) a heavy task (2) their huge task (1) the heavy task (1)	the task (3)
3	CN (SOM)	task (1) heavy task (1)	heavy task (5) task (1) your task (1) learning task (1) such heavy learning task (1)
4	INA	their missions (1) Their work (1) your busy work (1) great undertakings (1) lots of work (1) many missions (1) Their studying tasks (1) Your study assignments (1) stressful assignments (1) many assignments (1) numerous assignments (1) your study burden (1) The study task (1) its learning task (1) a heavy mission (1) heavy works (1)	abundant of tasks (1) a lot of work (1) assignments (5) heavy learning tasks (1) The two-year graduate study task (1) the assignment (1) a tough assignment (1) the studying task (1) an arduous challenge (1) hard words (1) the burden (1) a arduous challenge (1) a challenge (1) a large number of works (1)
4	NT	...(3)	...(3)

Note. CR= Right Clarification; CW= Wrong Clarification; CN= Null Clarification; SOM=Sign-oriented Mistakes; INA=Inaccuracy; NT= Not Translated.

As indicated in Table 4.13, the two groups performed similarly on Right Clarification, Inaccuracy, and “Not Translated”, while the experimental group had a lower rate of Null Clarification or Sign-oriented mistakes and the control group did better for having lower rate of Wrong Clarification.

Table 4.13. Explication Frequencies for Key Point 2

Group	Right Clarification	Wrong Clarification	Null Clarification (SOM)	Inaccuracy	Not Translated
Experimental (n=46)	18 39.13%	7 15.22%	2 4.35%	16 34.78%	3 6.52%
Control (n=53)	20 37.74%	3 5.66%	7 13.21%	20 37.74%	3 5.66%

Key Point 3: 专业实习 (*zhuanye shixi*)

“专业实习 (*zhuanye shixi*)”, literally meaning “professional internship” in Chinese, should be rendered into “internship” to make it a natural expression. In other words, if “professional” is kept, it sounds redundant and unnatural in English. It is a key point to check how participants used clarification in relation to obligatory, grammatical explication, when they translated this term into Chinese.

As indicated in Table 14, only a few participants used the right word “internship” and a great majority of participants used “practice” instead. Other wrong translations include “training”, “graduation fieldwork”, and “field trip”. The majority of participants translated “专业 (*zhuanye*)” as well, so there were variety of words to express this meaning, such as “professional”, “specialty”, “major”, “specialized”, “subject”. This reveals that those participants adopted a sign-oriented approach to

the translation of Key Point 3, without realizing that to render the term into natural English, “*zhuanye*” should be omitted; mistakes of this type was marked as SOM (Sign-oriented Mistakes).

Table 4.14. Tagged texts of Key Point 3

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
1	CRRD	internships (1)	/
2	CNRD (SOM)	internship (1)	internship (4)
3	INA (SOM)	professional practice (17) specialty practice (6) major practice (3) specialized practice (1) subject training (1) the professional practice (1) the major practice (1) practice in major (1) professional training (1) major’s graduation fieldwork (1) major learning (1) gain experience in their major (1) professional internships (1) profession internship (1) internship related to the major (1) professional practices (2) professional trainings (1) major practices (1)	professional practice (15) specialty practice (6) major study (3) professional training (2) Professional Practice (1) specialized practice (1) the internship of your major (1) professional internship (1) internship of the major (1) professional practice (1) professional practices (2) specialty practising (1) professional internships (1) professional internships (1) the professional internships (1) professional practicing (1) professional practicing (1) professional practices (1) major practices (1) professional internship (2)
4	INA	practicing internship (1) practice (1)	practice (2) practicing (1) field trip (1) course-studying internship (1)

Note. CRRD=Right Clarification+ Right Diction; CNRD= Null Clarification+ Right Diction; SOM=Sign-oriented Mistakes; LM= Lexical Mistakes

As shown in Table 4.15, both groups performed poorly in the translation of Key Point 3; few participants could use the accurate term of “internship” and clarified its plural form. The overwhelming majority of participants used a wrong term and showed a strong tendency of adopting a sign-oriented approach. It indicates that a large number of the participants’ mastery of English vocabulary was not adequate enough to ensure the accuracy of diction in their English translated texts.

Table 4.15. Explication Frequencies for Key Point 3

Group	Right Clarification+ Right Diction	Null Clarification+ Right Diction	Inaccuracy	Sign-oriented Mistake
Experimental (n=46)	1 (2.17%)	1 (2.17%)	44 (95.65%)	43 (93.48%)
Control (n=53)	0 (0%)	4 (7.55%)	49 (92.45%)	48 (90.57%)

Key Point 4: 环节 (*huanjie*)

“环节 (*huanjie*)” was selected as a key point in Assignment 1 Text 1 to find out whether participants adopted a sign-oriented approach and translated it into “link”, which could be a “trap” novice translators might easily fall into since in a Chinese-English dictionary, it is usually translated into “link” and in an English-Chinese dictionary, “link” is translated into “环节”. As can be seen from Table 4.16, six participants in the experimental group and 14 participants in the control group did fall into the “trap” and translated “环节” into “link”, which could be

regarded as a case of word-for-word translation failing to convey the exact meaning as expressed in the context. Other inaccurate translations for “环节” include “part”, “role”, “process”, “section”, “stage”, “session”, “corner”, and so on.

As regards the strategic procedure of clarification, which belongs to obligatory, grammatical explicitation, a few participants made mistakes in the singular or plural form of an English noun again, such as “all these function”, “every steps”, “these every concept”, “every processes”, and “every parts”.

In terms of “Omission”, 13 participants of the experimental group and 3 participants of the control group chose to omit translating “环节”. In fact, as in the Chinese source text, “(每个) 环节” follows a listing of tasks/commitments and serves as an appositive of the listing, the omission of it in translation is acceptable.

Table 4.16. Tagged texts of Key Point 4

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
1	CR	each step (3) Every aspect (1) every step (2) Each of them (1) all these steps (1)	in every aspect (2) each of them (2) All of them (1) Each step (1) each task (1)
2	CW	every steps (1) all these (1)	in every steps (1)

Note. CR= Right Clarification; CW= Wrong Clarification.

Table 4.16. Tagged texts of Key Point 4 (continued)

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
3	INA	Every part (5) Each part (3) Each part (1) complete every role (1) every process (1) each section (1) Each one of them (1) each assignment (1) all these function (1)	Every part (4) Each part (2) every section (3) each progress (2) in every assignment (1) in every field (1) part (1) on each corner (1) in every sector (1) both of these (1) at each stage (1) every session (1) every one of them (1) Any details (1) each tache (1) these every concept (1) every processes (1) every parts (1)
4	SOM	Each link (3) Every link (1) every link (1) in each link (1) each of these links (1)	each link (8) Every link (3) every link (3) on every node (1) Courselearning, professional practice, thesis writing , all of them (1)
5	Omission	they also need to work very hard at course learning, professional practice and thesis writing.(1) ... (14 tagged text in total)	Students need to devote the hard-working in course study, Professional Practice, graduation paper writing.(1) ... (4 tagged text in total)

Note. INA=Inaccuracy; SOM=sign-oriented Mistakes.

As shown in Table 4.17, the two groups performed similarly on Right Clarification and Wrong Clarification. On the other hand, the data show differences favouring the experimental group for Omission and for not having Inaccuracy or Sign-oriented Mistakes.

Table 4.17. Explication Frequencies for Key Point 4

Group	Right Clarification	Wrong Clarification	Inaccuracy	Sign-oriented Mistakes	Omission
Experimental (n=46)	8 17.39%	2 4.35%	15 32.61%	7 15.22%	14 30.43%
Control (n=53)	7 13.21%	1 1.89%	25 47.17%	16 30.19%	4 7.55%

Key Point 5: 享受 (*xiangshou*)

Key point 5 “享受 (*xiangshou*, enjoy)” is to check whether participants could use clarification, in relation to obligatory, grammatical explication, to explicate the tense of this verb. Obviously, in the sentence “希望大家享受这份精彩 (Gloss: [I] hope you [will] enjoy the brilliance.)”, “享受” is used as the predicate in the objective clause of “希望 (*xiwang*, hope)” and the tense should be the simple future. Wrong Clarification consists of the cases of using the wrong tense, such as “would enjoy”, “could enjoy”, and “enjoys”. For Null Clarification, the participants just wrote the base form of “hope” or of other verbs without indicating the tense, which was perceived as a reflection of a sign-oriented approach.

Table 4.18. Tagged texts of Key Point 5

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
1	CR	can enjoy (15) will enjoy (7) May all of you enjoy (1) Enjoy your life (1)	can enjoy (20) will enjoy (11) will all enjoy (1)
2	CW	would enjoy (3) could enjoy (2) you to enjoy (1) everyone enjoys (1) May you be enjoyable with (1)	would enjoy (4) could enjoy (2)
3	CN (SOM)	you enjoy (6) you all enjoy (2) everyone enjoy (2) share (1) you derive great pleasure (1)	you enjoy (6) everyone enjoy (4) you all enjoy (1) all of you enjoy (1) all postgraduates enjoy (1) you enjoy (1)
4	NT	... (1)	...(1)
5	INA	you will be absorbed (1)	/

Note. CR= Right Clarification; CW=Wrong Clarification; CN= Null Clarification, NT= Not Translated; INA= Inaccuracy.

The data of Table 4.19 show that both groups performed comparatively well on the employment of clarification, with the control group doing slightly better for Right Clarification and for not having Wrong Clarification. Their performances were similar in terms of Null Clarification or Sign-oriented Mistakes.

Table 4.19. Explication Frequencies for Key Point 5

Group	Right Clarification	Wrong Clarification	Null Clarification (SOM)	Not Translated	Inaccuracy
Experimental (n=46)	24 52.17%	8 17.39%	12 26.09%	1 2.17%	1 2.17%
Control (n=53)	32 60.38%	6 11.32%	14 26.42%	1 1.89%	/ /

Key Point 6: The “you” perspective

As mentioned in Chapter 2, there are a number of terms to refer to the potential readership, including “同学们 (*tongxuemén*, students)”, “研究生 (生活) (*yanjiusheng (shenghuo)* postgraduates’ (lives))”, and “大家 (*dajia*, everyone), in the Chinese source text of Assignment 1 Text 1. If those terms are translated literally into English, it will be inconsistent in addressing the English target readership, which does not conform to the discursive norm of an English address. As a matter of fact, the English target text should preferably use the second person perspective consistently to address the reader. Key Point 6, therefore, aimed to find out whether the participants could specify those terms referring to the readership as “you” or “your” so that the second person perspective could be ensured consistently throughout the English target text to make it an address in its full sense. The proper use of clarification, which belongs to optional, pragmatic explicitation, in this case involves the translator’s treatment of the text from a macro perspective, which means he or she needs to read through the source text and decide on the right perspective to address the English target readership. If the translator focuses only on each little detail of the source text without grasping the bigger picture of it, he or she will probably not be able to overcome the negative transfer from the source language or the tendency of word-for-word translation, thus producing an inadequate target text.

As indicated in Table 4.20, when the students’ texts were tagged, only those that used the second person perspective consistently throughout the text were marked as Right Specification, and those that used at least one third person perspective as Null Specification. For Wrong Specification, there were only two cases that both used “our”, the first person perspective; as the author of the text is the addressees’

teacher, the use of “our” is not acceptable in English, although it is commonly used in Chinese, which reflects a typically Chinese collective way of thinking. For the cases of Null Specification (SOM), they all fall into the category of mechanical rendering of the Chinese term “同学们” into “students”.

Table 4.20. Tagged texts of Key Point 6

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
1	SR	You (15) your (1)	you (10) your (2)
2	SW	our busy postgraduate life (1)	our fellow students (1)
3	SN	They (4) the graduate life (1) the life of a postgraduate (1) Their (1) postgraduates (1) his (1) the busy life of postgraduate (1) post-graduates (1)	postgraduate life (2) the life of postgraduate students (2) postgraduate (2) Graduate students (2) the life of postgraduate (2) the life of graduate student (2) the graduates' busy life (1) the postgraduates (1) the postgraduate students (1) the life of postgraduate students (1) life of postgraduates (1) the busy life of postgraduate period (1) the graduate life (1) the postgraduate life (1) the busy life of postgraduates (1) the busy life of postgraduate study (1)
4	SN (SOM)	students (13) students' (3) the student (1) Every student (1)	Students (15) Students' (1) every student (1) classmates (1)

Note. SR= Right Specification; SW = Wrong Specification; SN= Null Specification; SOM= Sign-oriented Mistakes

The content of Table 4.21 reveals that the experimental group did better for Right Specification and for not having Null Specification, while the control group did slightly better for not having sign-oriented mistakes.

Table 4.21. Explication Frequencies for Key Point 6

Group	Right Specification	Wrong Specification	Null Specification	Sign-oriented Mistakes
Experimental (n=46)	16 34.78%	1 2.17%	29 60.04%	18 39.13%
Control (n=53)	12 22.64%	1 1.89%	40 75.47%	18 33.96%

Key Point 7: Foregrounding 1

Key Point 7 was to ascertain whether the participants could employ foregrounding, in relation to optional, syntactic explication, to translate the first few juxtaposed sentences in the Chinese source text into English sentences with the key information highlighted.

To tag each of the participants' texts, the first few sentences were carefully examined. If the key message “任务很重 (The tasks are heavy)” was highlighted as an independent sentence or as the main clause and other messages expressed in the first few sentences of the Chinese source text were translated and put onto the background as inconspicuous stretches of language or something to support the key message, it was tagged as “Right Foregrounding”. As regards Wrong Foregrounding, it was a case in which a message was highlighted, but it was not the key one. The cases of Null Foregrounding, cases of which were regarded as Sign-oriented Mistakes, were the ones in which the first few sentences in the English target text were juxtaposed

without highlighting the key message, similar to the syntactic pattern of the Chinese source text.

Table 4.22. Tagged texts of Key Point 7

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
1	FR	<p>1. Post-graduates have many assignments to do in just a short two years, including cause learning, specialty practice and thesis writing. (1)</p> <p>2. Two years will be short for postgraduates, but during that time they have lots of work to do, such as learning courses, practicing internship and writing a thesis. (1)</p> <p>3. It is short duration for postgraduate, but their missions which include course study, professional practice and thesis paper are very strenuous. (1)</p> <p>4. Although being a postgraduate for two years is a really short time, the tasks will be very heavy, because (1)</p> <p>5. Although two years do not mean a long time for your postgraduates, there are heavy tasks on your hands (1)</p> <p>...</p> <p><i>(11 tagged texts in total)</i></p>	<p>1. Two years is a short time to your graduate life, but task is heavy. (1)</p> <p>2. The two-year-master study is not a long time but it's quite tough. (1)</p> <p>3. You will have a lot of assignments such as course work and study, specialty practice and thesis writing to do within (during) the short two years as a postgraduate, which requires students numerous efforts and hard working in every sector. (1)</p> <p>4. Two years of postgraduate study will be a short period but filled with heavy task. (1)</p> <p>5. It takes a short time in postgraduate' study but in time ,they have a lot of tasks ,such as (1)</p> <p>...</p> <p><i>(9 tagged text in total)</i></p>
2	FW	<p>6. Two years is not so long for a postgraduate to prepare for his great undertakings, courses, major practices and thesis writing, which needs a lot of efforts . (1)</p>	<p>6. There is too little time for two-year postgraduate to finish abundant of tasks, such as (1)</p> <p>7. Two year is a short time for postgraduate because their assignments are arduous (1)</p>

Note. FR= Right Foregrounding; FW= Wrong Foregrounding.

Table 4.22. Tagged texts of Key Point 7 (continued)

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
2	FW	<p>7. Two years is a very short time for graduate students to complete their studies, since they have so many difficult tasks. (1)</p> <p>8. Two years of postgraduate is short but yet burdened, including courses studying, internship and paper writing. (1)</p> <p>9. It is a short time in two years as a postgraduate ,for your busy work which including courses learning,major practice and thesis writing (1)</p> <p>10. It will take you two years to be a postgraduate student although it won't be a long time. You need to take every effort to every step of your study, including (1)</p> <p>...</p> <p><i>(15 tagged texts in total)</i></p>	<p>8. The two years of being a postgraduate is a short period with a lot of heavy tasks. (1)</p> <p>9. There are only two years for postgraduates to accomplish heavy learning tasks, including (1)</p> <p>10. Two years are only enough for postgraduate studies with assignments. (1)</p> <p>...</p> <p><i>(22 tagged texts in total)</i></p>
3	FN (SOM)	<p>11. Two years of postgraduate study is too short. Your study assignments maybe overloaded, (1)</p> <p>12. Two years of undergraduate education is not a long period of time . The task is heavy , which includes (1)</p> <p>13. Two years of graduate study is very short. The study task is very heavy, consisting of (1)</p> <p>...</p> <p><i>(20 tagged texts in total)</i></p>	<p>11. The two-year graduate study task is both short and heavy. (1)</p> <p>12. The two-year period of study for postgraduates is quite short, and the tasks, which include courses, specialized practice, as well as thesis writing, are heavy. (1)</p> <p>13. The two years of graduate time is very short, tasks are heavy, the courses, the professional internships, the thesis writing, each link requires (1)</p> <p>...</p> <p><i>(22 tagged texts in total)</i></p>

Note. FW= Wrong Foregrounding; FN= Null Foregrounding; SOM=Sign-oriented Mistakes.

As indicated in Table 4.23, the experimental group performed better for Right Foregrounding and for having a lower rate of Wrong Foregrounding, whereas the

performances of the two groups were similar in terms of Null Foregrounding or Sign-oriented Mistakes.

Table 4.23. Explication Frequencies for Key Point 7

Group	Right Foregrounding	Wrong Foregrounding	Null Foregrounding (Sign-oriented Mistakes)
Experimental (n=46)	11 (23.91%)	15 (32.61%)	20 (43.48%)
Control (n=53)	9 (16.98%)	22 (41.51%)	22 (41.51%)

2) Assignment 1 Text 2

Six key points in Assignment 1 Text 2 were selected to find out how the participants of the experimental and the control groups employed the four procedures of addition, clarification, specification, and foregrounding. As indicated in the source text below, Key Point 8 “花盆 (*huapen*)” and Key Point 9 “花 (*hua*)” were to check whether the participants were able to employ clarification and make the singular or plural form of them explicit. Key Point 10, not indicated in the source text below, concerned clarification as well, with a view of checking whether the tense in each translated text was used correctly and consistently. Key Point 11 “年 (*nian*)” focused on the procedure of specification.

Source Text of Assignment 1 Text 2: (S1) 太神奇! (S2) 把一颗发了芽的土豆放在花盆 (Key point 8) 里, 都没有用土埋它, 居然长出了茁壮的植株来。(S3) 后来过年 (Key Point 11) 回老家, 多日未浇水, 植株枯死。(S4) 今天浇花 (Key Point 9), 拔杂草时, 发现了五颗土豆!

As regards addition, since the subject of “I” is omitted throughout the Chinese source text, Key Point 12 was to find out whether the participants could add the subject to make the English sentences complete and grammatically correct. Concerning foregrounding, which was considered Key Point 13, each participant’s translation of Sentence 2 of the source text was examined to see whether the key message was highlighted.

Key Point 8: 花盆 (*huapen*)

Key Point 8 “花盆 (*huapen*)” concerns clarification, which belongs to obligatory, grammatical explicitation. It should be translated into the singular form with the indefinite article “a” in the English target text, because based on the context and common sense, “a sprouted potato” can only be put into “a” flowerpot. Besides “flowerpot”, other acceptable translations for “*huapen*” include “planter”, “bonsai pot”, and “pot”. Wrong Clarification consists of those cases of using the definite article “the” instead of “a”, or the plural form of “pots” or “flowerpots”. As far as Null Clarification is concerned, neither the singular form nor the plural form of the translation of “*huapen*” is indicated. “Inaccuracy” refers to a case when the diction does not correspond to the Chinese expression, such as “a flower disk”, “a flower disc”, “a basin”, “a flow pot”, and “the garden pot”.

Table 4.24. Tagged texts of Key Point 8

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
1	CR	a flowerpot (18) a pot (5) in a pot (1) a flower-pot (1)	a flowerpot (18) a pot (8)
2	CW	the flowerpot (12) the pot (2) a pots (1) the flower pot (1)	the flowerpot (11) the pot (3) the flower pot (3) flowerpots (1) the planter (1) pots (1)
3	CN (SOM)	pot (1) flowerpot (1)	flowerpot (4) pot (1)
4	INA	a flower disk (1) a flower disc (1) a basin (1)	a flow pot (1) the garden pot (1)

Note. CR= Right Clarification; CW= Wrong Clarification; CN= Null Clarification; SOM= Sign-oriented Mistakes; INA= Inaccuracy.

As shown in Table 4.17, the experimental group performed slightly better for Right Clarification and for not having Wrong Clarification and Null Clarification (Sign-oriented Mistakes) than the control group.

Table 4.25. Explication Frequencies for Key Point 8

Group	Right Clarification	Wrong Clarification	Null Clarification (Sign-oriented Mistakes)	Inaccuracy
Experimental (n=46)	25 54.35%	16 34.78%	2 4.35%	3 6.52%
Control (n=53)	26 49.06%	20 37.74%	5 9.43%	2 3.77%

Key Point 9: 花 (*hua*)

Key Point 9 “花 (*hua*)” is put after the verb “浇 (*jiao*, water)” as its object. To translate it accurately into English, the translator needs to refer to the context of the situation conveyed in the source text, decide that it cannot be translated into “flower” literally, but “plant”, and then think about the singular or plural form to be used in the English target text, which involves the employment of clarification in relation to obligatory, grammatical explicitation. In fact, it refers to “the plants” on the balcony, so as shown in Table 4.26, the plural form was tagged as Right Clarification and the singular form with the definite article “the” as Wrong Clarification. Of the cases of Inaccuracy, a great majority were identified as sign-oriented mistakes, which means the Chinese term was literally into “the flower”, “the flowers” or “flowers”. For “Not Translated”, some students mistook “water” as an intransitive verb and did not write the object; others just omitted the whole phrase “浇花 (*jiaohua*, to water the plants)”.

Table 4.26. Tagged texts of Key Point 9

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
1	CR	the plants (1) my plants (1) plants (1)	the plants (1) plants (1)
2	CW	the plant (2) the other plants (1)	/
3	INA	SOM: the flowers (13) flowers (8) the flower (5) my flowers (2) other flowers (1) ----- plantlet (1) it (1)	SOM: the flowers (19) flowers (14) the flower (4) my flowers (1) ----- other plants (1)
5	NT	watering (4) ... (4) watered (1)	watering (5) watered (3) ... (3)

Note. CR= Right Clarification; CW= Wrong Clarification; INA= Inaccuracy; SOM=Sign-oriented Mistakes; NT= Not Translated.

As indicated in Table 4.27, both group performed poorly in the employment of clarification. In terms of Inaccuracy and Sign-oriented Mistakes, both groups had a high rate, but the experimental group performed slightly better for not having these two types of mistakes.

Table 4.27. Explication Frequencies for Key Point 9

Group	Right Clarification	Wrong Clarification	Inaccuracy	Sign-oriented Mistakes	Not Translated
Experimental (n=46)	3 6.52%	3 6.25%	31 67.39%	29 63.04%	9 19.57%
Control (n=53)	2 3.77%	0 0%	39 73.58%	38 71.70%	11 20.75%

Key Point 10: Clarification of the tense

Key Point 10 involves clarification of the tense, in relation to obligatory, grammatical explicitation, aiming to find out whether the participants could use the past tense consistently throughout the English target text to reflect it as an anecdote that happened in the past. When the participants' texts were tagged, each was coded only once with Right Clarification, Wrong Clarification, or Null Clarification. When the past tense was clarified and used consistently throughout the text, the first verb with the past tense was tagged as "Right Clarification"; when a mixture of the past tense and the present tense was detected, the first verb with the present tense was tagged with "Wrong Clarification", which means there was an inconsistency of the tense in the text; when a verb that followed a third person singular subject was used as the present tense but its form of the third person singular was not explicitated, it was coded as "Null Clarification", which is a reflection of a sign-oriented approach, so was marked as "Sign-oriented Mistakes" as well.

Table 4.28. Tagged Texts of Key Point 10

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
1	CR	put (3) was (2) grew (1)	put (5) was (2) grew (1)
2	CW	is (18) grow (3) am watering (3) 's (3) pull (2) find (2) should grew (1) water (1) turn (1) it grown (1) grows (1) cannot (1) has grown (1) had just put (1)	is (9) 's (7) water (5) Had put (1) grows (1) had placed (1) had producing (1) without buried (1) without even buried (1) put (1) remove (1) grow (1) are (1) aren't covered (1) am watering (1) am finding (1) am pulling up (1) becomes (1) founded (1) go (1) do not bury (1) come (1) dig (1)
3	CN (SOM)	it actually grow (1)	it actually send (1) turn (1) die (1) it actually grow (1)

Note. CR= Right Clarification; CW= Wrong Clarification; CN= Null Clarification; SOM=Sign-oriented Mistakes.

As shown in Table 4.29, both groups performed poorly with a low rate of Right Clarification and with a high rate of Wrong Clarification. The control group performed slightly better for Right Clarification and for not having Wrong Clarification, while the

experimental group did slightly better for not having Null Clarification (Sign-oriented Mistakes).

Table 4.29. Explication Frequencies for Key Point 10

Group	Right Clarification	Wrong Clarification	Null Clarification (Sign-oriented Mistakes)
Experimental (n=46)	6 (13.04%)	39 (84.78%)	1 (2.17%)
Control (n=53)	8 (15.09%)	41 (77.36%)	4 (7.55%)

Key Point 11: 年 (*nian*)

The main strategic procedure for Key Point 11 “年 (*nian, year*)”, is specification in relation to obligatory, semantic explication. “年 (*nian, year*)” serving as the object of the verb “过 (*guo, spend*)” in the Chinese source text, refers to the Spring Festival. To translate it into English, it should be rendered into a specific term, preferably the Spring Festival, or other acceptable terms, such as the Chinese New Year and the Chinese Lunar New Year, which were all tagged as “Right Specification” (See Table 4.30). “Null Specification” referred to those cases in which the translated text was not specific enough, semantically speaking, to tune in to the Chinese situation, such as “the New Year” and “New Year’s Day”.

Table 4.30. Tagged texts of Key Point 11

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
1	SR	Spring Festival (15) the Spring Festival (13) Chinese New Year (2) during the Chinese Lunar New Year (1) during the lunar New Year (1)	the Spring Festival (18) Spring Festival (8) Chinese New Year (3) my Spring Festival (1) the Chinese spring festival (1)
2	SN	the new year (5) New Year's Day (1) New Year (1) festival (1) New Year Festival (1)	the New Year (8) New Year (5) holidays (1) holiday (1)
3	NT	... (4)	... (7)

Note. SR= Right Specification; SN= Null Specification; NT= Not Translated.

The data in Table 4.31 indicate that the experimental group employed specification better for having a higher rate of Right Specification and lower rates of Null Specification and “Not Translated”.

Table 4.31. Explication Frequencies for Key Point 11

Group	Right Specification	Null Specification	Not Translated
Experimental (n=46)	32 69.57%	9 19.57%	4 8.70%
Control (n=53)	31 58.49%	15 28.30%	7 13.21%

Key Point 12: The subject “I”

Key Point 12 was to check whether the students could add “I”, which is omitted in all sentences in the Chinese source text, as the subject for the corresponding sentences in the English target text. As shown in Table 4.32, four tag sets to indicate “Right Addition”, “Wrong Addition”, “Null Addition (SOM)”, and “Wrong Foregrounding” were used. “Right Addition” refers to those cases in which the subject “I” was added properly and consistently throughout the target text. Wrong Addition was used to tag those translated texts in which a wrong subject other than “I” was added; those wrong subjects included “we”, “you”, and “no one”. “Null Addition”, which reflects a sign-oriented approach, included those cases in which a subject was not added at all, leaving a sentence or a clause incomplete and not syntactically correct in the English target text. As regards “Wrong Foregrounding”, “a potato” or “a plant” originally used as an object was highlighted and used as the subject in the sentence right after the exclamatory sentence “太神奇!(So amazing!)”. Given that the text was an anecdote, it was better to use “I” as the subject to start the narration of the story. That was why the foregrounding of “a potato” or “a plant” was considered wrong.

Table 4.32. Tagged Texts of Key Point 12

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
1	AR	1 (38)	1 (30)
2	AW	1. we came back our hometown for several days so the plant perished for lacking of water. (1)	1. Later, we came back to my hometown on the New Year, not watered for several days, the plants dead. (1) 2. you didn't even cover it with soils (1) 3. If you put the sprouted potatos in the flowerpot, and you never use soil to bury them. (1) 4. Later, the plant died because we had to back home to celebrate the Chinese spring festival and no one watered it. (1)
3	AN (SOM)	2. Putting a sprouted potato in pot without burying it with soil, it grew healthy plants unexpectedly. (1) 3. Without covered it with soil, unexpectedly, emerging grow well plants (1) 4. I was watering the flowers and pulling out the weeds today while suddenly found 5 potatoes. (1) 5. Put a sprouting potato into the flowerpot withour soil, it grows long out of plant. Afterwards... (1)	5. Put a sprouted potatoes in flowerpot, aren't covered it up with it, vigorous, incredibly long out of the plant. Then go home New Year, many days without water, plants die. Water the flowers today, pulling weeds, found the five potatoes! (1) 6. had put the a budded potatoes in flowerpot without soil (1) 7. Until I back home in the New Year, found nobody watering it, so that the plants dry out and die. (1) 8. Today after watering and pulling up the weeds, five potatoes were discovered in surprise (1) 9. when I backed to hometown during the Spring Festival, didn't watered the plants for several days (1) ... (15 tagged texts in total)

Note. AR= Right Addition; AW= Wrong Addition; AN= Null Addition; SOM=Sign-oriented Mistakes.

Table 4.32. Tagged Texts of Key Point 12 (continued)

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
4	FW	6. After a sprouted potato got to put on a flowerpot without even covered by any soil. (1) 7. A healthy plant was grown out from a sprouted potato which was put into a flower-pot without covering with soil. (1) 8. A potato with sprouts in the flowerpot grew into strong plants without being buried by soil. (1)	10. A sprouted potato was put in the garden pot, even unburied with soil, and grew into a sturdy plant afterwards. (1) 11. The plants are wilting because they haven't been watered for days (1) 12. A potato with a bud, which was put into the flowerpot without soil, grew out the spouts. (1) 13. A potato with buds was put in a flowerpot without covered by soil. (1)

Note. FW= Wrong Foregrounding.

As indicated in Table 4.33, the experimental group performed much better for having Right Addition and for not having Null Addition (Sign-oriented Mistakes) and slightly better for not having Wrong Addition and Wrong Foregrounding.

Table 4.33. Explication Frequencies for Key Point 12

Group	Right Addition	Wrong Addition	Null Addition (Sign-oriented Mistakes)	Wrong Foregrounding
Experimental (n=46)	38 82.61%	1 2.17%	4 8.70%	3 6.52%
Control (n=53)	30 56.60%	4 7.55%	15 28.30%	4 7.55%

Key Point 13: Foregrounding 2

Key Point 13 was to find out whether the participants were able to employ the strategic procedure of foregrounding, which belongs to optional syntactic explicitation, to translate the following Chinese sentence into English:

ST: 把一颗发了芽的土豆放在花盆里, 都没有用土埋它, 居然长出了茁壮的植株来。

(Gloss: [I] put a sprouted potato on a flowerpot, [I] even didn't use soil to cover it, unexpectedly [there] grew a strong plant.)

In the source text, the three sentences with the subjects omitted are juxtaposed and separated by two commas without any explicit cohesive ties. Semantically speaking, the third segment is more important, given that it starts with a modal particle “居然 (*juran*)” to express the tone of unexpectedness, which merits an emphasis of the information by highlighting it in English. Therefore, Key Point 13 could well be quite effective in evaluating whether the participants were able to produce syntactically more natural and readable English sentences different from the Chinese text by highlighting the important information of the third segment.

As shown in Table 4.34, In terms of Right Foregrounding, the following three cases were all counted in: 1) the important information conveyed in the third segment of the source text was expressed in a separate simple sentence that started with a marker of a word or phrase, such as “to my surprise”, “surprisingly”, “unbelievably”, and “unexpectedly”, to emphasize the information expressed in the stretch of language that followed; 2) the important information of the third segment was expressed in a clause that started with the emphatic, adversative conjunction “but” or the adversative adverb “however”; but if “however” was mistaken for an conjunction and put after a comma, it was not counted as “Right Foregrounding”, but

as “Wrong Foregrounding”; and 3) the information of the third segment was put as the main clause of a compound sentence, or as the key structure of a complex sentence, for example, Tagged Texts 5 and 6 of the experimental group and Tagged Texts 5 and 6 of the control group.

With regard to Wrong Foregrounding, in some cases, some other information rather than that of the third segment was highlighted. For example, in Tagged Text 8 of the experimental group in Table 3.34, the information of the first segment was put in a complete sentence, but that of the third one in a grammatically incorrect sentence, and thus what was highlighted was the first segment, not the third one, so it was tagged as “Wrong Foregrounding. In some other cases, wrong words were used as the cohesive ties, for example, “if” in Tagged Texts 7 and 8 and “while” in Tagged Texts 9 and 10 both for the control group, or a word used as a cohesive tie was not used in the right way, for example, “however” in Tagged Texts 8 and 9 of the experimental group and in Tagged Text 11 of the control group. It should also be noted that in the two cases of Tagged Texts 10 and 11 of the experimental group, the sequence of the three events described in the source text was not organized in the right way, so they were coded as “Wrong Foregrounding” as well.

For Null Foregrounding, which reflects participants’ sign-oriented approach, the corresponding cases showed a conspicuous similarity to the syntactic pattern of the Chinese source text, i.e., the information of the third segment was expressed in a sentence that juxtaposed with one or two sentences with the information of the first two segments; typical markers of cases of Null Foregrounding include the use of “and” or the lack of explicit cohesive ties to connect the meanings expressed in the three segments.

Table 4.34. Tagged texts of Key Point 13

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
1	FR	<p>1. To my surprise, it grew into a plant. (1)</p> <p>2. ...but it turned out to grow healthy (1)</p> <p>3. I put a germinant potato in flowerpot, and I did not cover it with soil; however, it grew up into vigorous plant. (1)</p> <p>4. It should grow healthy plants. (1)</p> <p>5. A healthy plant was grown out from a sprouted potato which was put into a flower-pot without covering with soil. (1)</p> <p>6. A sprouted potato that I ever put in a flowerpot and was not covered with soil incredibly grew into a vigorous plant. (1)</p> <p>...</p> <p><i>(20 tagged texts in total)</i></p>	<p>1. Surprisingly, it grew into a robust plant. (1)</p> <p>2. Unexpectedly, it stretched into a strong stalk! (1)</p> <p>3. Unbelievably the tomato sent forth strong plants. (1)</p> <p>4. However, it grew strong plants even though I hadn't buried it! (1)</p> <p>5. After putting a germinated potato into a pot without using any earth to cover it, I found a robust plant came out the other day. (1)</p> <p>6. There were some growing plants unexpectedly after I was putting a sprouted potato in the flower pot without covering it with soil.</p> <p>...</p> <p><i>(20 tagged texts in total)</i></p>
2	FW	<p>7. I put a sprouted potato in the flower pot. Without covered it with soil, unexpectedly, emerging grow well plants (1)</p> <p>8. I once put a sprouted potato in a flower disc, not even burying them with soil, however, it grew well unexpectedly then. (1)</p> <p>9. I put a sprouted potato into the flowerpot without covering it up, however, robust plants grow up incredibly. (1)</p> <p>10. A potato that was sprouting laid on the flowerpot turn into sturdy plant without soil cover it unexpectly. (1)</p> <p>11. A potato with sprouts in the flowerpot grew into strong plants without being buried by soil. (1)</p>	<p>7. If a sprouted potato was put into the flowerpot without covering with soil, it grows healthy plants unexpectedly. (1)</p> <p>8. If you put the sprouted potatoes in the flowerpot, and you never use soil to bury them. One day you found the healthy and strong plant. (1)</p> <p>9. I put an sprouted potato into a flowerpot without burying it with soil while it unexpectfully becomes a thrieved plant. (1)</p> <p>10. I put a germinature potato into a flow pot without burying into soil while it grew into a strength plant (1)</p> <p>11. I just put a potato that with a bud in the flowerpot without burying it with earth, however it grows into a vigorous plant. (1)</p>

Note. FR= Right Foregrounding; FW= Wrong Foregrounding.

Table 4.34. Tagged texts of Key Point 13 (continued)

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
3	FN (SOM)	<p>12. I put a sprouted potato without being covered with soil in the pot and actually the strong plant was grew out from the potato. (1)</p> <p>13. I put a sprouted potatoes in a pot, not buried it with soil, and it actually grow out a thrive plants, (1)</p> <p>14. Once , I put a sprouting potatoes into a pots without covering it with earth and it grew up as the plant ultimately. (1)</p> <p>15. I put a germinated potato in a flowerpot but not bury it with soil. It grew to a strong plant. (1)</p> <p>16. I put a germinant potato into a flowerpot, without any soil buried, it grew out a strong plant unexpectedly. (1)</p> <p>17. I put a germinant potato into a flowerpot, without any soil buried, it grew out a strong plant unexpectedly. (1)</p> <p>...</p> <p>(21 tagged texts in total)</p>	<p>12. I put one sprouted potatoes in pots, and do not bury it with soil, after a time there have grown out many plants growing vigorously. (1)</p> <p>13. I put a potato which was already sprout into the flowerpot and buried it without using soil.It grew into a sturdy plant unexpectedly. (1)</p> <p>14. Once I put a sprouted potato into a flowerpot without burying it with soil. A strong plant has just come out! (1)</p> <p>15. Put a potato buds placed in flowerpots, are not buried it, unexpectedly grow the sturdy plants (1)</p> <p>16. I put a sprouted potato in the pot, without burying it in soil, and it actually send forth the thriving plants. (1)</p> <p>17. I put a sprouted potato in a pot, but not bury it with soil, potatoes accidentally grow plants thrive. (1)</p> <p>...</p> <p>(27 tagged texts in total)</p>

Note. FN= Null Foregrounding; SOM=Sign-oriented Mistakes.

As shown in Table 4.35, the experimental group did slightly better in terms of Right Foregrounding and not having Null Foregrounding (Sign-oriented Mistakes), whereas the control group had a lower rate of Wrong Foregrounding.

Table 4.35. Explication Frequencies for Key Point 13

Group	Right Foregrounding	Wrong Foregrounding	Null Foregrounding (Sign-oriented Mistakes)
Experimental (n=46)	20 (43.48%)	5 (13.04%)	21 (45.65%)
Control (n=53)	21 (39.62%)	5 (9.43%)	27 (50.94%)

3) Assignment 2

Six key points in Assignment 2 were chosen to investigate how the participants of the experimental and the control groups employed the four strategic procedures of explicitation. As indicated in the source text below, Key Point 14 “鹿回头公园 (Luhuitou Park)” was to find out whether the participants used addition to explain “Luhuitou”, which does not make much sense to the English target readership, but relates to the story narrated in the text. Key Point 15 was to see whether the participants could use addition to bridge a semantic and logical gap between Sentence 3 and Sentence 4. Key Point 16 “黎族 (*Lizu*)” and Key Point 17 were concerned with the employment of specification, one in the semantic sense, the other in the pragmatic sense. Key Point 18 was intended to check whether the participants were able to employ clarification to explicitate the tense of make the tense of the verb “追逐 (*zhuizhu* to chase/to run after)” properly. Key Point 19 was to see whether the participants could use foregrounding to translate Sentence 1 to produce a topic sentence in the English target text.

Source Text of Assignment 2: 鹿回头公园 (Key Point 14) (S1) 位于三亚市区以南3公里处, 关于这个公园, 有一个美丽动人的爱情故事。(Key Point 19: Foregrounding)
(S2) 相传很久以前一位黎族 (Key Point 16) 猎人追逐一头山鹿, 从五指山一直追到中国南海 (Key Point 18: The Tense)。(S3) 当山鹿面对大海, 无路可逃时, 回头一望, 突然变成一位美丽的少女。 [...](Key Point 15: Addition) (S4) 以此传说建成的壮观雕塑“鹿回头”已成为浪漫爱情的见证。(S5) 鹿回头公园也是登高鸟瞰三亚市和三亚湾全景的首选之地。(Key Point 17: Specification-The “you” perspective) (Wu & He, 2008, p.321-322)

Key Point 14: 鹿回头公园 (Luhuitou Park)

Key Point 14 “鹿回头公园 (Luhuitou Park)” was identified as a case to test whether the participants could translate a Chinese culture-loaded term with an

awareness of cross-cultural communication. On the one hand, transliteration should be used in translating the name of the park in the first place, which means the Chinese pinyin “Luhuitou” should be kept, as in terms of the communicative function of the name of the park, a visit to this tourist attraction has to be in China; the use of an English name without the Chinese pinyin will cause much inconvenience and confusion, say when a foreign tourist asks the way. On the other hand, “Luhuitou”, the Chinese pinyin for the name of the park, most likely does not make sense to the general English readers, but the meaning expressed in it relates to the story narrated in the text. It is, therefore, reasonable to employ addition by supplementing the English meaning of the term, since it will help the reader build a connection between the name of the park and the story.

As indicated in Table 4.36, Right Addition referred to a case in which the Chinese pinyin “Luhuitou” was kept and its meaning was explained accurately as in the case “which means a deer looks back”. Wrong Addition included those cases in which “Luhuitou” was kept and explanation of its meaning was provided but in an inaccurate way. The expressions, such as “Turn Round Deer Park” and “Deer Turning Back Park”, were regarded as inaccurate, because as could be seen from a picture of the Luhuitou Statue, the deer was turning its head and looking back, instead of “turning round” or “turning back”. With regards to Null Addition, transliteration was used by keeping the pinyin “Luhuitou”, but there was no addition of an explanation of the term. Right Semantic Translation indicated that it was a case in which the name of the park was expressed accurately in English, but the pinyin “Luhuitou” was not kept, while Semantic Translation+ Mistake meant there was no pinyin “Luhuitou” either and the meaning of the name of the park was expressed in English inaccurately or with one mistake or another. “Not Translated” referred to those cases in which the name of the park was not mentioned either in Chinese pinyin or in English words.

Table 4.36. Tagged texts of Key Point 14

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
1	AR	Luhuitou, which means a deer looks back (1) "Luhuitou" (the deer looks back) (1)	/
2	AW	Luhuitou Park (Deer Turning Back Park) (1) Luhuitou Park (Deer turning back) (1) Deer Turning Back Park (Luhuitou Park) (1) Luhuitou (literally means the deep looked back.) (1)	Luhuitou park (means deer looking - around) (1) Luhuitou (Turn-round Deer) Park (1)
3	AN	Luhuitou Park (14) Lu Hui tou park (3) The Luhuitou Park (2) Luhuitou Peninsula (1) Luhuitou Park (1)	Luhuitou Park (28) Lu Huitou Park (3) Lu Hui Tou Park (1)
4	STR	/	Deer Looking Back Park (1)
5	STM	The Turn-round Deer Park (4) Turn Round Deer Park (3) Turn-round deer park (3) Deer Park (2) The Turn--round Deer Park (1) the Yamaga Maiden park (1) Deer Turning Back Park (1) A garden of deer beauty (1) The Turn-around Deer Park (1) "Deer-turn-round" park (1)	Turn-round Deer Park (3) The Turn-around Deer Park (2) Turn round Deer (1) The Turn-round Deer Park (1) The Turn-round Dear Park (1) Turn round Deer Park (1) the Turning Deer Park (1) Deer Turning Back Park (1) Deer Turn Head Back Park (1) Deer Turn Around Park (1) Deer Park (1) The Turn Round Deer Park (1) The deer park (1) Yamaga look back Park (1)
6	NT	/	... (1)

Note. AR= Right Addition; AW= Wrong Addition; AN= Null Addition; STR= Right Semantic Translation; STM= Semantic Translation+ Mistake; NT= Not Translated.

As shown in Table 4.37, the great majority of participants in both groups did not employ addition properly. The experimental group performed better for having slightly higher rate of Right Addition and for having a lower rate of Null Addition, while the control group did better with lower rates of Wrong Addition and “Semantic Translation+ Mistake”.

Table 4.37. Explication Frequencies for Key Point 14

Group	Right Addition	Wrong Addition	Null Addition	Right Semantic Translation	Semantic Translation + Mistake	Not Translated
Experimental (n=45)	2 4.44%	4 8.88%	21 46.67%	0 0	18 40%	0 0
Control (n=53)	0 0%	2 3.77%	32 60.38%	1 1.89%	17 32.08%	1 1.89%

Key Point 15: Addition to bridge an inter-sentential gap

Key Point 15 was to find out whether the participants were able to use addition to bridge a gap between Sentence 3 and Sentence 4 in the source text. As Sentence 3 is an account of the act that the deer turned into a beautiful maiden, but Sentence 4 mentions that the statue based on the story is a witness to romantic love, which is an abrupt, illogical transition. Therefore, when the text is translated into English, what happened after the deer turned into a beautiful maiden should be added so that the incoherence of the story could be resolved. As can be seen from Table 4.38, three tag sets that indicate Right Addition, Wrong Addition, and Null Addition were used to code the participants’ translated texts. Right Addition indicated that the participants

were able to identify the inter-sentential gap and employed addition to bridge it. It turned out that altogether only three participants' translations could be tagged as Right addition- although in the tagged text of Right Addition of the experimental group, there was a spelling mistake of "haunter" rather than "hunter, it was counted as a successful case. Null Addition, which is indicative of a sign-oriented approach, referred to those cases where no extra information was added to bridge the semantic gap between the two sentences.

Table 4.38. Tagged texts of Key Point 15

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
1	AR	then the haunter fell in love with her. (1)	Then, the hunter and the girl fell in love with each other and got married. (1) Later, the hunter and the girl became a couple. (1)
2	AN (SOM)	...(44)	...(51)

Note. AR= Right Addition; AN= Null Addition; SOM=Sign-oriented Mistakes

As shown in Table 4.39, both groups performed unsatisfactorily, with an overwhelming majority of participants unable to add some extra information in their target texts to straighten the logical gap between Sentence 3 and Sentence 4 in the Chinese source text.

Table 4.39. Explication Frequencies for Key Point 15

Group	Right Addition	Null Addition (Sign-oriented Mistakes)
Experimental (n=45)	1 2.22%	44 97.78%
Control (n=53)	2 3.77%	51 96.23%

Key Point 16: 黎族 (Lizu)

Key Point 16 “黎族 (Lizu)” was to investigate how the participants used specification when they translated it into English. Although in a Chinese-English dictionary “族 (zu)” is translated into “nationality”, it is in fact a misnomer, as “nationality” is associated with a country. “黎族(Lizu)”, however, refers to one of the 55 ethnic minority groups in China, so the English translation of it should be specified as “Li ethnic group” instead of “Li Nationality”. As indicated in the tagged texts in Table 4.40, the use of the specific term “ethnic” as an adjective or “ethnic group” was regarded as Right Specification, while for Wrong Specification, a specific term, such as “minority”, “ethnic”, “tribe”, “clan”, “ethnicity”, was used but in an accurate way. Null Specification referred to those cases when a general term, “nationality”, “people”, “race”, and “nation”. Of those cases of Null Specification in both groups, the majority used “nation” or “nationality”, ready terms in most of the Chinese-English dictionaries, which to some extent reflects the students’ tendency of a sign-oriented approach or credulity in whatever a dictionary provides, without giving it too much thought.

Table 4.40. Tagged texts of Key Point 16

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
1	SR	a Li ethnic hunter (1) a Li ethnic hunter (1) a Li (an ethnic group in Hainan province) haunter (1)	a Li (one of the main minority ethic in China) hunter (1) a Li ethnic hunter (1) a hunter from Li(an ethnic group) (1) a hunter in li ethnic group (1)
2	SW	a Li minority hunter (1) a Li minority hunter, living in Hainan Province (1) in a tribe called Li (1) a haunter from li clan (1) a hunter of Li minority (1) a hunter of Li ethnic (1)	a Li minority hunter (3) a hunter of Li tribe (1) a hunter of the Li, which is a minority living in Hainan Province (1) a hunter from LI clan (1) a hunter from Li ethnic (1) a hunter of Li Ethnicity①(① A special ethnic group lived in Hainan Province) (1)
3	SN	<p>SOM:</p> the Li nationality (11) Li nationality (14) Li Nation (1) ----- <p>LM:</p> a Li people (People lives in Hainan Province, China) hunter (1) a Li race hunter (1) an hunter of the Li people (1) a hunter of race Li (1) a hunter who lived in Hainan Province (1)	<p>SOM:</p> Li nationality (14) the Li nationality (6) the "Li" nationality (6) Li Nation (1) Bai nationality (1) a legendary Li national hunter (1) ----- <p>LM:</p> a man living in Hainan Province (1) a hunter from the Li people (1) a Li Chinese hunter (1) a hunter of Li people (1)
4	NT	a Li hunter (2) ... (2) a Lizu hunter (1) a Li hunter (1) a hunter of Li (1)	a li hunter (5) ... (3) a Li-hunter (1) li hunter (1) a hunter of Li (1) a Li Chinese hunter (1)

Note. SR= Right Specification; SW= Wrong Specification; SN= Null Specification; SOM=Sign-oriented Mistakes; NT= Not Translated.

As indicated in Table 4.41, both groups performed poorly in the employment of specification pertaining to Key Point 16, with low rates of Right Specification, but high rates of Null Specification and Sign-oriented Mistakes.

Table 4.41. Explication Frequencies for Key Point 16

Group	Right Specification	Wrong Specification	Null Specification	Sign-oriented Mistakes	Not Translated
Experimental (n=45)	3 6.67%	6 13.33%	29 64.44%	26 57.78%	7 15.56%
Control (n=53)	4 7.55%	8 15.09%	29 54.72%	29 54.72%	12 22.64%

Key Point 17: Specification-The “you” perspective

Key Point 17 was to check whether the participants chose to employ specification and use the second person “you” perspective in their translations of the last sentence of Assignment 2 “鹿回头公园也是登高鸟瞰三亚市和三亚湾全景的首选之地 (Gloss: Luhuitou Park is also the first choice to ascend a height and get a bird’s eye-view of Sanya city and the panorama of Sanya Bay)”. As shown in Tables 4.42, for Right Specification, the second person perspective was used with a pronoun “you” or “yours”, whereas for Wrong Specification, the first person perspective was used with a pronoun “we” or “our”. With regard to Null Specification, the third person perspective was used just as in the source text, which also reflects a sign-oriented approach.

Table 4.42. Tagged texts of Key Point 17

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
1	SR	1. Luhuitou Park is also your first choice for climbing and having a bird's-eye view both of Sanya city and Sanya Bay. (1)	1. Luhuitou Park is the first choice for you are taking the high ground overlooking the full view of Sanya Bay (1) 2. it also is a first place to choose if you want to see the panorama of Sanya city and Sanya bay. (1)
2	SW	2. Meanwhile the park is our first choice to get a bird's-eye view about whole scene of Sanya city and Sanya Bay. (1)	3. It is the first choice that we overlook the panorama of Sanya City and Sanya Bay in Turn-round Deer Park. (1)
3	SN (SOM)	3. The park also is the best place to get a bird's-eye view of Sanya city and the panorama of Sanya bay. (1) 4. The garden is the prime scenery spot for visitors climbing Aerial Place to enjoy the scenery of Sanya and Sanya Bay. (1) 5. The park is a preferential place which oversees Sanya and the panoramic view of Sanya Bay. (1) 6. the park is also the best place for people to see the whole view of Sanya City and Sanya Bay. (1) 7. The park is also a good choice for a bird's-eye view of the Sanya city and the whole Sanya Bay. (1) ... (43 tagged texts in Total)	4. The Deer Park also is a preferred place for bird view Sanya and Panoramic view of Sanya. (1) 5. The deer park also is a good place to see the whole scenery of SanYa city. (1) 6. Still, this park is considered as a first choice for a bird's-eye view of the city and the panorama of Sanya Bay. (1) 7. The park is also the best choice to overlook the view of Sanya city and Sanya Bay. (1) 8. the park has become the initial choice for the people who want to have a eye's-view of Sanya and Sanya Bay. (1) ... (50 tagged texts in Total)

Note. SR= Right Specification; SW = Wrong Specification; SN= Null Specification; SOM= Sign-oriented Mistakes.

The data in Table 4.43 show that the two groups had similar performances with overwhelmingly low rates of Right Specification, and overwhelmingly high rates of Null Specification (Sign-oriented Mistakes).

Table 4.43. Explication Frequencies for Key Point 17

Group	Right Specification	Wrong Specification	Null Specification (Sign-oriented Mistakes)
Experimental (n=45)	1 2.22%	1 2.22%	43 95.56%
Control (n=53)	2 3.77%	1 1.89%	50 94.34%

Key Point 18: Clarification of the tense

Key Point 18 was to check whether the participants were able to employ clarification properly to make the tense of “追逐” explicit in their translation of Sentence 2. The determination of the tense for “追逐” could be accounted for by examining the reference translation as follows.

Source Text: 相传很久以前一位黎族猎人追逐一头山鹿，从五指山一直追到中国南海。(Wu & He, 2008, p.321)

Reference Translation: Legend has it that once upon a time, a hunter of the Li ethnic group was chasing a deer from Wuzhi (Five-finger) Mountain all the way to the South China Sea.

As indicated in the reference translation above, the past continuous tense as in “was chasing” was used for the verb “*zhuizhu*” to emphasize the continuity of the action, since it was being done “from Wuzhi (Five-finger) Mountain all the way to the

South China Sea”, which was a long way to cover. Therefore, in those cases of Right Clarification, the past continuous tense as in “was chasing” or “was running after” was used, or a word was added to emphasize the continuity of the action, as in “kept chasing”, or the “there be” pattern was used and followed by “chasing...”, a present participle structure used as an attribute to modify “a hunter”, for example, Tagged Text 5 of the experimental group and Tagged Texts 4 and 5 of the control group in Table 4.44. In those cases of Wrong Clarification, a variety of wrong tenses were used, including the past tense as in Tagged Texts 6 and 7 of both groups, the past perfect continuous tense as in Tagged Texts 8 and 9 of the experimental group, the simple present tense as in Tagged Text 10 of the experimental group; besides, in some other cases, the “there be” pattern was used, but the form of “chase” was used in a wrong way, as in Tagged texts 8, 9, and 10 of the control group. There were a few cases of Null Clarification as well in which the predicate was used in the base form of the verb, without making any tense explicit, as in Tagged Text 11 of the experimental group and Tagged Texts 11 and 12 of the control group.

Table 4.44. Tagged texts of Key Point 18

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
1	CR	<p>1. a young hunter of Li nationality was chasing a hillside deer (1)</p> <p>2. a Li ethnic hunter was chasing a mountain deer (1)</p> <p>3. who was running after a mountain deer (1)</p> <p>4. a hunter of Li ethnic was chasing a deer (1)</p> <p>5. there was a hunter of Li minority chasing a deer (1)</p> <p>...</p> <p><i>(14 tagged texts in Total)</i></p>	<p>1. a hunter of Li nationality was chasing a hillside deer (1)</p> <p>2. a hunter from Li (an ethnic group) was chasing a deer (1)</p> <p>3. a hunter from the Li people (one of China's 55 ethnic groups, living in Hainan province) kept chasing a mountain deer (1)</p> <p>4. there was a Li minority hunter chasing a mountain buck (1)</p> <p>5. there was a Li Chinese hunter chasing a yamaga (1)</p> <p>...</p> <p><i>(19 tagged texts in Total)</i></p>
2	CW	<p>6. a young hunter from the Li nationality chased after a deer (1)</p> <p>7. a Li people (People lives in Hainan Province, China) hunter chased after a mountain buck (1)</p> <p>8. a hunter of the Li nationality (one of the 55 minority nationalities in China) had been chasing a deer (1)</p> <p>9. an hunter of the Li people had been chasing a deer (1)</p> <p>10. a hunter from Li nationality chases a mountain deer (1)</p> <p>...</p> <p><i>(30 tagged texts in Total)</i></p>	<p>6. a Li (one of the main minority ethnic in China) hunter pursued a mountain deer (1)</p> <p>7. who once chased after a deer from the Five-Finger Mountain all the way to the South China Sea (1)</p> <p>8. there was a hunter of Li nationality was chasing a lucasi (1)</p> <p>9. the "Li" nationality hunters chasing a deer (1)</p> <p>there was a Li Chinese hunter kept chasing a deer (1)</p> <p>10. there is a man who is Li nationality chasing a deer (1)</p> <p>...</p> <p><i>(32 tagged texts in Total)</i></p>
3	CN	<p>11. a Li Nation hunter run after a yamaga (1)</p>	<p>11. who chase after a deer (1)</p> <p>12. a Li nationality chase American Mountain Deer (1)</p>

Note. CR= Right Clarification; CW= Wrong Clarification; CN= Null Clarification.

The data in Table 4.45 reveal that the control group did slightly better for Right Clarification (proper use of the tense) and for not having Wrong Clarification.

Table 4.45. Explication Frequencies for Key Point 18

Group	Right Clarification	Wrong Clarification	Null Clarification(Sign-oriented Mistakes)
Experimental (n=45)	14 31.11%	30 66.67%	1 2.22%
Control (n=53)	19 35.85%	32 60.38%	2 3.77%

Key Point 19: Foregrounding 3

Key Point 19 was to figure out whether the participants were able to employ foregrounding and produce a topic sentence at the beginning of the English text by highlighting the key message of the love story related to the park rather than the location of the park in their translations of the first sentence “位于三亚市区以南 3 公里处，关于这个公园，有一个美丽动人的爱情故事(Gloss: Located 3 kilometres south of Sanya downtown, about this park, there is a beautiful, moving love story)”. As right after the first sentence in the source text, it is a narration of the love story, it is desirable to put the information of the love story as the key structure in the sentence so as to make it serve as a topic sentence, just as the first sentence in the reference translation “Located 3 kilometres south of Sanya downtown, Luhuitou (Deer Looking Back) Park is named after a moving love story.” Therefore, in the cases of Right Foregrounding, “a love story” was put in the key sentence while “the location” was mentioned in a subordinate clause or stretch of language. For Wrong Foregrounding, “the location” instead of “the love story” was highlighted, for example, Tagged Text 6 of experimental group and Tagged Texts 6 and 9 of the control group, or there was a dangling structure, a syntactic mistake, in the

translation, for example, Tagged Texts 8 and 9 of the experimental group and Tagged Texts 7, 8, and 10 of the control group. With regard to Null Foregrounding, which is indicative of a sign-oriented approach, “the location” and “the love story” were put in two sentences separated by a comma or a full stop, which highlighted neither of the two messages, so it was marked as “Null Foregrounding”.

Table 4.46. Tagged Texts of Key Point 19

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
1	FR	<p>1. Located three kilometers south of Sanya City, the park is known for a beautiful and moving love story related to it. (2)</p> <p>2. The Turn-around Deer Park, 3 kilometers away in the south of Sanya urban district, boasts a beautiful and impressive love story. (1)</p> <p>3. Luhuitou Park, located in 3 kilometers to the south of Sanya, has a sweet and touching romance story. (1)</p> <p>4. There is a moving love story about Turn Round Deer Park, which is located at three kilometers away from south of Sanya city. (1)</p> <p>5. This park, 3 kilometers south from downtown Sanya, has a beautiful and touching love story. (1)</p> <p>...</p> <p><i>(18 tagged text in total)</i></p>	<p>1. Located three kilometers south of Sanya City, the park is known for a beautiful and moving love story. (1)</p> <p>2. Located three kilometers south of Sanya City, the park is known for a beautiful and moving love story related to it. (1)</p> <p>3. Lu Huitou Park, located in three kilometers south of Sanya city, has a romantic story. (1)</p> <p>4. Luhuitou (Turn-round Deer) Park, 3km to the</p> <p>5. There is a wonderful and moving story about the Deer Turn Aroud Park which is 3 kilometers away from the south of Sanya downtown. (1)</p> <p>...</p> <p><i>(22 tagged texts in total)</i></p>
2	FW	<p>6. The Turn-around Deer Park located three kilometers south of Sanya City, which with a beautiful and moving love story . (1)</p> <p>7. The park is 3 kilometer far from south of Sanya, which has an emotive love story about the park before. (1)</p>	<p>6. The park is located in 3km to the south of Sanya, which also has a touching story. (1)</p> <p>7. Located in the south of Sanya city at about 3 kilometers there is a park with a beautiful and touching love story. (1)</p>

Note. FR= Right Foregrounding; FW= Wrong Foregrounding.

Table 4.46. Tagged Texts of Key Point 19 (continued)

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
2	FW	<p>8. Luhuitou Park location in 3 kilometers south of Sanya city, about this park, there is a beautiful love story. (1)</p> <p>9. Located in the distance of three kilometers of the south of Sanya City, there is a park with a beautiful love story. (1)</p>	<p>8. Located 3 kilometers south of Sanya City, about the Luhuitou Park , there is a fascinating love story. (1)</p> <p>9. Luhuitou Park is away from the south of the Sanya urban district three kilometers place, which has a beautiful moving romance. (1)</p> <p>10. Located 3 km distance from the downtown of Sanya toward the south, there is a park which has a beautiful and moving love story. (1)</p> <p>...</p> <p><i>(13 tagged texts in total)</i></p>
3	FN (SOM)	<p>10. The Turn-round Deer Park is located three kilometers south of Sanya City, the park is known for a beautiful and moving love story related to it. (1)</p> <p>11. There is a park 3 kilometers south of the downtown of Sanya . A beautiful love story lingers on here and moves people who heard it . (1)</p> <p>12. The Luhuitou Park, is located in the southern of the Sanya city, 3 kilometers south of the downtown. There is a beautiful story about this park. (1)</p> <p>13. Luhuitou Peninsula is located in 3km south of Sanya City. It is known for a beautiful and moving love story. (1)</p> <p>14. The Luhuitou Park is located in the city 3 kilometers south of Sanya. There is a beautiful romance about this park. (1)</p> <p>15. Turn-round deer park is far from the south of the Sanya City three kilometers. There is an appealing love story about this park. (1)</p> <p>...</p> <p><i>(22 tagged texts in total)</i></p>	<p>11. Luhuitou(a looking back doe) Park is located in the position which is 3 miles southern to the Sanya urban. There is a beautiful and moving love story about the park. (1)</p> <p>12. Luhuitou Park is located to the south about 3 kilometers of the Sanya City, There was a beautiful and moving love story about this park. (1)</p> <p>13. Luhuitou park, which is located 3 kilometers to the south of Sanya city. About this park, there is a beautiful love story. (1)</p> <p>14. Luhuitou park (means deer looking - around) is located 3 kilometers south of the Sanya urban district, and there is a beautiful love story about it. (1)</p> <p>15. Luhuitou Park, located in the southern part of Sanya City, is 3 km away from downtown and has a beautiful legend. (1)</p> <p>...</p> <p><i>(22 tagged texts in total)</i></p>

Note. FW= Wrong Foregrounding; FN= Null Foregrounding; SOM= Sign-oriented Mistakes.

As can be seen from Table 4.47, the two groups show similarity in their performances on Right Foregrounding. On the other hand, the experimental group did better for not having Wrong Foregrounding, but not as well with a higher rate of Null Foregrounding (Sign-oriented Mistakes).

Table 4.47. Explication Frequencies for Key Point 19

Group	Right Foregrounding	Wrong Foregrounding	Null Foregrounding (Sign-oriented Mistakes)
Experimental (n=45)	18 40%	4 8.89%	22 48.89%
Control (n=53)	20 37.74%	13 24.53%	20 37.74%

4) Assignment 3

In Assignment 3, four key points were selected to investigate how the participants of the experimental and the control groups employed the four explication procedures of addition, clarification, specification, and foregrounding. As shown in the source text below, Key Point 20 “中国土鳖 (*zhongguo tubie*)”, literally meaning a Chinese woodlouse, was to check whether the participants were able to employ specification to convey in the target text the exact meaning of a metaphoric Chinese term which would not make sense in the context if translated literally. Key Point 21 “住旅馆 (*zhu lvguan*; to live in the hotel)”, a verb phrase put at the beginning of Sentence 3 in the source text, was selected to identify whether some elements were added to translate it into a clause so that it could be syntactically

correct in the target text. As a vivid expression to describe the state of extreme thirst, “嗓子冒烟 (*sangzi maoyan*; The throat is on the verge of smoking) was selected as Key Point 22 to see whether the participants could explicitate the core meaning of “thirst” implied in this expression. To find out whether the participants could use foregrounding properly, Key Point 24 was selected.

Source Text of Assignment 3: “(S1) 在国外旅行，特别是美国，最不习惯的就是处处要付小费。(S2) 说是小费，数目对于我这样的中国土鳖 (Key Point 20) 来说可不算小。(S3) 住旅馆 (Key Point 21)，每天早上要在枕头放一两个美元，给打扫房间的大姐；吃饭要把餐费的10%到20%给服务员；甚至连坐出租车也要额外给小费，其实很多出租车司机自己都是老板。(S4) 我特别不能理解，干吗不直接把价格提高， (Key Point 24)算小费除了麻烦，而且让人有额外付出的感觉，特别像我这样平时俭省惯了的人，在中国自己嗓子冒烟 (Key Point 22)了都舍不得买瓶矿泉水，到了美国一伸手就得给人付出几美元，还叫“小费”，简直让我心头滴血 (Key Point 23)。”(Zhang, 2010, p. 192)

Key Point 20: 中国土鳖 (*zhongguo tubie*)

As a new coinage, “土鳖 (*tubie*)”, literally meaning a woodlouse, is used to describe a person who has never been abroad. The term conjures up an image of being uneducated, countrified, old-fashioned, or narrow-minded. When the author describes himself as a “Chinese *tubie*”, it is self-mockery. In this sense, whether the translation of this term is acceptable to a great extent depends on whether the tone of self-mockery can be conveyed. In the reference translation, specification was employed and it was translated into “a Chinese miser” given that it relates to the author’s oversensitivity to tipping and the tone of self-mockery in the source text can be kept. As indicated in Table 4.48, besides two cases of using the term “miser”, there are other acceptable terms, including “redneck”, “hillbilly”, “bumpkin”,

“yokel”, “rube” and “boor”. Those acceptable terms focus on “narrow-mindedness” or “reluctance to accept something different or new” and can well convey the tone of self-mockery.

As far as the cases of Wrong Specification are concerned, those adjectives, such as “poor”, “ordinary”, “inexperienced”, “old-fashioned”, “traditional”, “short-sighted”, cannot fit into the context. On the other hand, some neutral or positive terms, such as “rustic”, “frugal”, and “economical”, fail to get the tone of self-mockery across to the target reader, so they are regarded as cases of Wrong Specification” as well.

Table 4.48. Tagged texts of Key Point 20

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
1	SR	a Chinese redneck (2) hillbilly (2) a Chinese hillbilly (2) a Chinese bumpkin (2) Chinese hillbillies (1) Chinese bumpkins (1) typical yokel (1) yokel (1) a miser (1) a Chinese rube (1) a “Bumpkin” from China (1) a Chinese style hillbilly (1) a kind of ‘miser’ (1) a typical Chinese ‘hillbilly’ (1) a Chinese tubie [northeastern dialect, which means that a person who is narrow-minded and comes from a small place] (1)	a Chinese hillbilly (5) a Chinese redneck (2) a yokel (1) bumpkins (1) poor provincial Chinese (1) for a bumpkin (1) Chinese bumpkin (1) a hillbilly (1) a Chinese “hillbilly” (1) a “Chinese bumpkin” (1) a Chinese boor (1) a Chinese rube (1) a Chinese bumpkin (1)

Note. SR= Right Specification.

Table 4.48. Tagged texts of Key Point 20 (continued)

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
2	SW	<p>Chinese poor man (1)</p> <p>Chinese tubie (a man who is green and inexperienced) (1)</p> <p>Chinese grassroots (1)</p> <p>an Eupolyphaga, -the dialect of Beijing, it means that a person who is very shortsighted or poor (1)</p> <p>as an ordinary person (1)</p> <p>the ordinary Chinese (1)</p> <p>wood louse(poor people) (1)</p> <p>ordinary Chinese (1)</p> <p>Chinese who are not rich (1)</p> <p>me who never went abroad before (1)</p> <p>a Chinese style Tubie (someone is unfashionable and poor) (1)</p> <p>a green and inexperienced Chinese (1)</p> <p>a chinese poor guy (1)</p> <p>a China villain (1)</p> <p>a Chinese foreigner who is not accustomed to this custom (1)</p> <p>a poor guy from China (1)</p> <p>a poor guy in China (1)</p> <p>a poor (1)</p> <p>a poor Chinese guy (1)</p>	<p>Chinese poor people (2)</p> <p>a Chinese peasant (2)</p> <p>Chinese Tubie (people who is old-fashioned) (1)</p> <p>clodhoppers (1)</p> <p>Chinese peasants (1)</p> <p>Chinese frugal travelers (1)</p> <p>someone poor (1)</p> <p>the countryman who came from China (1)</p> <p>those who are not newly rich in China (1)</p> <p>the Chinese Tubie who is economical and is unwilling to enjoy his or her life (1)</p> <p>someone who has never traveled abroad before (1)</p> <p>such a poor Chinese (1)</p> <p>Chinese “tubie”(ordinary being) (1)</p> <p>a Chinese saver (1)</p> <p>a old-fashion Chinese (1)</p> <p>a China rustic man (1)</p> <p>“China Tubie”(Local turtles,a kind of nickname of someone who don’t know a lot of things) (1)</p> <p>a “peasant” (1)</p> <p>a poor Chinese (1)</p> <p>a traditional Chinese (1)</p> <p>a unwealthy Chinese (1)</p> <p>a rustic (1)</p> <p>a poor Chinese guy (1)</p> <p>a poor guy from China (1)</p>
3	SN	<p>Chinese wood louse (1) (SOM)</p> <p>our Chinese folk (1)</p> <p>a native Chinese (1)</p>	<p>such a Chinese woodlouse (1) (SOM)</p> <p>this Chinese wood louse (1) (SOM)</p> <p>a native Chinese (1)</p> <p>China's soil terrapin (1)</p>
4	NT	<p>the “Tu Bie” (1)</p> <p>Chinese tubie (1)</p> <p>... (1)</p>	<p>... (2)</p> <p>Chinese people (2)</p> <p>Chinese (1)</p> <p>a Chinese (1)</p>

Note. SR= Right Specification; SW=Wrong Specification; SN= Null Specification; SOM=Sign-oriented Mistakes; NT= Not Translated.

The data in Table 4.49 show differences favouring the experimental group for Right Specification and for not having Wrong Specification and “Not translated”, whereas performances on Null Specification, Sign-oriented Mistakes were similar.

Table 4.49. Explication Frequencies for Key Point 20

Group	Right Specification	Wrong Specification	Null Specification	Sign-oriented Mistakes	Not Translated
Experimental (n=44)	19 43.18%	19 43.18%	3 6.82%	1 2.27%	3 6.82%
Control (n=54)	18 33.33%	26 48.15%	4 7.41%	2 3.70%	6 11.11%

Key Point 21: 住旅馆 (*zhu lvguan*)

In the source text, Key Point 21 “住旅馆 (*zhu lvguan*; to live in a hotel)”, a verb phrase, is put at the beginning of Sentence 3 before “每天早上要在枕头放一两个美元 (every morning, need to put one or two US dollars on the pillow”, which means in the source text, there is no subjects or connectors. To render it into syntactically correct English, the subject and the connector has to be added. As indicated in Table 4.50, the addition of conjunctions including “when” and “if” and of the subject “you”, “we” or “travellers” were tagged as Right Addition. If a conjunction was not added, the verb of “live” or “stay” should be used in the present participant form followed by its logical subject “you”.

In terms of Wrong Addition, there were a variety of mistakes. The first type of mistakes was the addition of the wrong subject “I”. In the source text, the author is

describing a common phenomenon of tipping in the US, so the subject added should be one in the general sense, for example, “you”, “we”, or “travellers”. The second type was dangling mistakes. For example, in “Living in hotel, one or two dollars...”, “one or two dollars” cannot be used as the logical subject of “living”. Other mistakes include wrong noun forms as in “in hotel” and wrong prepositions as in “at the hotel”.

As far as Null Addition is concerned, no connectors or subjects were added and the base form of the verb “stay” was used, which is a mechanical copying of the Chinese syntactic pattern or a reflection of a sign-oriented approach.

Table 4.50. Tagged texts of Key Point 21

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
1	AR	When staying in a hotel, you (2) In the hotel, you (2) When you live in a hotel (2) When living in the hotel, you (1) when you live in the hotel (1) When staying in hotels, you (1) When living in hotels, we (1) in hotels; you (1) In a hotel, you need (1) in the hotel, we (1) Staying in a hotel, you (1) Living in a hotel, you (1)	In a hotel (2) When staying at hotel, you (1) When in the hotel, you (1) when in the hotel (1) When you stay in a hotel (1) when you live in the hotel (1) When staying in a hotel, travellers (1) In a hotel, you (1) In a hotel, we (1) if you stay in the hotel (1) Staying in a hotel, you (1) in your hotel room (1) in the hotel (1)

Note. AR= Right Addition.

Table 4.50. Tagged texts of Key Point 21 (continued)

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
2	AW	<p>In hotel, you (3) In hotels, i (2) when I lived in a hotel (1) When I lived in hotel (1) Staying at a hotel, I (1) When I in a hotel (1) When I live in a hotel (1) when I stay in a hotel (1) When living a hotel, you (1) when staying at (1) When staying in a hotel, I (1) when I stayed at hotel. (1) When I staying in a hotel (1) when live in the hotel (1) In a hotel, every morning I (1) In a hotel, I (1) in hotel I (1) At hotel, I (1) If staying in hotels, I (1) if you stay at the hotel (1) in the hotel, I (1) Living in hotels, in every day's morning, I (1) Living in the hotel, every morning, i (1)</p>	<p>In hotel (3) living in the hotel, I (2) when live in hotel (1) When lived at the hotel, I (1) When I stay in a hotel (1) When I stay at a hotel (1) when I was living in the hotel (1) when I stayed in hotel (1) When staying in a hotel, I (1) When staying in a hotel, one or two dollar (1) When you are at a hotel (1) when staying in a hotel (1) when stay at a hotel (1) when staying at a hotel room (1) when staying at the hotel (1) When I lived in hotel (1) if I stay in a hotel. (1) If you live in hotel (1) Living in a hotel, it (1) At the hotel (1) I (1) I wake up in the hotel (1) Living in hotel, one or two dollars (1) When I in a hotel (1) When I live in a hotel (1) when I live in that hotel (1) Living in the hotel, I (1) staying at a hotel you (1) Staying in a hotel, I (1)</p>
3	AN (SOM)	Stay in hotel, you (1)	<p>Stay in a hotel (3) Stay in the hotel (1)</p>
4	NT	... (2)	... (4)

Note. AW= Wrong Addition; AN= Null Addition; SOM=Sign-oriented Mistakes; NT=Not Translated.

As indicated in Table 4.51, the experimental group performed better for a higher rate of Right Addition and for lower rates of Null Addition (Sign-oriented Mistakes) and “Not Translated, while the two groups’ performances on Wrong Addition were similar.

Table 4.51. Explication Frequencies for Key Point 21

Group	Right Addition	Wrong Addition	Null Addition (Sign-oriented Mistakes)	Not Translated
Experimental (n=44)	15 34.09%	26 59.09%	1 2.27%	2 4.55%
Control (n=54)	14 25.93%	32 59.26%	4 7.41%	4 7.41%

Key Point 22: 嗓子冒烟 (*sangzi maoyan*)

Key Point 22 “嗓子冒烟 (*sangzi maoyan; the throat is smoking*)” is a vivid description of the degree of thirst. If the sentence is translated into “I won’t buy a bottle of water, even when my throat is smoking”, the target reader may or may not understand the core message of “extreme thirst” implied in the vivid Chinese expression, so it might be advisable to clarify it, for example by translating it into “I won’t buy a bottle of mineral water, even when I’m so thirsty that my throat is at the edge of smoking”. Therefore, Key Point 22 was selected to identify whether the participants chose to employ clarification to explicate the message of “being thirsty”.

As can be seen in Table 4.52, in the cases of Right Clarification, the message of “thirst” was made clear and expressed in a number of ways, for example, “I am dying of thirst”, “I am parched”, and “my throat seems like burning”. As regards “Right Clarification+ Inaccuracy”, it refers to a case in which the message of “thirst” was conveyed but expressed in an unnatural or inaccurate way. For example, “in an

extremely thirsty situation” is an unnatural expression and in “whose throat is dry and thirst”, “thirst” should be used in its adjective form “thirsty”, but even so, “thirsty” cannot be used to describe “throat”, so they were both tagged as “Right Clarification+ Inaccuracy.

For those cases of Wrong Clarification, the participants tried to interpret the Chinese expression “喉咙冒烟 (my throat is smoking)” in one way or another, but in a wrong way. For example, “have a sore throat”, “I am hot”, and “a spark in my throat” all failed to convey the message of “being thirsty”.

As far as Null Clarification is concerned, the Chinese expression “喉咙冒烟” was translated literally without further explanation of its exact meaning; those cases of Null Clarification were perceived as sign-oriented mistakes.

Table 4.52. Tagged texts of Key Point 22

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
1	CR	very thirsty (4) though I could drink the sea dry (1) thirsty (1) I’m extremely thirsty (1) when thirsty (1) would rather bear extreme thirst (1) when I’m parched (1) when I am dying of thirst (1) when I feel thirsty (1) I thirst terribly as if the throat is smoking (1) even if my dry throat seems like burning (1) even though I am so thirsty that I have a sore throat (1) Even if I am thirsty to death (1) deadly thirsty (1) even if I am so thirsty (1) even when I feel a raging thirst (1)	very thirsty (4) thirsty (2) parched (2) so thirsty (2) dying of thirst (2) extremely thirsty (2) when thirsty (1) my throat is parched (1) when I am thirsty to death (1) terribly thirsty (1) suffering thirst (1) feel thirsty (1) I am parched (1) die of thirst (1) I am parched and it seems like the throat is smoking (1) in excessive thirst (1)

Note. CR= Right Clarification.

Table 4.52. Tagged texts of Key Point 22 (continued)

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
1	CR	I feel thirsty to death (1) even when i am very thirsty (1) even though I'm super thirsty (1) even though my parched throat seems ready to smoke (1)	my throat is burning (1) I am very thirsty (1) I feel a raging thirst (1)
2	INA	in the thirstiest situation (1) in an extremely thirsty situation (1) whose throat is dry and thirst (1) when I am really thirst (1) extreme thirsty (1) died of thirsty (1) in a very thirty situation (1) I was thirsty to die (1)	my throat is so dry that smokes (1) in the most thirsty situation (1) when I dying of thirst (1) thirsted terribly in China like a spark in my throat (1) extremely thirst (1) appease extreme thirst (1) I'm very parched (1) I thirsty (1) even when I was so thirsty as if my throat was burning (1)
3	CW	even though I have sore throat (2) even when I feel dry to die (1) even when it is very hot (1) when i got a heavy sore throat (1) my throat was going fire (1) die for thirst (1) a spark in my throat (1) even though there having a spark in my throat (1) even their throat hoarse (1) I'm very hot and my throat smoke (1)	my throat is likely going to fire (1) my throat gets sore (1) my throat are going to fire (1) terribly thirsty (1) when I was sick (1) when I have a sore throat (1) when I am hardly thirsty (1) even when I was sick (1) being dead for water (1) a spark in my throat (1) having a cobweb on the throat (1) it was not very thirsty (1) in hot summer (1) hot (1)
4	CN (SOM)	even if my throat is smoking (1)	throat smoke (1) my throat just like going to smoke (1) my smoke throat (1)
5	NT	... (1)	... (1)

Note. CR= Right Clarification; INA= Inaccuracy; CW= Wrong Clarification; CN= Null Clarification; SOM=Sign-oriented Mistakes; NT= Not Translated.

The data in Table 4.53 show that the two groups performed similarly on Right Clarification, Inaccuracy, Wrong Clarification, Null Clarification (Sign-oriented Mistakes), and “Not Translated”.

Table 4.53. Explication Frequencies for Key Point 22

Group	Right Clarification	Inaccuracy	Wrong Clarification	Null Clarification (Sign-oriented Mistakes)	Not Translated
Experimental (n=44)	23 52.27%	8 18.18%	11 25%	1 2.27%	1 2.27%
Control (n=54)	27 50%	9 16.67%	14 25.93%	3 5.56%	1 1.85%

Key Point 23: Foregrounding 4

As the source text of Sentence 4 of Assignment 3 and its gloss below reveal, there is a juxtaposition of 8 sentences separated by commas and without explicit cohesive ties. If it is translated word for word, it will be highly unreadable. In fact, to translate Sentence 4 into readable English, it could be divided into 4 sentences as indicated in the reference translation below; particularly, foregrounding could be employed to highlight the message of “I cannot understand why they don’t raise the price directly” which serves as a topic sentence in this part, as the 3 sentences that follow it are further explanations of “my puzzle” expressed in the first sentence.

Source Text of Sentence 4 of Assignment 3: “我特别不能理解, 干吗不直接把价格提高, 算小费除了麻烦, 而且让人有额外付出的感觉, 特别像我这样平时俭省惯了的人, 在中国自己嗓子冒烟了都舍不得买瓶矿泉水, 到了美国一伸手就得给人付出几美元, 还叫“小费”, 简直让我心头淌血。”(Zhang, 2010, p. 192) **(Gloss:** I especially can’t understand, why not raise the price directly, calculating tip is troublesome, moreover [it] gives you a feeling of extra pay, especially for an always frugal person like me, in China

[even when] [my] own throat is smoking, [I] am reluctant to buy a bottle of mineral water, in America [when] [I] extend [my] hand, [I] give a few dollars, [it] [is] called “small fee”, [it] really makes my heart bleed.)

Reference Translation: I cannot understand why they don’t raise the price directly. Calculating tips is troublesome. Moreover, it feels like it is an extra payout, especially for someone who is always frugal like me. In my home country China, I won’t buy a bottle of water, even when I’m so thirsty that my throat is at the edge of smoking. But when I’m in the United States, each time I have to pay several dollars, the so-called “small fee”, which gives me heartache.

Key Point 23 was intended to investigate whether the participants could employ foregrounding properly in their translations of Sentence 4 of Assignment 3. As shown in Table 4.54, only when foregrounding was employed and there were no mistakes could a translation be marked as Right Foregrounding and those cases with the right use of foregrounding but with one mistake or another were marked as “Right Foregrounding+ Inaccuracy”. For example, in Tagged Text 4 of the experimental group “It is hard for me to understand **that** why they cannot raise the price”, “that” is a redundant word and should be eliminated and in Tagged Text 6 of the control group “I don’t understand why not just raise the price, **getting rid of giving tip**”, “getting rid of giving tip” is redundant, and it contains grammatical mistakes.

Null Foregrounding (Sign-oriented Mistakes) refers to occasions when separate sentences were combined or juxtaposed, thus missing opportunity to highlight one of them and to use it as a topic sentence. For example, in Tagged Text 11 of the experimental group in Table 4.54 “I wonder why not increase the price directly **because** tipping is not only inconvenient but also...”, “because” was added to connect two originally separate sentences and in Tagged Text 10 of the control group “I

wonder why they don't raise price directly, tipping is inconvenient and make customers feel that...”, there was a juxtaposition of sentences separated by commas.

Table 4.54. Tagged texts of Key Point 23

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
1	FR	1. I can't understand why they don't just raise the prices directly. (1) 2. I totally can't understand why they just raise a price directly. (1) 3. I was strongly confused that why not just put up the price which include the tips. (1) 4. I'm very confused, why didn't put up the price. (1) 5. I really cannot understand that why not put up the price straightforward. (1) 6. I don't understand why not just raise the price, getting rid of giving tip. (1) ... <i>(31 tagged texts in total)</i>	1. I can't understand why they don't just raise the prices directly. (1) 2. I totally can't understand why they just raise a price directly. (1) 3. I was strongly confused that why not just put up the price which include the tips. (1) 4. I'm very confused, why didn't put up the price. (1) 5. I really cannot understand that why not put up the price straightforward. (1) 6. I don't understand why not just raise the price, getting rid of giving tip. (1) ... <i>(31 tagged texts in total)</i>
2	FW	7. This is really beyond my understanding. Why not simply hike the prices? (1) 8. This is beyond my comprehension. Why can't we raise the price directly? (1) 9. I really couldn't understand. Why not just simply raise the price? (1)	7. This is really beyond my understanding. Why not simply hike the prices? (1) 8. This is beyond my comprehension. Why can't we raise the price directly? (1) 9. I really couldn't understand. Why not just simply raise the price? (1)

Note. FR= Right Foregrounding; FW= Wrong Foregrounding.

Table 4.54. Tagged texts of Key Point 23 (continued)

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
3	FN (SOM)	<p>10. I wonder why they don't raise price directly, tipping is inconvenient and make customers feel that... (1)</p> <p>11. In particular, I cannot understand, why do not just raise the price, calculate a tip in addition to trouble, and... (1)</p> <p>12. I just can't understand at all why people do not just simply raise the price so as to save time calculating the tips. (1)</p> <p>13. I seriously can't understand the fact that many taxi drivers are the boss of themselves and why don't they directly increase the price as adding tip in? (1)</p> <p>14. In particular, I can't understand, why not to raise the price directly, calculate the tip not noly to add the trouble, but also let person feel extra pay (1)</p> <p>...</p> <p><i>(19 tagged texts in total)</i></p>	<p>10. I wonder why they don't raise price directly, tipping is inconvenient and make customers feel that... (1)</p> <p>11. In particular, I cannot understand, why do not just raise the price, calculate a tip in addition to trouble, and... (1)</p> <p>12. I just can't understand at all why people do not just simply raise the price so as to save time calculating the tips. (1)</p> <p>13. I seriously can't understand the fact that many taxi drivers are the boss of themselves and why don't they directly increase the price as adding tip in? (1)</p> <p>14. In particular, I can't understand, why not to raise the price directly, calculate the tip not noly to add the trouble, but also let person feel extra pay (1)</p> <p>...</p> <p><i>(19 tagged texts in total)</i></p>

Note. FN= Null Foregrounding; SOM= Sign-oriented Mistakes.

As can be seen from Table 4.55, the experimental group were more successful in Right Foregrounding and in not having Wrong Foregrounding and Null Foregrounding (Sign-oriented Mistakes).

Table 4.55 Explication Frequencies for Key Point 23

Group	Right Foregrounding	Wrong Foregrounding	Null Foregrounding (Sign-oriented Mistakes)
Experimental (n=44)	32 72.73%	2 4.55%	10 22.73%
Control (n=54)	32 59.23%	3 5.56%	19 35.19%

5) Assignment 4

In Assignment 4, five key points were chosen to find out whether the participants of the experimental and the control groups could use clarification, addition and specification properly. As indicated in the source text below, Key Point 24 “光棍节 (*guangun jie*; Singles’ Day or Bachelors’ Day)” was to check whether the participants were able to employ clarification to explicitate the plural form of “guangun” in their English target texts . Key Point 25 “爱情告白 (*aiqing gaobai*; confession of love)” was selected to investigate whether the participants could add the preposition “of” properly to translate the term into a natural English expression. Key Point 26 “相亲会 (*xiangqinhui*; blind date) was to find out whether the participants were able to clarify the singular or the plural form the expression. To find out whether the participants could use specification properly, Key Point 27 “四个 ‘1’ (*sige yi*; four ones)” was selected to find out whether the participants managed to render it to something that could accommodate the semantic logic embedded in the text. Finally, Key Point 28 “成了 (*chengle*; become)” was to check whether the participants could clarify the right tense of the verb.

(S1) “在中国大陆，每年的11月11日被称作“光棍节”(Key Point 24)。(S2) 因为这一天的日期有四个“光棍”一样的“1”，所以人们就形象地称其为“光棍节”。(S3) 光棍节之前只在大学校园流行，现在光棍节已经成为时尚青年们的一个特殊节日。(S4) 奇怪的是，光棍节也是一些人的爱情告白(Key Point 25)日。(S5) 很多人在这一天参加相亲会(Key Point 26)，甚至有人在这一天结婚。(S6) 这些人认为四个“1” (Key Point 27)不仅可以代表单身，还可以代表“唯一”。(S7) 除此之外，很多商家也在这一天搞促销活动以吸引消费者的注意。(S8) 为此，光棍节当天也成了(Key Point 28)全年中国人消费最多的一天。” (XDF, 2014, p. 191)

Key Point 24: “光棍节 (*guanggun jie*)”

“光棍节 (*guanggun jie*, Singles' Day)” was selected as Key Point 24 to check whether the participants could clarify the form of “*guangun*” as the plural in the English term, since it is a day for “singles” or “bachelors”, not just for “one single” or “one bachelor”. As indicated in Table 4.56, in the cases of Right Clarification, the term was translated into “Singles' Day” or “Bachelors' Day”. With regard to “Inaccuracy”, the term was translated into “Singles Day” without an apostrophe for “Singles”. As far as Null Clarification is concerned, the form of “*guanggun*” was not clarified as the plural in the English text.

Table 4.56. Tagged texts of Key Point 24

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
1	CR	Singles' Day (13) Bachelors' Day (1)	Singles' Day (14)
2	INA	Singles Day (3) the Singles Day (2) the Single's Day (1) single men or women's festival (1) Sticks' Day (1)	Singles Day (20) the Singles' Day (1)
3	CN (SOM)	Single's Day (6) Single Day (5) Bachelor Day (3) the Single's Day (2) The Single Festival (1) The Single Day (1) Bachelor's Day (1) the single day (1) Guanggun day (1)	Single Day (7) Single's Day (6) the Single Day (1) the Single's Day (1) the "Single Day" (1) One's Day (1) Bachelor Day (1) the "Single's Day" (1)

Note. CR= Right Clarification; INA= Inaccuracy; CN= Null Clarification; SOM= Sign-oriented Mistakes.

The content of Table 4.57 reveals that the experimental group performed better with a higher rate of Right Clarification and a lower rate of Inaccuracy, while the control group did better with a lower rate of Null Clarification (Sign-oriented Mistakes).

Table 4.57. Explication Frequencies for Key Point 24

Group	Right Clarification	Inaccuracy	Null Clarification (Sign-oriented Mistakes)
Experimental (n=43)	14 32.56%	8 18.60%	20 46.51%
Control (n=54)	14 25.93%	21 38.89%	19 35.19%

Key Point 25: 爱情告白(*aiqing gaobai*)

In the Chinese source text, Key Point 25 “爱情告白 (*aiqing gaobai*; *love confession*)” is put before “日 (*ri*; *day*)” and used as its attribute. To translate it into natural English, “of” should be added and the whole phrase could be “(a day for) confession of love”. Key Point 25 was therefore intended to find out whether the participants could employ addition here to reproduce the Chinese expression into a natural English one.

Table 4.58 presents the frequencies of cases of Right Addition, Wrong Addition, Null Addition, Shift, and Inadequacy, with the tagged texts of each category provided. It should be noted that in addition to the cases of Right addition (“confession of love”) and of Null Addition (“love confession”), there were cases of “Shift” (“confess love” or “confess their love”), which involves the conversion of the part of speech from a noun to a verb. Moreover, there were cases of “Inaccuracy” with a variety of deviations from the Chinese source expression in terms of the conveyance of meaning. For example, “express love”, “declare love”, “show love” and other expressions listed in Table 4.58 are all not an accurate rendering of the meaning “confession of love”.

Table 4.58. Tagged texts of Key Point 25

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
1	AR	confession of love (2)	confession of love (3)
2	AN (SOM)	love confession (11)	love confession (17) love-confession (1)
3	SFT	confess their love (3)	confess their love (3) confess love (1)
4	INA	declare their love (3) express their love (3) a confession day (2) say love to others (1) reveal their romantic feelings to their infatuated person (1) make a confession (1) expressing their love to the special one (1) the love day (1) woo (1) show their love boldly (1) show love (1) show their love (1) expressing love for some people (1) express affections to the person he/she loves to end their single status (1) express love (1) bare their heart (1) confessed (1) express love to their lover (1) express their love to whom they love (1) expressed their love to loved one (1) express their affections (1) express their love to others (1)	express their love (6) show their love (3) say goodbye to their single lives (1) profess their love (1) say goodbye to their single lives (1) say 'I love you' to their lovers (1) the Valentines for some of the people (1) their confession day (1) show affections to their lovers (1) tell their special someone that they are the only "one" in their heart (1) loving confession (1) love announcement (1) bare their heart to lovers (1) bare their hearts (1) "Expressing Love Day (1) a profession of love (1) express their feelings for the person they loved (1) express their love to their lovers (1) becomes the Valentines for some of the people (1) express love (1) confession love (1)
5	NT	/	... (1)

Note. AR= Right Addition; AN= Null Addition; SOM= Sign-oriented Mistakes; SFT= Shift; INA= Inadequacy

The data in Table 4.59 show that an overwhelmingly low proportion of participants in both groups did not use addition properly. The experimental group performed better for having a lower rate of Null Addition, while the control group did better with a lower rate of Inadequacy.

Table 4.59. Explication Frequencies for Key Point 25

Group	Right Addition	Null Addition	Shift	Inadequacy	Not Translated
Experimental (n=43)	2 4.55%	11 25%	3 6.82%	27 61.36%	0 0%
Control (n=54)	3 5.56%	19 35.19%	4 7.41%	27 50%	1 1.85%

Key Point 26: 相亲会 (*xiangqinhui*)

Key Point 26 “相亲会 (*xiangqinhui*, blind date)” is in the segment of Sentence 5 “很多人在这一天参加相亲会…… (On this day, many people take part in a blind date...)”. As in Chinese the singular or plural form of this term is not indicated, Key Point 26 was to investigate whether the participants could clarify the form correctly. Those cases of using the right term “blind date” were grouped into the categories of Right Clarification, Wrong Clarification, and Null Clarification. In contrast, if other inaccurate terms other than “blind date” were used, it was marked as “...+ Inaccuracy”. Those cases of Right Clarification included the right translated term of “a blind date” and “blind dates” in which the singular form with the indefinite article “a” or the plural form was explicitated. However, if it was translated into “the blind date” with the singular form explicitated but with the definite article “the”, it was marked as Wrong Clarification; if it was translated into “blind date” without the singular or the plural form explicitated, it was regarded as Null Clarification. Of the cases of

Inaccuracy, quite a number were perceived as with Sign-oriented Mistakes, as in “blind date parties”, “parties “ is redundant and indicative of a literal rendering of “会” in the Chinese term.

Table 4.60. Tagged texts of Key Point 26

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
1	CR	a blind date (11) blind dates (3)	blind dates (7) a blind date (7)
2	CW	the blind date (5)	the blind date (1)
3	CN (SOM)	blind date (5) marriage interview (1)	blind date (17) “blind date” (1) matchmaking party (1) Blind Date Party (1)
4	INA	SOM: blind date parties (3) “blind date” parties (2) ‘blind date’ parties (1) "blind date" parties (1) “blind date” parties (1) “blind date” parties (1) a Chinese blind date party (1) ----- a match (1) a dating party (1) the blind dating activities (1)	SOM: 'blind date' parties (4) blind date parties (2) dating meetings (1) blind parties (1) ‘blind date’ parties (1) "blind date" parties (1) “blind date” parties (1) the Matchmaking fair (1) the blind date parties (1) ----- the unmarried-party (1) the blind dating (1) attend a date (1) a blind-date (1) date with strangers (1)
5	NT	... (1)	... (1)

Note. CR= Right Clarification; CW= Wrong Clarification; CN= Null Clarification; SOM=Sign-oriented Mistakes; INA= Inaccuracy; NT= Not Translated

As indicated in Table 4.61, the experimental group performed better for having Right Clarification and for not having Null Clarification, Inaccuracy, and Sign-oriented Mistakes, while the control group had a lower rate of Wrong Clarification.

Table 4.61. Explication Frequencies for Key Point 26

Group	Right Clarification	Wrong Clarification	Null Clarification	Inaccuracy	Sign-oriented Mistakes	Not Translated
Experimental (n=43)	14 32.56%	5 11.63%	6 13.95%	13 30.23%	16 37.21%	1 2.33%
Control (n=54)	14 25.93%	1 1.85%	20 37.04%	25 46.30%	33 61.11%	1 1.85%

Key Point 27: 四个“1” (sige “1”)

To translate Key Point 27 “四个‘1’ (sige ‘1’; four ‘ones’) ” well, we have to examine it in its co-text or the sentence it is in.

Source Text of Sentence 6: 这些人认为四个“1”不仅可以代表单身，还可以代表“唯一”。 (Gloss: These people think four “1s” can not only stand for being single, but also stand for “only”.)

Reference Translation: They believe that each of the four “ones” of the date not only means “a single”, but also “the only one”.

As indicated in the Chinese source text and its gloss above, “four 1s”, though semantically plural, is used to stand for being single and “only”, which is not logically acceptable in English if it is translated literally. In the reference translation, Key Point 27 is translated into “each of the four ‘ones’”, which specifies the number to something singular, thus achieving logical consistency with what it stands for. Therefore, Key Point 27 was selected to investigate whether the participants could use specification to straighten out the logic in the English target text. As regards Right Specification, it refers to a case when the subject, a translation of Key Point 27, was specified to be singular so that it could be logically in line with the message that

followed. For Null Specification, the translations of Key Point 27 were in its plural form just like the Chinese source text and thus were not consistent with what it meant to represent.

Table 4.62. Tagged texts of Key Point 27

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
1	SR	<p>the number '1' not stands for single, but for 'unique' (1)</p> <p>the number "1" not only can represent a single man but also an exclusive love (1)</p> <p>ONE mean single as well as unique (1)</p> <p>"1" means the one that is Mr Right. (1)</p> <p>Arabic numeral "one" not only represent singleton, but also imply meaning of uniqueness (1)</p>	<p>the "1" not only represent the meaning of being single, but also symbolizes the meaning of being sole. (1)</p> <p>the "1" not only can represent single, but also represent the "Mr/Mrs right" (1)</p> <p>one can also mean "the only one" (1)</p> <p>"1" not only means single but "the only one" (1)</p> <p>figure "1" means not only single but also the one and only (1)</p> <p>the word "1" not only stand for "single" but also represents "the only one" (1)</p>
2	SN (SOM)	<p>the four "ones" not only represent "single" but also embody "only one" (1)</p> <p>the four "one" means "only one" instead of judging the number "1" as the "single stick" (1)</p> <p>the four digit of 1 not only represent single, but also means uniqueness (1)</p> <p>the four 1 is not only stand for SINGLE, but also represent ONLY (1)</p> <p>the four "1" not only can represent a single, but also it can represent the unique. (1)</p> <p>...</p> <p><i>(38 tagged texts in Total)</i></p>	<p>the four 'ones' of the date can also mean 'only one' (2)</p> <p>the four "1" not only representative "Single", can also represent "Unique" (1)</p> <p>the four "1" not only could represent a single, but also represent "the only" (1)</p> <p>the four "1" not only stand for being single but also for uniqueness. (1)</p> <p>the four "1" on behalf of the single, can also on behalf of the "only" (1)</p> <p>...</p> <p><i>(48 tagged texts in Total)</i></p>

Note. SR=Right Specification; SN=Null Specification; SOM=Sign-oriented Mistakes.

As shown in Table 4.63, the two groups performed similarly on Right Specification and Null Specification (Sign-oriented Mistakes), with rather low rates of the former and rather high rates of the latter.

Table 4.63. Explication Frequencies for Key Point 27

Group	Right Specification	Null Specification (Sign-oriented Mistakes)
Experimental (n=43)	5 11.63%	38 88.37%
Control (n=54)	6 11.11%	48 88.89%

Key Point 28: 成了 (*chengle*)

Key Point 28 “成了 (*chengle*; became)” was to examine whether the participants had clarified the right tense of the verb.

Source Text of Sentences 7 and 8: “除此之外，很多商家也在这一天搞促销活动以吸引消费者的注意。为此，光棍节当天也成了全年中国人消费最多的一天。(XDF, 2014, p. 191)” (Gloss: Besides, many businessmen do promotion activities to attract consumers’ attention. Therefore, Bachelors’ Day also **became** Chinese people’s most consumption day in the whole year.)

Reference Translation: Besides, on this day many businessmen have sales promotions to attract consumers. Therefore, Singles’ Day **has become** a day when Chinese people spend the most in the whole year.

As indicated in texts above, Sentence 7 mentions the cause, while Sentence 8 states the effect. As an expository essay, the text introduces Singles Day, so the general tense should fall into the present category. If “成了” was translated literally into the past tense, there would be an inconsistency of tense throughout the text. Besides, as the effect of “becoming a day when Chinese people spend the most in the whole year” indicates an influence on the present, the present perfect tense is more suitable. Key Point 28 was therefore selected to explore how the participants

translated “成了” and whether they were able to employ clarification with the right tense.

Table 4.64. Tagged texts of Key Point 28 Table 4.28 Tagged Texts of Key Point 28

No.	Name	Tagged Text (Frequency)	
		Experimental Group	Control Group
1	CR	has become (13) has annually reached (1)	has become (14) has also become (5) has been (1)
2	CW	becomes (5) became (2) is (2) the daily consumption in China reaches... (1) Singles' Day is the day... (1) Singles' Day turns out... (1) Singles' Day is also the day... (1) the Singles' Day owns the highest consumption (1) would usually create the most handsome daily consumption (1) the Single's Day now is... (1) the most consumption was produced (1) the single day is also the day... (1) Singles' Day has the largest volume... (1) Chinese people spend the most money... (1) Guanggun day is the day... (1) “Singles' Day” has a record of... (1) Chinese people spend most money... (1)	becomes (8) is (7) became (5) makes the 'Singles Day' become (1) Singles Day is the day... (1) on single day the largest consumption of the whole year will come out (1) it became the day... (1) “Singles Day” happened to be... (1) has become (1) causes (1) had become (1)
3	CN (SOM)	Single's Day become (1) the Single Day become... (1) the single's day become... (1) “Bachelor Day” also become the day... (1) Bachelor Day also become (1) it turn into (1)	become (2) the Single Day become... (1) the Single's Day become... (1) Singles Day become... (1) the Single Day also become (1)

Note. CR=Right Clarification; CW= Wrong Clarification; CN=Null Clarification; SOM=Sign-oriented Mistakes.

The data in Table 4.65 reveal that the control group performed slightly better for having Right Clarification and for not having Wrong Clarification and Null Clarification (Sign-oriented Mistakes).

Table 4.65. Explication Frequencies for Key Point 28

Group	Right Clarification	Wrong Clarification	Null Clarification (Sign-oriented Mistakes)
Experimental (n=43)	14 32.56%	23 53.49%	6 13.95%
Control (n=54)	20 37.04%	28 51.85%	6 11.11%

Summary

To summarize the explication patterns reflected in the corpus of the participants' translation works of the five texts of four regular assignments, the rates of their accurate employment of the four strategic procedures (See Tables 4.66-4.69), of obligatory and optional explication (See Table 4.70) and of the five types of explication (See Table 4.71) are presented below.

As shown in Table 4.66, the overall accuracy rates are greater for the experimental group in terms of participants' employment of addition. Both groups' performances varied across key points and show no clear developmental pattern over time as opportunities progressed from Assignment 1 to Assignment 4. They did comparatively well at Key Points 1 and 12, but performed poorly at Key Points 14, 15 and 25.

Table 4.66. Accuracy Rate of Participants' Use of Addition Procedure

No.	Key Point	Text	Content	Procedure	OB/OP	Type	EG	CG
1	1	Assignment 1 Text 1	研究生 (yangjiusheng)	Addition	OB	Semantic	65.22%	39.62%
2	12	Assignment 1 Text 2	Subject "I"	Addition	OB	Syntactic	82.61%	56.60%
3	14	Assignment 2	鹿回头公园 (Luhuitou Park)	Addition	OP	Semantic	4.44%	0%
4	15	Assignment 2	Inter-sentential Addition	Addition	OP	Semantic	2.22%	3.77%
5	21	Assignment 3	住旅馆 (zhu lvguan)	Addition	OB	Grammatical	34.09%	25.93%
6	25	Assignment 4	爱情告白	Addition	OB	Grammatical	4.55%	5.56%
Mean							32.19%	21.91%

As indicated in Table 4.67, as regards the use of clarification, the overall accuracy rates are similar for the two groups. Both groups' performances varied across key points as well; they did relatively well at Key Points 5, 8, and 22, but particularly poorly at Key Points 3, 4, 9 and 10.

Table 4.67. Accuracy Rate of Participants' Use of Clarification Procedure

No.	Key Point	Text	Content	Procedure	OB/OP	Type	EG	CG
1	2	Assignment 1 Text 1	任务 (renwu)	Clarification	OB	Grammatical	39.13%	37.74%
2	3	Assignment 1 Text 1	专业实习 (zhuan'yeshixi)	Clarification	OB	Grammatical	2.17%	0%
3	4	Assignment 1 Text 1	环节 (huanjie)	Clarification	OB	Grammatical	17.39%	13.21%
4	5	Assignment 1 Text 1	享受 (xiangshou)	Clarification	OB	Grammatical	52.17%	60.38%
5	8	Assignment 1 Text 2	花盆 (huapen)	Clarification	OB	Grammatical	54.35%	49.06%
6	9	Assignment 1 Text 2	花 (hua)	Clarification	OB	Grammatical	6.52%	3.77%
7	10	Assignment 1 Text 2	Tense	Clarification	OB	Grammatical	13.04%	15.09%
8	18	Assignment 2	追逐 (Zhuizhu)	Clarification	OB	Grammatical	31.11%	35.85%
9	22	Assignment 3	嗓子冒烟 (sangzi maoyan)	Clarification	OP	Semantic	52.27%	50%
10	24	Assignment 4	光棍节	Clarification	OP	Semantic	32.56%	25.93%
11	26	Assignment 4	相亲会 (xiangqinhui)	Clarification	OB	Grammatical	32.56%	25.93%
12	28	Assignment 4	成了 (cheng le)	Clarification	OB	Grammatical	32.56%	37.04%
Mean							30.49%	29.50%

The data in Table 4.68 show that the overall accuracy rates are greater for the experimental group in terms of the employment of foregrounding; both groups did comparatively well at Key Point 23, but relatively poorly at Key Point 7.

Table 4.68. Accuracy Rate of Participants' Use of Foregrounding Procedure

No.	Key Point	Text	Content	Procedure	OB/OP	Type	EG	CG
1	7	Assignment 1 Text 1	Foregrounding 1	Foregrounding	OP	Syntactic	23.91%	16.98%
2	13	Assignment 1 Text 2	Foregrounding 2	Foregrounding	OP	Syntactic	43.48%	39.62%
3	19	Assignment 2	Foregrounding 3	Foregrounding	OP	Syntactic	40.00%	37.74%
4	23	Assignment 3	Foregrounding 4	Foregrounding	OP	Syntactic	72.73%	59.23%
Mean							45.03%	38.39%

As indicated in Table 4.69, the overall accuracy rates are higher for the experimental group with regard to the employment of specification; comparatively speaking, both groups performed well at Key Point 11, but poorly at Key Points 17, 16, and 27.

Table 4.69. Accuracy Rate of Participants' Use of Specification Procedure

No.	Key Point	Text	Content	Procedure	OB/OP	Type	EG	CG
1	6	Assignment 1 Text 1	“you” perspective	Specification	OP	Pragmatic	34.78%	22.64%
2	11	Assignment 1 Text 2	年(nian)	Specification	OB	Lexical	69.57%	58.49%
3	16	Assignment 2	黎族 (Lizu)	Specification	OB	Lexical	6.67%	7.55%
4	17	Assignment 2	“you” perspective	Specification	OP	Pragmatic	2.22%	3.77%
5	20	Assignment 3	中国土鳖 (zhongguo tubie)	Specification	OP	Lexical	43.18%	33.33%
6	27	Assignment 4	四个 '1'(sige '1')	Specification	OB	Semantic	11.63%	11.11%
Mean							28.01%	22.82%

Table 4.70 is a summary of Tables 66-69 from the perspective of the participants' performances in their use of obligatory and optional explicitation. It indicates that the

overall accuracy rates are greater for the experimental group in terms of both the use of obligatory explicitation and of optional explicitation.

Table 4.70. Accuracy Rate of Participants' Use of Obligatory and Optional Explicitation

OB/OP	N. of Key Points	Procedure	Type	EG	CG
OB	17	Clarification (10) Addition (4) Specification (3)	Grammatical (12) Semantic (2) Lexical (2) Syntactic (1)	32.67%	28.41%
OP	11	Foregrounding (4) Specification (3) Addition (2) Clarification (2)	Semantic (4) Syntactic (4) Pragmatic (2) Lexical (1)	31.98%	26.64%

Tables 4.71 is a summary of Tables 66-69 in terms of the participants' performances in the five types of explicitation, grammatical, lexical, semantic, syntactic and pragmatic. The overall accuracy rates are all greater for the experimental group on the types. Both groups performed comparatively well on syntactic explicitation, but relatively poorly on pragmatic explicitation.

Table 4.71. Accuracy Rate of Participants' Use of 5 Types of Explicitation

Type	N. of Key Points	Procedure	OB/OP	EG	CG
Grammatical	12	Clarification (10) Addition (2)	OB (12)	26.64%	25.80%
Lexical	3	Specification (3)	OB (2) OP (1)	39.81%	33.12%
Semantic	6	Addition (3) Clarification (2) Specification (1)	OP (4) OB (2)	28.06%	21.74%
Syntactic	5	Foregrounding (4) Addition (1)	OP (4) OB (1)	52.55%	42.03%
Pragmatic	2	Specification (2)	OP (2)	18.50%	13.21%

Chapter 5: Discussion

Within the context of the two research questions that framed the study and the data generated through the methodology applied, what follows is a discussion of the findings and their implications.

How the Data Inform a Response to Research Question 1

The data from this study endorse a positive response to the research question. Participants were more effective in their post-test translation performances in terms of the smoothness parameter and the total score showing statistically significant gains where their peers in the control group were not. Further, they showed statistically significant improvement in similar comparison with their peers and their own pre-test performances in effective employment of pragmatic explicitation in the texts.

Survey data with open-ended questions, translation journals, interview data and TAPs all indicate that participants in the experimental group now had an elaborate voice on explicitation, verbalising its multifarious dimensions as a translation technique. This reflected their awareness of using this translation technique in translating.

On the other hand, there was no significant improvement in terms of the faithfulness parameter and no participants got an “excellent” or “good” score in

ratings of their translations. Most participants had further improvement trajectories as the majority had obtained only a “passable” score. Secondly, the bulk of participants in the experimental group seemed to realise this as they reported not yet being skilful in employing what they knew of explicitation. Thirdly, participant’s self-assessments appear to be accurate as an analysis of their TAPs and their translations revealed that there was a gap between what they knew about explicitation and how they performed in producing target texts.

Discussion of Findings for Research Question 1

The statistically significant gains made by those who received the explicitation-focused intervention reflected greater pragmatic explicitation, smoothness and overall competence in participants’ subsequent translating. Moreover, these participants produced far more elaborate and detailed discussion of explicitation than their peers suggesting their greater knowledge of the concept - and their consciousness of using it in translating.

Nonetheless, despite the gains in knowledge and technique made by those taught about explicitation, the advantage had not yet included the faithfulness dimension of their translating. The “Explicitation-taught” participants performed better on this dimension of effectiveness but the improvement was not statistically significant in comparison with their peers who had received only the business-as-usual instruction during the intervention period. This suggests either that

the direct instruction while effective, needs to be adapted if its outcomes are to stretch further to include faithfulness. More guidance, time and practice may be needed if more fulsome benefits are to result from concentrated instruction about explicitation.

A further indication that the appreciable gains apparent in this study may not yet have been as productive as educators would want them to be, was that experts' rankings of the quality of translations did not differentiate those of the "Explicitation-taught" group as "better". Rather, the majority of the total score levels obtained were rated as "passable" rather than "good" or "excellent".

"Explicitation-taught" participants seem to have been aware of these tempering factors. The majority of them acknowledged by the end of the instructional period that they were still unable to employ explicitation skilfully in their translation. Their acknowledgement might reflect an underconfidence rather than an accurate perception of what they were doing when translating given that the data of volunteers' TAPs and their corresponding translations illustrated that they had only limited awareness of their performances. Nonetheless, it is an important outcome because regardless of whether it is an issue of confidence, skill or both, self-perception plays a significant role in shaping engagement, effort and application and resulting levels of proficiency (Bandura, 1977; Ng, Bartlett, & Elliott, 2018). Thus, it would not be surprising that those who struggled with their own perceptions of efficacy might respond even more positively if guided to more affirmative

self-perceptions as part of future teaching on the nature and strategic purposes of explicitation.

These findings are further discussed in the following five sections.

What May Have Happened between the Pre-test and the Post-test

The significant improvement that “Explicitation-taught” participants made in their employment of pragmatic explicitation and in the smoothness and total score of their translations could be attributed to their response to direct instruction. The rationale is that the nine weeks of their different teaching intervention had proven to be effective, at least in relation to the measures mentioned above, and that those taught the categorisation of explicitation, learned and used it. The positive comparisons with their own earlier performances and those of their peers in the business as usual instructional treatment indicates that the way in which explicitation had been categorised, explained and practiced is a reasonable explanation for the beneficial outcomes they obtained. The categorisation emphasised the practicality and multidimensionality of explicitation as a translation technique differentiated into obligatory and optional explicitation where procedures of addition, clarification, foregrounding, and specification could apply, and, where opportunities for application would be accessible grammatically, lexically, semantically, syntactically, and pragmatically. The deconstruction of the explicitation concept into so many cells of potential application feasibly had drawn the “Explicitation-being taught” participants’ attention to explicitation as a practical and effective tool.

Additionally, improvement in translation performances might be attributed in part to reinforcement of participants' growing naming and appreciation of explicitation through their writing of translation journals for each regular assignment using guiding questions directed at their explication of explicitation. Their journaling task was quite different from that used in the business-as-usual group where participants' guiding questions related to translation techniques in general and the grammatical, lexical, semantic, syntactic, and pragmatic dimensions might have drawn the participants' attention to explicitation as a practical tool with multifarious dimensions.

To account for why there was no statistically significant improvement for "Explicitation-taught" participants in terms of the faithfulness parameter, it is probably desirable to analyse what comprises faithfulness. As recounted in Chapter 3, faithfulness involves an accurate and appropriate reproduction of messages intended to be conveyed in the source text and an adequate representation of the tone and style with reference to the source text but done in line with the norm of the target language. It follows that to perform well on the quality of faithfulness, a translator needs to refer to messages in the source text, but at the same time take the norm and logicity of the target language into account. An analysis of the two Chinese source texts, "情侣路 (Lovers' Road)" and "东澳岛 (Dong'ao Island)" indicates that in terms of the conveyance of information, there are several likely challenges for a student translator. As the study participants were not allowed to consult dictionaries or the Internet when translating the assigned tasks, translation of some words and

expressions might have been problematic, for example “珠海渔女 (Zhuhai Fisher Girl Statue)” in “Lovers’ Road” and “森林覆盖率 (the forest coverage rate)” in “Dong’ao Island”. An inadequate translation of key words in the source text might well result in failure to convey key information in the source text. This would then have reduced points awarded in the marking. In sentence-level, each of the source texts has a sentence expressed in poetic Chinese language. To translate such sentences would challenge even professional translators let alone language students beginning their studies of translation. Another challenge would be consideration of logic in the English language, which is an advanced skill for professional translators. For example, in the Chinese source text of “Lovers’ Road”, the road is referred to as “珠海城市的标志性建筑之一 (one of the signature buildings)”, but since a road is not a building, if it is handled literally, the translation would be illogical in English. Likewise, in the Chinese source text of “Dong’ao Island”, “南沙湾、大竹湾、小竹湾 (Nansha Bay, Dazhu Bay, and Xiaozhu Bay)” are referred to as “三个沙滩 (three beaches)”. In English if a bay is referred to as a beach, it is illogical. In short, translation as a complex performance task (Schäffner & Adab, 2000) or “an extremely complex process” (Göpferich, 2004, p. 35), involves complex, intricate thinking (Liu, 2017; Miao & Zhu, 2010). So in facing complexity and intricacy in text challenges in the research instruments illustrated above participants clearly needed more time, intensive trial and error and guided practice and reflection on the faithfulness quality, than what seems to have been adequate for smoothness.

The differences in proficiency on smoothness and faithfulness may account also for the total score levels of participants in both groups falling into the quality category of “passable”. Smoothness has a bearing on the readability of the target text, which to a great extent depends on whether the translator can achieve accuracy in vocabulary, syntax, and grammar (Changchunteng, 2005). It follows that smoothness has much to do with the students’ mastery of linguistic knowledge of the target language and such knowledge is more fundamental than that for faithfulness and participants in both groups had both prior exposure and the study semester exposure to the former.

None of the participants’ translations was rated as “excellent” or “good”. They were neither “perfect” nor “publishable” that could be put on the official website of the Culture, Sports, and Tourism Bureau of Zhuhai as stipulated in the translation briefs of the tasks. Analysed in relation to smoothness and faithfulness above, meeting difficulty of the source texts in terms of smoothness but not faithfulness, set a basis for appraisal that would have prejudiced quality in participants’ translation. Imperfection of the participants’ post-test scores most likely reflects their novice (Chesterman, 2000) or primary stage (Li, 2011; Wang, 2012) of translation competence in relation to mastery of the faithfulness quality.

Moving forward towards advanced stages of translation competence, proficiency, and expertise (Chesterman, 2000) or toward the target stage (Li, 2011), using specific training in explicitation and recognising expertise in a number of areas and skills is involved in effective translation (Schäffner & Adab, 2000), participants

from this study have shown that special attention in terms of time and guidance should be given to the faithfulness quality.

Open-ended Questions

Participants who received a teaching intervention on explicitation improved their understanding of explicitation as a multidimensional concept and their awareness of its application in translation. Few participants in either group initially defined explicitation well, other than mentioning its utility in bringing clarity connoted in the Chinese term “显化” to translation. This changed for the “Explicitation-taught” group following instruction with much broader and deeper explanation of the concept. Their improvement was largely due to their learning about explicitation and how to use it from opportunities in the instructional intervention, for example in lecture content of what it is, of where and of how knowledge of it could be applied, and its skills development by writing translation journals for their assignments guided by questions directed at encouraging them to reflect on its application in their translating.

However as previously reported, in contrast to an appreciating performance in translation, few of the “Taught-Explicitation” participants were confident that they were using it skilfully in Chinese-English translation. This indicates that a doing and self-appraisal gap existed where “knowing it” does not necessarily mean one can apply or use it well in practical situations. It follows that awareness of using the technique is merely a preliminary step, to be followed by intensive practice and

guided reflection so as to really internalise it with ease and comfort about using it to solve practical problems in translation. The need to attend to the confidence aspect of a new and important knowledge and skill set again lends support to the notion that translation is a complex activity (Göpferich, 2004; Liu, 2017; Miao & Zhu, 2010; Schöffner & Adab, 2000).

Likewise, the acquisition of explicitation is not a linear process, but a spiral one (PACTE, 2003). Kamenická (2007) believed that explicitation/implicitation is more a continuum than two separate concepts with a clear-cut demarcation. This depiction means novice translators or language students learning translation who have only vague knowledge of linear concepts of what lies ahead in their mastery of explicitation will be confronted by the indefinite rules as to when to or when not to use explicitation. In this sense, and within the limitations of the current study, findings suggest that explicitation, optional explicitation in particular, should not be taught as a translating strategy implemented by a set of absolute, prescriptive rules, but rather as an option use of which will raise their consciousness of when to and when not to explicitate. It follows that there might be much trial and error involved as students become skilful at it.

Translation Journals

An analysis of the translation journals of the control group indicated that most discussed amplification, a notion similar to explicitation, but in a one-sided or non-elaborated way, mentioning merely that it involved adding on elements, such as

addition of conjunctions, the subject, and connectives or addition of their explanations or interpretations of the message. That is to say, amplification, as a frequently used translation technique, was discussed by these participants who failed to capture the multidimensionality of amplification as a translation technique.

Their “Taught-Explicitation” peers’ discussions of explicitation in their translation journals stretched their record of the concept in profound and sophisticated ways that detailed foregrounding and grammatical explicitation as illustrated in Chapter 4. They had a sound awareness of its application – albeit they were not yet as confident as they rightly could have been of their skilfulness in using it.

Over half of the participants from both groups were meticulous in their discussions of important grammatical points in English, such as tense, singular or plural form of nouns, third person singular, and voice, that constitute “blind spots” for Chinese learners of English as they are not features of the Chinese language and are commonly the basis for translation mistakes (Zhou, 2001). Yet, the experimental group’s actual performances on the 12 key points related to grammatical explicitation (See Chapter 4, Table 4.71) revealed poor accuracy (a rate of 26.64%). It demonstrates that in addition to the performance-confidence gap previously discussed, there was also a gap between awareness and performance – a production deficiency between “knowing it” and “doing it” (Bartlett, 2010), that is yet another signal that the acquisition of a translation technique is not a linear process,

but involves informed engagement with “the sheer complexity of the demands that are made on the cognitive faculties and skills of the translator (Neubert, 2000, p. 3).”

Interview Data

Participants gave positive feedback during interviews about the instruction process through which they had adopted explicitation. One pointed out that explicitation was helpful in reminding them of grammar in English or in bridging the gap between cultures; another believed it was a technique to ensure logicality and naturalness in a whole text. Their positive feedback and descriptions of explicitation are consistent with findings from responses to the open-ended questions and the translation journals, i.e., the participants had an awareness of the application of this translation technique in translation. However, one participant acknowledged that he or she could not employ explicitation well enough as in many cases, she was not certain which type of explicitation should be used. This response corresponds to most of the participants’ admission that they could not use explicitation skilfully in their answers to Open-ended Question 3.

In the interview, Question 4 which corresponds to Key Point 15 was asked to find out whether participants realized there was an inter-sentential gap in the source text and whether if so, they would use addition to bridge it. As indicated in Chapter 4 (Table 4.39), only one of the 45 “Explicitation-Taught” respondents and two of 53 in the control group added a sentence to bridge the semantic gap. In the interview, three students acknowledged that they had not noticed the gap and three students

mentioned that they sensed something strange or unnatural, but had not dared to add an extra sentence. The students' answers reveal that they regarded the source text as something not to be critical of, but to be faithful to, which is to some extent in accord with Li's (2011) observation that novice translators generally take a bottom-up approach or mode of thinking to translation. Possibly they were so busy with the trivial details, particularly words and expressions, that they could not allocate effort to examine the source text from the macro-perspective, or it had not occurred to them that a translator is sometimes an editor and that in the interests of an explicitated target meaning a whole sentence could be added in the target text to ensure its readability and logicity.

Question 5 focused on how “嗓子冒烟 (The throat is smoking)” was translated. None of the six volunteers translated the expression literally, but all of them employed specification to convey the message of “being thirsty”. Four participants pointed out that they did not translate it literally, because they were afraid the English target reader might not understand the literal translation version, which reveals their awareness of the target readership. However, none of the six participants' translations of the expression conveyed the severity of the state of “being thirsty” well enough. Two accounted for their problems in translating this expression, revealing trouble in finding exact words or expressions in English. Their data suggests also that in a sensitive teacher when teaching explicitation to language students should anticipate and accommodate students' likely uncertainty in and struggles with basic elements of words and expressions. The students' expression of

difficulties reflects Zhou's (2001) prediction in pointing out, that mistakes in diction are very frequently made by students.

TAPs

All six volunteers recruited from the experimental group mentioned explicitation or terms related to it from time to time in their TAPs when they were translating the three texts of Assignments 1 and 2. This is also indicative of their awareness of employing this translation technique. That is to say, their awareness comments in TAPs are consistent with findings from other qualitative data mentioned above. However, a comparison of their accounts of using explicitation and the corresponding part of their translated texts reveals that there was a gap between awareness and performance and the application of explicitation was not the only factor to ensure satisfactory translations, just as Göpferich (2013) had warned, "the acquisition of competences always has to be seen against the background of other competences whose development may accompany the process. (p.74)"

How the Data Inform a Response to Research Question 2

In summary, participants who had received the explicitation intervention had demonstrated relatively better performances in applying it. However, both groups were inconsistent in their performances with relatively low average accuracy rates, all lower than 50% except syntactic explicitation for the experimental group. This

inconsistency and low accuracy rates reveals instability in participants' current levels of employment of explicitation from the perspectives of the four procedures in relation to obligatory and optional explicitation and in relation to the grammatical, lexical, semantic, syntactic, and pragmatic dimensions of their work in translation.

Discussion of Findings for Research Question 2

An analysis of the participants' translations of 28 key points selected from the five texts of four assignments reveals their inconsistent and unstable performances with relatively low average accuracy rates in employment of explicitation from the perspectives of four procedures in relation to obligatory and optional explicitation and the grammatical, lexical, semantic, syntactic, and pragmatic dimensions. Participants' inconsistent and unstable performances align with Englund Dimitrova's (2005) and Denver's (2007) finding that language students or translation students employed explicitation in an uncontrolled, random manner. The patterns detected in the data from participants' use of explicitation are discussed in the following sections.

Four Strategic Procedures

1) Addition

With regard to the employment of addition in the translations at the 6 key points, "Explicitation-taught" students outperformed their peers in the control group. The mean accuracy rates were 32.19% and 21.91%, respectively. There were fluctuations

in the performances of the participants in both groups across the 6 key points. On the whole, participants performed comparatively well in Key Point 12 “the Subject ‘I’” (EG=82.61%; CG=56.60%), and Key Point 1 “研究生 (postgraduate)” (EG=65.22%; CG=39.62%), which means for many of the students, especially for participants of the experimental group, it had not been difficult to identify the omitted subject “I” in the Chinese anecdote or to realize that “postgraduate” should be shifted into “postgraduate studies” to put after “two years of”.

Similarly, participants in both groups performed poorly in the translation of Key Point 14 “鹿回头公园 (Luhuitou Park)” (EG=4.44%; CG=0%), Key Point 15 “Inter-sentential Addition” (EG=2.22%; CG=3.77%) and Key Point 25 “爱情告白 (confession of love)” (EG=4.55%; CG=5.56%).

Key Point 14 “鹿回头公园 Luhuitou Park”, a Chinese culture-loaded term, could be used to check whether participants were translating with an awareness of cross-cultural communication. Since mere use of transliteration or the Chinese pinyin does not make much sense to the general English target reader, it is advisable that translators employ addition by supplementing the English meaning of the term. In the case of Key Point 14’s content this would help a reader build a connection between the name of the park and the story. However, few participants chose to provide the English explanation (*See Tables 4.36 and 4.37*). This indicates that most participants still lacked a fulsome awareness of the target readership, in this case in terms of cross-cultural communication. Even those who added the English meaning of the term in most cases failed to convey it accurately, which is probably due to the

prevalence of the readily-available terms, such as “Turn-round Deer Park” and “Turn-around Deer Park” on the Internet, and participants being too ready to accept what was available. In fact, an accurate version is “Deer Looking Back Park” and it might have been difficult for participants to capture the differences between “looking back” and “turning around”. If so, it is an indication that participants were yet not competent or confident enough in interpreting and conveying semantic nuances in their translation.

As far as Key Point 15 is concerned, only one of the 45 “Explicitation-taught” participants and two of 53 in the control group added a sentence to bridge the semantic gap in the narration of the story on “Luhuitou Park”. As the interview data reveal, there are overwhelmingly low accuracy rates in both groups, a performance possibly due to novice translators’ misconception that a source text should not be challenged or to taking a bottom-up approach as observed typical of novices by Li (2011), or both, any of which suggesting their examining the source text lacked a macro-perspective.

With regard to the focus of examination in Key Point 25 “爱情告白 (confession of love)”, in the Chinese source text it located before “日 (*ri*; day)” and used as its attribute. To translate it into natural English, “of” should be added. The whole phrase then would be “(a day for) confession of love”. In their translations of this key point, only 2 (4.55%) “Explicitation-taught” respondents and 3 (5.56%) from the control group employed addition to produce a translation of “confession of love”. That so few participants added “of” probably is due to the striking difference

between Chinese and English in the use of prepositions. In Chinese there only a few prepositions are used frequently, for example “关于 (about)” and “鉴于 (in view of)”. However, in English the number of frequently-used prepositions or prepositional phrases could be as many as 268 (Lian, 1993). Therefore, use of prepositions in English constitutes a challenge for any Chinese translators and due attention should be paid by translation instructors to students’ lack of familiarity and probable inadequacy in the use of English prepositions.

In summary, participants’ performances in the employment of addition in the translation of six key points used to focus an evaluation of their translating reveal inconsistency and fluctuations of a competent use of this strategic procedure. This finding lends further support to the observation that the acquisition of translation techniques and competence is not a linear process, but a spiral one as suggested previously (PACTE, 2003).

2) Clarification

As far as clarification is concerned participants’ translations of 12 key points largely related to grammatical explicitation were examined. The average accuracy rates for “Explicitation-taught” participants and their peers from the control group were very similar at 30.49% and 29.50%, respectively. The similarity at relatively low rates indicates that few in the sample had performed well in the use of clarification in their translation. Moreover, their employment of this strategic procedure varied from key point to key point. Both groups did comparatively well in

Key Point 2 “任务 (task)”, Key Point 8 “花盆 (flowerpot)”, Key Point 3 “享受 (enjoy)”, and Key Point 22 “嗓子冒烟 (The throat is smoking)”, which were focal points to check whether participants when translating would clarify the singular or plural form of a noun, the tense of a verb, or the meaning implied in a figurative Chinese expression.

For Key Point 2 “任务 (task)” may have been an easier task relative to others to decide on the plural form of the word as a list of tasks for postgraduates is mentioned in the source text. For Key Point 8 “花盆 (flowerpot), the co-text “a sprouted potato” indicates it would only be put in one flowerpot, so the probability is that it, too, was relatively easy to decide on the singular form. As regards Key Point 3 “享受 (enjoy)”, which was used to check whether participants would clarify the tense. As the objective clause is located after “希望 (hope)” with its connotation of something yet to occur, there is strong signalling for use of the simple future tense. Thus, probably because the co-text of each of these key points provides obvious cues a most participants employed clarification properly and effectively in these cases,.

On the other hand, the data also show quite a number of participants tended to use word-for-word translation, or adopted a sign-oriented approach, practices that accord with Li’s (2011) and Lörcher’s (1992a; 1992b; 1996; 2005) observation of novice translators’ predilections. For example, even for Key Point 5 “享受 (enjoy)”, apparent as it is for the use of the simple future tense, many participants did not use it. This could demonstrate a strong negative transfer effect from the Chinese

language and the students' inadequacy either in recognising the tendency and/or in overcoming it. Moreover, for Key Point 22 “嗓子冒烟 (the throat is smoking”, it might not have been too difficult for participants to discern the implied meaning of “being thirsty” from the co-text content elements of “the throat” and “buying water”. However, it should not be neglected that most failed to convey the severe degree of “thirst”, although they employed clarification to arrive at the fundamental meaning of “being thirsty”. This analysis of data from Key Points 5 and 22 reveals that there is context around translators' employment of clarification, in that it alone is not sufficient to guarantee the quality of translation. Without a good mastery of English to ensure accurate diction, translation is a hollow pursuit, a view corresponding to the belief that linguistic competence is fundamental to translation (Hu & Wang, 2018) and of the components of Chinese-English translation competence, linguistic competence, especially linguistic competence of English, is the fundamental core (Ma & Guan, 2010: 44).

At the opposite end of performance on the key point evaluation tasks, those in both groups did particularly poorly in their translation of Key Point 3 “专业实习” (EG=2.17%; CG=0%), Key Point 4 “环节(task; commitment)” (EG=17.39%; CG=13.21%), Key Point 9 (EG=6.52%; CG=3.77%) and Key Point 10 “Tense” (EG=13.04%; CG=15.09%).

Key Point 3 “专业实习”, literally meaning “professional practice” or “professional internship” in Chinese, should be translated into “internship” to make it

a natural expression in English. To keep “professional” is redundant and therefore unnecessary in English. However, only four “Explicitation-taught” participants and two from the control group translated it as “internship” and over 90% of both groups used wrong terms, particularly retaining “professional” or a similar adjective such as “specialty”, suggesting their approach was in line with Lörcher’s (1992a; 1992b; 1996; 2005) finding that novice translators tend to translate in a sign-oriented way.

Likewise, Key Point 4 “环节”, which literally means “link” in Chinese, but in the specific context, it actually refers to “task” or “commitment”, was opportunity for participants to translate into its specific contextual meaning. However, 7 (15.22%) of the “Explicitation-taught” participants and 16 (30.19%) of the control group showed word-for-word translation by translating Key Point 4 into “link” or mechanically following the original Chinese syntactic pattern, again reflecting a sign-oriented approach that might be expected of novice translators’ sign-oriented approach. Another example occurred with regard to Key Point 9, where 63.04% of the “Explicitation-taught” participants and 71.70% of those in the control group (See Tables 4.26 and 4.27 in Chapter 4) translated “花” word-for-word into “flower” instead of “plant”, which is indicative of participants’ strong tendency of a sign-oriented approach to translation. Additionally, participants showed a similar tendency to sign-oriented approach in their translation of Key Point 26 “相亲会”, which literally means “match-making meeting” or “match-making parties”. Although the natural expression in English would be “blind date”, many translated it as “blind

date party” or “match-making party” without overcoming the negative transfer (Chen, 2003; Li, 2011) from Chinese.

Key Point 10 also presented opportunity to assess participants’ performances regarding clarification of the tense, in relation to obligatory, grammatical explicitation. The assessment concerned whether they would use the past tense consistently throughout the English target text to reflect its anecdotal reference to a happening in the past. Few did. Only 13.04% of the “Explicitation-taught” participants and 15.09% of their peers from the control group used the past tense consistently throughout the texts. The majority’s poor performances in this regard probably were due to the tense of a verb being a typical feature in English, an analytical-synthetic language, whereas it is not indicated in Chinese an analytic language (Li, 2009). If so, it follows that it would take much attention, carefulness and conscious monitoring for a Chinese translator to recognise and negotiate this negative transfer (Chen, 2003; Li, 2011) from Chinese, and that it would constitute particular challenge for novice translators such as the students participating in this study.

3) Foregrounding

Four key points in Assignments 1-3 were selected to investigate whether participants employed foregrounding to translate juxtaposed sentences in the Chinese source text into English sentences with the key information highlighted. The accuracy rates in this regard were 45.03% and 38.39% respectively for the “Explicitation-taught” participants and their control group peers. Participants in both groups did

comparatively well in their translation of Key Point 23 (EG=72.73%; CG=59.23%), but relatively poorly in Key Point 7 (EG=23.91%; CG=16.98%).

To account for the fluctuations in participants' use of foregrounding I have presented below parts underlined in the source texts where opportunities were created for participants to apply foregrounding in the target text.

1) Key Point 7

Source Text: 研究生两年时间很短，任务很重，课程学习、专业实习、论文写作，每个环节都需要同学们付出努力与辛劳，但...

Gloss: Two years' postgraduate study [is] very short, tasks [are] very heavy, course learning, professional internship, thesis writing, each task needs students to make effort and hard work, but...

For Key Point 7, participants performed poorly with a low accuracy rate of 23.91% and 16.98% for the "Explicitation-taught" participants and the control group, respectively. It was probable that most were not aware that "任务很重 (Tasks are very heavy)" should be highlighted to serve as a topic sentence in foregrounding. This might be due to the fact that in the source text, the part to be highlighted is located after a sentence, i.e., "Two years' postgraduate study is very short", which sets up a very different sequence for those tending to word-for-word translation or the syntactic negative transfer from the source text. The high incidence of non-use of foregrounding indicates that most participants were still translating with a bottom-up mode of thinking described by Li (2011) as a barrier to treating translation from a macro-perspective.

2) Key Point 13

Source Text: 把一颗发了芽的土豆放在花盆里，都没有用土埋它，居然长出了茁壮的植株来。

Gloss: [I] put a sprouted potato on a flowerpot, [I] even didn't use soil to cover it, unexpectedly [there] grew a strong plant.)

As regards Key Point 13, accuracy rates for the sample in applying foregrounding were 43.48% ("Explicitation-taught" participants) and 39.62% (control group). Participants' responses indicated the task was not as challenging as that for Key Point 7, since the foregrounding of the part underlined required only the addition of "but" to indicate the adversative tie and to achieve emphasis. This demand meant that the original syntactic order of the source text could be kept which was more forgiving for those using bottom-up approaches.

3) Key Point 19

Source Text: “位于三亚市区以南 3 公里处，关于这个公园，有一个美丽动人的爱情故事。 (Wu & He, 2008, p.321)”

Gloss: Lying at the 3 kilometers' location south of Sanya downtown, about this park, there is a beautiful moving love story.

For Key Point 19 it is advisable to highlight “a love story” and put it in a topic sentence as the sentences that follow are an account of the love story. The accuracy rates at this key point were 40.00% (“Explicitation-taught” participants) and 37.74% (control group). In terms of the progression of information in the source text, if a translator follows the original order when constructing the target text, “the location” could be put in as an adjunct and the key information of “a love story” as a complete

sentence to highlight it. Employing foregrounding in this way might not be as demanding as that needed for Key Point 7.

4) Key Point 23

Source Text: “我特别不能理解，干吗不直接把价格提高，算小费除了麻烦，而且让人有额外付出的感觉，特别像我这样平时俭省惯了的人.....(Zhang, 2010, p. 192)”

Gloss: I especially can't understand why not just raise the price directly, calculating tip is troublesome, moreover [it] gives you a feeling of extra pay, especially for an always frugal person like me...

For Key Point 23, the accuracy rates are the highest achieved by participants, 72.73% for “Explicitation-taught” participants and 59.23% for those in the control group. Foregrounding the part underlined might be the least demanding of any of the key points , since the syntactic order of the Chinese source text can be kept and what a translator needs to do is to translate the part underlined into an independent sentence. To do so, use of a full stop will suffice.

A conclusion based on what is discussed above may be that participants' fluctuations in performance in the use of foregrounding for the four key points might have much to do with the extent to which they needed to change the original syntactic order of the source text in ways beyond what researchers (Li, 2011; Lörscher, 1992a; 1992b; 1996; 2005) regard as novice translators' tendency to take a sign/form-oriented approach when translating.

4) Specification

Specification was used at the six key points with average accuracy rates at 28.01% (“Explicitation-taught” participants) and 22.82% (control group). Participants’ performances were not consistent across different key points. Comparatively, both groups did well in their translation of Key Point 11 “年 (year)” (EG=69.57%; CG=58.49%), but poorly in Key Point 17 “‘you’ perspective” (EG=2.22%; CG=3.77%), Key Point 16 “黎族 (Lizu)” (EG=6.67%; CG=7.55%), and Key Point 27 “四个 ‘1’ (four ‘1’s) (EG=11.63%; CG=11.11%).

Both groups did comparatively well when employing specification in relation to lexical explicitation to translate Key Point 11 “年 (year)”. Most participants knew “year” here should not be literally translated but should be shifted to a specific term “the Spring Festival” or “the Chinese New Year”. “春节 (The Spring Festival)” as a hallmark holiday and household name in China was very familiar to the participants, who had probably already known its English equivalent, so it was understandable many of them translated it well. However, for Key Point 16 “黎族 (Li Nationality)”, lexical explicitation related but, the participants did poorly. This probably was because they had not yet mastered its corresponding English term and used only what was available in the dictionary - “Li Nationality”, not an accurate translation since “nationality” connotes “a country” and as novice translators they might not yet have formed a habit of being critical of what was suggested in something readily available such as their dictionaries.

Key Points 6 and 17 were both used to check whether participants would employ specification, specifically in relation to pragmatic explicitation by using the “you” perspective in the target text. Their performances were not consistent. For Key Point 6, accuracy rates were 34.78% (“Explicitation-taught” participants) and 22.64% (control group) which contrasted performances for Key Point 17, 2.22% (“Explicitation-taught” participants) and 3.77% (control group). The participants’ better performances in Key Point 6 possibly were due to the overtness of the author’s direct communication with the potential target readership as manifested in the Chinese source text of Assignment Text 1. Although other subjects, such as “同学们 (students)” and “大家 (all; everybody)”, instead of “you”, are used in the source text, it is not difficult to identify that the author is addressing the reader with these terms.

Key Point 17, Assignment 2 “Luhuitou Park” is a Chinese tourism text, throughout which the third person perspective is used. That is, there were no cues in the source text to indicate that the author involves the reader. Therefore, to shift perspective, a translator needs appropriate background knowledge to know the different norm in drafting an English tourism text. Participants, as novice translators, were unlikely to be aware of the norm of an English text type of this kind, so it is unsurprising that so few shifted the third person perspective to the second in the target text.

Key Point 27 “四个 ‘1’ (*sige yi*; four ‘1’s)” was selected to find out whether participants specified something that could accommodate the semantic logic embedded in the source text. In the Chinese source text, “four ‘1’s”, though semantically plural, is used to stand for being single and the “only” one. This is not logically acceptable in English if it is translated literally. So, to capture the logic correctly, it could be translated into “each of the four ‘ones’”. This would specify the number as singular, thus achieving logical consistency with what it refers to. As there is no distinction of something plural or singular in Chinese, it would be a great challenge for a Chinese translator to make a decision semantically related to the concept of being plural or singular. It follows that few of the participants as novice translators were able to ensure logicity in the target text by specifying Key Point 27 into something semantically acceptable concerning being plural or singular, in English.

Obligatory and Optional Explicitation

In terms of the employment of obligatory and optional explicitation, average accuracy rates were 32.67% (“Explicitation-taught” participants) and 28.41% (control group) for the former, and, 31.91% (“Explicitation-taught” participants) and 26.64% (control group) for the latter. Participants’ performances in both forms of explicitation across the key points indicate that they still had much to learn to further improve their employment of explicitation. The nine weeks of the teaching

intervention on explicitation might have been a good start, but to reach highest levels of competence such as *the expertise stage* (Chesterman, 2000), or *the target stage* (Li, 2011), further intensive professional training, commitment and confidence is needed.

As obligatory explicitation is largely about grammaticality and linguistic accuracy, participants' low levels of performance, to some extent, reflect that there was much room for improvement in their linguistic competence in English. Accordingly, a translation instructor of language students might guide them toward linguistic enhancement, since linguistic competence is the prerequisite component for successful translation (Hu & Wang, 2018; Ma & Guan, 2010) and acquisition of translation competence goes hand in hand with language acquisition (Bergen 2009). Zhou (2001) spoke to this relation in advocating that, “[S]trengthening the linguistic foundation of the English majors should be the central task of the Chinese-to-English translation course for [them] (p. 47)”. To do so, an instructor should draw students' attention to the essentiality of linguistic competence for translation and encourage them to make objective evaluations of possible gaps between their current competence and that required for *expertise* or *target* level professional translation, so that they can make informed decisions about whether they are on a career path to which they will commit, and if so, to plan trajectories of experience and learning to be a professional translator at the highest possible level of competence..

As far as optional explicitation is concerned, given the complexity of translation and a translator's subjectivity constantly at play in the translating process, it may not

be possible to propose clear-cut rules as to when to explicitate or when not to explicitate because of the subjectivity in the decision-making process. Nonetheless, some scholars have attempted to do so. In terms of general principles, for example, Jawad (2014) offered the *Principle of Maximin*. It “entails exerting maximum effort in order to guarantee minimal risk, cooperation with target readers and relevance to the target situation” (p. 64). Tan (2001a) also proposed a general principle of *Complete Meaning Conveyance* signifying that a translator should ensure the complete conveyance of meaning. His reasoning was that since linguistic form serves merely as a trigger of meaning, what should be explicitated depends on whether the complete conveyance of meaning can be ensured.

However, to follow either of these general principles, a translator still needs to rely on his or her subjective consideration to explicitate. Therefore, there is no absolute, prescriptive rule to be shared and learned by students, but rather they should be encouraged to approach explicitation as a valuable option and to explore when to and when not to explicitate. It follows that trial and error might be a useful basis from which students become appreciative, skilful and confident with it and the participants’ variable performances with optional explicitation in this study reveal they are in the process of trial and error rather than through it in the acquisition of this technique. Students’ voice reflected in participants’ translations in the study offers insights about possible teaching moments for instructors who are ready to listen. For example, For Key Point 1 “研究生 (postgraduate)” (See Table 4.10 in Chapter 4), besides those cases of adding “study”, “studies”, and “period”, many

participants kept the literal meaning of “postgraduates” as a group of people, but made it logical by adding “for”, “to”, “as” and “being”, or by using it as the subject and adding a verb as the predicate, such as “have” and “experience”. This is a good reflection of the acceptability of flexibility in translation because of the viability of acceptable alternate translations. Instructors might use discussion around such ideas to help students be more accepting of error as a stage in their improvement trajectories and in growing greater confidence about their translating development.

For example, as the employment of explicitation is experience-based and subjective in nature, students such as those who participated in the study could be provided with ample examples translated by expert translators and be guided to sum up the possible commonalities in the use of explicitation, so that they could learn from the experts’ model experience. Similarly, a number of target texts translated from the same source text by different translators with or without explicitation, or, with different levels of explicitation, could be presented. Students might evaluate the effects these types of variation have on them as readers and imagine whether such effects are transferrable to a prototype of the target reader. Such activities may help students better perceive target texts as dynamic rather than static and nurture an awareness of the target reader for their actual translation. In short, the acquisition of optional explicitation might be arduous, but students committed to excellence and careers in translation could be guided to explore and appreciate the “sweet bitterness” of the learning process.

Pedagogical Implications of the Study

Implications of the 5 Dimensions

As regards the five dimensions of grammatical, lexical, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic explicitation, several implications for explicitation teaching are discussed as follows.

Firstly, for grammatical, lexical, and syntactic explicitation, they are all associated with linguistic competence, whose importance as a fundamental component for translation (Hu & Wang, 2018; Ma & Guan, 2010; Zhou, 2001) can never be overestimated. A close look at the participants' translations reveals that there was much room for improvement in terms of the quality of English they used, which reflects a primary developmental stage of linguistic or translation competence they were at. In translation teaching, the instructor should, therefore, prepare himself or herself for this sort of inevitable interlanguage (Dai, 2005; Selinker, 1992) the students usually use in their English translated texts and guide them to appreciate the essential role linguistic competence plays in translation and to motivate them to get on the track of linguistic enhancement in or outside of classroom. On the other hand, as far as the Chinese/English language pair is concerned, the instructor should be fully aware of those possible "blind spots" most Chinese learners have in their use of the English language or of those stubborn common errors they make in their translation due to their unawareness of some striking differences in grammar,

vocabulary, and syntax between the two languages. Moreover, to raise the students' awareness of those "blind spots" or common errors and to improve their performances in translation, they should be guided to get into the habit of consulting English-English dictionaries or English corpora to ensure linguistic accuracy in their translations.

Secondly, semantic explicitation concerns shifts in meaning between the source text and the target text; especially when a literal rendering of the source text turns out to be unreadable or illogical in the target text, the translator needs to add something or clarify something so as to ensure a readable or logical target text. Meaning expressed in the source text is usually supposed to be conveyed faithfully into the target text and to novice translators, the addition or clarification of something might seem like the criterion of faithfulness was not abided by. In other words, novice translators' tendency of taking a sign-oriented way, to some extent, might be due to their misconception that the authority of the source text is not to be challenged; such a misconception could be revealed in the interview data: when three of the six interviewees mentioned that they sensed something strange or unnatural in the source text of Assignment 2, but they dared not add something extra to bridge the logical gap. Therefore, the difficulty in the teaching of semantic explicitation might lie in the ratification of this misconception of the students'. In this sense, students should be informed that the source text is to be referred to and for the target text to be based on, but it does not necessarily mean it is to be followed mechanically and that in fact shifts are frequently used in translation and therefore

there are a number of translation techniques as a summary of practical translation experience. Furthermore, as semantic explicitation is largely related to optional explicitation, due attention should be paid to the students' possible uncertainty about when to and when not to explicitate. Students should be encouraged to distinguish between overtranslation (Newmark, 2001) and acceptable semantic explicitation and to explore to what extent it is appropriate to add some extra information.

Thirdly, pragmatic explicitation, as a communication-oriented means to bridge a cultural gap, is achieved by involving the target readership as required by the target norm of a text type, or by making clear the context of situation in a conversation between two participants in a text. Key Points 6 and 17, related to the use of the "you" perspective in the target text, were typical cases of pragmatic explicitation. The participants' inconsistent performances in the two key points were probably due to the difference in the requirement of elaborate or profound thinking for the employment of pragmatic explicitation. According to Li (2011), at the target stage of translation competence, the translator produces a translated text in conformity to the norms of the target language and with adequacy in terms of communication, while at the primary stage of translation competence, the translator, unable to overcome negative transfer from the source language, produces a translated text with inadequacy in terms of communication. It follows that the employment of pragmatic explicitation involves a higher stage of translation competence and if it is not taught explicitly, students, with the negative transfer from the source language

and their habitual way of a sign-oriented approach might not be able to employ it consciously. However, a comparison of the occurrences of pragmatic explicitation in the pre-test and the post-test reveals that the participants in the experimental group performed better in terms of effective employment of pragmatic explicitation than their peers in the control group, which to some extent gives us the assurance that pragmatic explicitation, albeit demanding, is teachable and learnable. All in all, in terms of teaching pragmatic explicitation, students should, first of all, be guided to bear the target readership in mind and think about what shifts should be made in the target text to live up to the norm of the target language or the readers' reading expectations, so as to ensure effective communication. Secondly, students should be encouraged to take a macro perspective to the target text by weighing and balancing the possible effect a target text will make as a whole, in comparison to the source text. Last but not least, successful employment of pragmatic explicitation largely relies on an adequate contrastive knowledge of norms of text types in the two languages involved. The instructor should, therefore, cover knowledge in this regard in due course in their translation teaching.

Implications of a social constructivist approach

In a traditional translation classroom, the teacher speaks most of the time and the students listen passively. Limited interaction is promoted (Chen, 2005). A key problem is that the teacher adopts an oversimplified teaching method devoid of real social milieu that often neglects the complexity and dynamics of the translation process (Huang, 2011 & Lyu, 2010). A number of scholars (e.g., Gao & Wu, 2014;

Kiraly, 2001; Varney, 2009; Yang, 2004) consider a social constructivist approach to translation teaching as desirable and can be used to overcome the drawbacks of traditional translation classroom. Drawn from a social constructivist approach, the three guidelines of construction and co-construction, collaboration, and situatedness were followed in the teaching of explicitation for the present study. Overall, construction and co-construction are vital notions to ensure a shift of the teacher's role from an "infallible" knowledge imparter to a facilitator who makes learning effective. Collaboration entails student-teacher interaction, peer interaction and a flexible use of interactive models of whole class work, pair work and group work. Finally, situatedness reminds the teacher to relate class activities to real life and select materials that genuinely reflect a real-life situation.

Implications of the Study

Generally speaking, based on the findings for the two research questions, several pedagogical implications can be summed up as follows.

Firstly, for a translation instructor, a full recognition of the students' current stage of translation competence as novice translators is a starting point to design a realistic teaching curriculum suitable for such a stage, preferably with an aim to guide and support the students through the uncertainty and struggling in the spiral, arduous process of acquiring translation competence.

Secondly, since successful translation cannot occur without good linguistic competence (Hu & Wang, 2018; Ma & Guan, 2010), the instructor should draw the

students' attention to the essential role linguistic competence plays in translation and to motivate them to get on the track of linguistic enhancement in or outside of classroom; they should be guided to evaluate the possible gap between their current competence and make a realistic plan for the enhancement of their linguistic competence. On the other hand, the instructor should raise students' awareness of some striking differences in grammar, vocabulary, and syntax between the two languages involved so that with due attention, they could be able to avoid those "blind spots" or common errors specific to the language pair.

Thirdly, students should be informed that it is true that the source text is for the target text to base on, but it does not necessarily mean that it is to be followed mechanically. Furthermore, as explicitation is a complex technique and no definite, prescriptive rules can be imparted to students, they should be encouraged to approach explicitation as an option and explore when to and when not to explicitate in translation.

Fourthly, students' macro perspective should be nurtured. First of all, they should be guided to take the target readership into account and think about what shifts should be made in the target text to conform to the norm of the target language or to live up to the readers' reading expectations. Moreover, students should be guided to access the possible effect a target text will make as a whole in a communicative sense. Last but not least, a macro perspective entails a good contrastive knowledge of norms of text types in the two languages involved, so it is advisable to cover knowledge in this regard in due course in translation teaching.

Strengths and Limitations of the Study

The three-level configuration of explicitation as a complex whole proposed by this study might be recommendable for the teaching of explicitation, as it enabled the participants to approach translation as a complex, multidimensional activity, which directly addressed the problem of novice translators' tendency of taking a sign-oriented way in translation. The four strategic procedures, with their correspondent verbs, "to add", "to clarify", "to foreground", and "to specify" render them practical to be employed to tackle translation problems. With regard to the categorisation of obligatory and optional explicitation, it informed the participants of the inflexibility and flexibility in the use of this translation technique and got them to understand the subjectivity constantly at play on the part of the translator, thus motivating them to explore when to and when not to explicitate. As for the incorporation of the five dimensions, it allowed the participants to treat translation as a dynamic, multifarious act of communication rather than a static, one-sided, isolated mental task, and to get on the right track of consciously taking into account a number of dimensions, grammatical, lexical, syntactic, semantic, and/or pragmatic. Of course, the teaching of such a complex technique as explicitation in nine weeks was a great challenge and if possible, more time should be allocated for it if it is to be taught in the future, so as to eliminate the possible gap between the students'

awareness and performance. On the other hand, the complexity and multidimensionality of this translation technique calls for a refinement of ways of presenting it to the students. For example, Qualitative Coder (Xu & Jia, 2011) and Qualitative Explorer (Xu & Jia, 2011) could well be helpful tools to be used for the purpose of teaching in addition to their being used as research tools in this study; the students could be presented with the tagged texts of their translations of a key point and the frequencies of right, wrong, and null cases in the employment of one of the procedures- it was a pity that when I was teaching explicitation to the experimental group, I did not know about these two corpus tools.

In terms of methodology of this study, as triangulation was perceived as “a methodologically valid alternative to research on translation” (Alves, 2003, p. viii), the adoption of quantitative & qualitative, and product-based & process-based approaches in this study might be a worthwhile endeavour in addressing the topic of explicitation teaching from a fuller, more elaborate perspective; especially the ample data generated from the qualitative approaches, including answers to open-ended survey questions, translation journals, interview data, and TAPs, enabled me to tap into the participants’ thinking and consideration behind what was actually written down in their translated texts. Moreover, the use of Qualitative Coder (Xu & Jia, 2011) and Qualitative Explorer (Xu & Jia, 2011), also a new attempt, facilitated my treatment of participants’ translations and enabled me to reveal their explicitation patterns from the tagged texts of their translations of selected key points. In short, it is hoped that the methods and tools used for this study can shed new light on future

research into the teaching of explicitation or other translation techniques for the Chinese/English language pair or for other language pairs.

As regards the limitations of the methods used for this study, first of all, only six volunteers from the experimental group were recruited to do TAPs when they were translating the three texts of Assignments 1 and 2, so caution should be exercised in the interpretation or generalisation of findings based on data generated from such a small sample size. On the other hand, as some of the volunteers could not get used to translating and saying TAPs at the same time, the TAPs they produced were more of a retrospective reporting of their thinking than of a simultaneous one, which might not be a genuine, objective reflection of their thinking in translating. Secondly, for the translation journals, although most of the participants were cooperative and wrote them based on the guiding questions, as it might be quite time-consuming to answer them in great detail, some participants chose to skip the questions and write the journals based on their own format instead.

Conclusion

The participants' improvement in translation performances and their awareness of the application of explicitation in their translation were important outcomes of this research. While ratings of quality of what participants had produced in their improved translations indicated that there remained further room for improvement,

these two gains suggest that direct teaching of explicitation as a procedural strategy in Chinese-English translation from a social constructivist perspective is both feasible and productive. Aligned with this positive evaluation of the research is that participants' voice provided evidence that they were aware also that they were on a journey toward competence rather than having completed one. Their self-perceptions as not yet being confident as skilful and consistent users of what they had learned about explicitation reflected not only the characterisations of novice translators reviewed in my preparations for designing and conducting the study but also indicated the faithfulness of their reports of having learned what had been taught in the instructional intervention. As the acquisition of Chinese-English translation competence is developmental and the translation competence of undergraduate language students is still at the primary stage (Wang, 2012), it is a positive sign that with continued effort and long-term commitment they might see the trials and achievements of their involvement in this research as a critical point in their spiral growth toward what Chesterman (2000) and Li (2011) described as being expertise-level translators – the pinnacle of the profession.

For future research, a longer period of time could be allocated for the intervention and content pertaining to the "faithfulness" parameter could be incorporated into the teaching of explicitation, with an aim to investigate to what extent participants will improve their performances in terms of the parameter of faithfulness and to what extent the gap between awareness and performance will be bridged. On the other hand, I hope that more empirical studies will be conducted by

translation researchers for the teaching of explicitation and other translation techniques for not only the Chinese/English language pair, but also other language pairs.

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Appendices

Appendix 1 Participant Information Letter for all Participants



PARTICIPANT INFORMATION LETTER (for all participants)

PROJECT TITLE: Language Students' Acquisition of Explicitation as a Procedural Strategy in Chinese-English Translation

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR: Professor Brendan Bartlett

STUDENT RESEARCHER: Qingli XIE

STUDENT'S DEGREE: Doctor of Philosophy

Dear Participant,

You are invited to participate in the research project described below.

What is the project about?

The research project investigates language students' acquisition of explicitation as a procedural strategy in Chinese-English translation. As explicitation is a significant universal translation technique used by professional translators, it is worthwhile to explore how to raise students' awareness of the technique and help them acquire it in a more efficient manner.

Who is undertaking the project?

This project is being conducted by Qingli XIE and will form the basis for the Degree of Philosophy of Doctor at Australian Catholic University under the supervision of Professor Brendan Bartlett, Dr Clarence Ng, and Professor Wenhao Tao.

Are there any risks associated with participating in this project?

There are no foreseeable risks.

What will I be asked to do?

1) Pre-test (30 minutes) and questionnaire (20 minutes)

The pre-test will be a written translation task to be done in the classroom. Participants will translate some Chinese sentences or a Chinese passage into English. After the translation, they will complete a subsequent questionnaire with 20 Likert-scale items and three open-ended questions.

2) Individual/team assignments (30 minutes x 4) and translation journals (15 minutes x 4)

These are regular assignments encompassed in the course learning. Students will complete four individual/team translation-related assignments after class and write a translation journal to report or record their translating process for each assignment. Translated texts and translation journals will be uploaded onto the intranet for the course.

3) Post-test (30 minutes) and questionnaire (20 minutes)

The post-test will be a written translation task to be done in the classroom. Participants will translate some Chinese sentences or a Chinese passage into English. After the translation, they will complete a subsequent questionnaire with 20 Likert-scale items and three open-ended questions.

Note: Participants' translated texts and translation journals will be de-identified and digitally recorded.

What are the benefits of the research project?

Translation is skill-oriented and can only be learned by practice. The tests and regular assignments will serve as good practice and enable students to explore and understand what translation is and improve their translation skill.

Can I withdraw from the study?

Participation in this study is completely voluntary. You are not under any obligation to participate. If you agree to participate, you can withdraw from the study at any time without adverse consequences. Non-participation in or withdrawal from the pre-test, post-test, and questionnaires will not affect your academic assessment.

Will anyone else know the results of the project?

Yes. In the first instance, results will be published as my doctoral dissertation. I will then seek subsequent publications in academic journals. In the publications, any participant's name will be de-identified. All data sheets will be de-identified and the code for doing so will be kept by the researcher and the principal supervisor in a secure location until its disposal 5 years after completion of the research.

Will I be able to find out the results of the project?

Yes. An information sheet will be published at the end of the study and posted on the students' notice board at BNUZ.

Who do I contact if I have questions about the project?

Qingli XIE

Liyun Building Room B203, BNUZ

Ph.: 0756 6126862

Fax: 07566126861

Email: xieqingli@bnuz.edu.cn

What if I have a complaint or any concerns?

The study has been reviewed by the Human Research Ethics Committee at Australian Catholic University (review number 2016-30H). If you have any complaints or concerns about the conduct of the project, you may write to the Manager of the Human Research Ethics Committee care of the Office of the Deputy Vice Chancellor (Research).

Manager, Ethics

c/o Office of the Deputy Vice Chancellor (Research)

Australian Catholic University

North Sydney Campus

PO Box 968

NORTH SYDNEY, NSW 2059

Ph.: 02 9739 2519

Fax: 02 9739 2870

Email: resethics.manager@acu.edu.au

Any complaint or concern will be treated in confidence and fully investigated. You will be informed of the outcome.

I want to participate! How do I sign up?

Please sign the consent form (Copy for Researcher to Keep) and give it to the researcher in class.

Yours sincerely,

Appendix 2 Participant Information Letter for Volunteers



PARTICIPANT INFORMATION LETTER (for volunteers)

PROJECT TITLE: Language Students' Acquisition of Explicitation as a Procedural Strategy in Chinese-English Translation

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR: Professor Brendan Bartlett

STUDENT RESEARCHER: Qingli XIE

STUDENT'S DEGREE: Doctor of Philosophy

Dear Participant,

You are invited to participate in the research project described below.

What is the project about?

The research project investigates language students' acquisition of explicitation as a procedural strategy in Chinese-English translation. As explicitation is a significant universal translation technique used by professional translators, it is worthwhile to explore how to raise students' awareness of the technique and help them acquire it in a more efficient manner.

Who is undertaking the project?

This project is being conducted by Qingli XIE and will form the basis for the degree of Philosophy of Doctor at Australian Catholic University under the supervision of Professor Brendan Bartlett, Dr Clarence Ng, and Professor Wenhao Tao.

Are there any risks associated with participating in this project?

There are no foreseeable risks.

What will I be asked to do?

1) Two translation tasks with individual/pair TAPs (60 minutes x 2)

Participants will complete two of the four regular translation assignments for all students, one with individual think-aloud protocols (TAPs), the other with pair TAPs. The activities will be audio recorded. Translated texts and TAPs will be digitally recorded.

2) Follow-up interviews (20-30 minutes in all)

Participants will take follow-up interviews for the four translation tasks above. Interview response will be digitally recorded.

What are the benefits of the research project?

This experience should assist you as students of translation to deal more successfully with the complexity of the translation process.

Can I withdraw from the study?

Participation in this study is completely voluntary. You are not under any obligation to participate. If you agree to participate, you can withdraw from the study at any time without adverse consequences. Non-participation or withdrawal will not affect your academic assessment.

Will anyone else know the results of the project?

Yes. In the first instance, results will be published as my doctoral dissertation. I will then seek subsequent publications in academic journals. In the publications, any participant's name will be de-identified. All data sheets will be de-identified and the code for doing so will be kept by the researcher and the principal supervisor in a secure location until its disposal 5 years after completion of the research.

Will I be able to find out the results of the project?

Yes. An information sheet will be published at the end of the study and posted on the students' notice board at BNUZ.

Who do I contact if I have questions about the project?

Qingli XIE

Liyun Building Room B203, BNUZ

Ph.: 0756 6126862

Fax: 07566126861

Email: xieqingli@bnuz.edu.cn

What if I have a complaint or any concerns?

The study has been reviewed by the Human Research Ethics Committee at Australian Catholic University (review number 2016-30H). If you have any complaints or concerns about the conduct of the project, you may write to the Manager of the Human Research Ethics Committee care of the Office of the Deputy Vice Chancellor (Research).

Manager, Ethics
c/o Office of the Deputy Vice Chancellor (Research)
Australian Catholic University
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PO Box 968
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Ph.: 02 9739 2519
Fax: 02 9739 2870
Email: resethics.manager@acu.edu.au

Any complaint or concern will be treated in confidence and fully investigated. You will be informed of the outcome.

I want to participate! How do I sign up?

Please sign the consent form (Copy for Researcher to Keep) and give it to the researcher in class.

Yours sincerely,

Appendix 3 Consent Form for All Participants



CONSENT FORM (for all students)
Copy for Researcher/Participant to Keep

TITLE OF PROJECT: Learning Chinese-English Translation

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR: Professor Brendan Bartlett

STUDENT RESEARCHER: Qingli XIE

I have read and understood the information provided in the Letter to Participants. Any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to complete four regular translation assignments and write four translation journals as required by the Chinese-English Translation course and to participate in two translation tests and answer two subsequent questionnaires (the time required for each translation test and the subsequent questionnaire is about 50 minutes and my translated texts and questionnaire data will be digitally recorded), realising that I can withdraw my consent at any time without adverse consequences. I agree that research data collected for the study may be published or may be provided to other researchers in a form that does not identify me in any way.

NAME OF PARTICIPANT:

SIGNATURE

DATE

SIGNATURE OF PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR:

DATE:

SIGNATURE OF STUDENT RESEARCHER:

DATE:

Appendix 4 Consent form for Volunteers



CONSENT FORM (for volunteers)
Copy for Researcher/Participant to Keep

TITLE OF PROJECT: Learning Chinese-English Translation

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR: Professor Brendan Bartlett

STUDENT RESEARCHER: Qingli XIE

I have read and understood the information provided in the Letter to Participants. Any questions I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in two translation tasks with think-aloud protocols (60 minutes each, which will be audio recorded), and follow-up interviews (20-30 minutes in all) and understand that data will be digitally recorded. I realize that I can withdraw my consent at any time without adverse consequences. I agree that research data collected for the study may be published or may be provided to other researchers in a form that does not identify me in any way.

NAME OF PARTICIPANT:

SIGNATURE

DATE

SIGNATURE OF PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR:

DATE:

SIGNATURE OF STUDENT RESEARCHER:

DATE:

Appendix 5 Ethics Approval Certificate



Human Research Ethics Committee
Committee Approval Form

Principal Investigator/Supervisor: Prof Brendan Bartlett
Co-Investigators: Dr Clarence Ng
Student Researcher: : Qingli Xie

Ethics approval has been granted for the following project:
Language Students' Acquisition of Explication as a Procedural Strategy in Chinese-English Translation
for the period: 31/07/2016
Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) Register Number: 2016-30H

Special Condition/s of Approval

Prior to commencement of your research, the following permissions are required to be submitted to the ACU HREC:

The data collection of your project has received ethical clearance but the decision and authority to commence may be dependent on factors beyond the remit of the ethics review process and approval is subject to ratification at the next available Committee meeting. The Chief investigator is responsible for ensuring that outstanding permission letters are obtained, interview/survey questions, if relevant, and a copy forwarded to ACU HREC before any data collection can occur. Failure to provide outstanding documents to the ACU HREC before data collection commences is in breach of the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research and the Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research. Further, this approval is only valid as long as approved procedures are followed.

Clinical Trials: You are required to register it in a publicly accessible trials registry prior to enrolment of the first participant (e.g. Australian New Zealand Clinical Trials Registry <http://www.anzctr.org.au/>) as a condition of ethics approval.

It is the Principal Investigators / Supervisors responsibility to ensure that:

1. All serious and unexpected adverse events should be reported to the HREC with 72 hours.
2. Any changes to the protocol must be reviewed by the HREC by submitting a Modification/Change to Protocol Form prior to the research commencing or continuing. <http://research.acu.edu.au/researcher-support/integrity-and-ethics/>
3. Progress reports are to be submitted on an annual basis. <http://research.acu.edu.au/researcher-support/integrity-and-ethics/>
4. All research participants are to be provided with a Participant Information Letter and consent form, unless otherwise agreed by the Committee.
5. Protocols can be extended for a maximum of five (5) years after which a new application must be submitted. (The five year limit on renewal of approvals allows the Committee to fully re-review research in an environment where legislation, guidelines and requirements are continually changing, for example, new child protection and privacy laws).

Researchers must immediately report to HREC any matter that might affect the ethical acceptability of the protocol eg: changes to protocols or unforeseen circumstances or adverse effects on participants.

Signed:  Date: 7/04/2016
(Research Services Officer, Australian Catholic University, Tel: 02 9739 2646)

Appendix 6 Lesson Plans for Explicitation Teaching

Lecture 1

Topic: Introducing explicitation

Time: 20 minutes

Objectives:

After the lecture, students will:

- 1) Understand the worthiness and significance of explicitation as a topic in translation studies;
- 2) Understand explicitation as a practical tool to resolve a variety of translation problems;
- 3) Distinguish between explicitation and amplification.

Teaching Procedure:

1. Warm-up question (4 minutes)

[Whole class work]

What do you know about the translation technique of amplification that you learned in your Chinese-English translation class last semester?

2. Explicitation-related concepts (5 minutes)

[Whole class work]

* Related concepts are introduced, including addition (Nida, 1964), *zengci* /word addition (Lu, 2000), *zengcifa*/a method of word addition (Zhang, Yu, Li & Peng, 1980)) and *zengyi* /amplification (Ke, 1991; Liao, 2006).

➔ The explicitation-related phenomenon has long received much attention in translation studies.

3. Definitions of explicitation (7 minutes)

[Whole class work]

➤ Definition 1: Explicitation is “a stylistic translation technique which consists of making explicit in the target language what remains implicit in the source language” (Vinay and Darbelnet, [1958] 1995), p. 342)

➤ Definition 2: Explicitation entails “the spelling out in the target text of information which is only implicit in a source text” (Olohan, 2002, p. 155)

➤ Definition 3: Explicitation in the broad sense is a technique of semantic facilitation, i.e., of adding something to facilitate a target reader’s understanding, or making explicit the implied or presupposed information to ensure a better communication of meaning. (Ke, 2005; Liu, 2011; Qin, 2009)

➔ To investigate explicitation in its broad sense is to tackle a wide range of differences between Chinese and English and a practical tool to address grammatical, lexical, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic problems in translation.

4. Discussion (4 minutes)

[Pair work]

Directions: Work in pair and discuss to what extent explicitation is different from amplification.

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Lecture 2

Topic: Categorisation of explicitation

Time: 20 minutes

Objectives:

After the lecture, students will know the following three dimensions of categorizing explicitation:

- 1) Four strategic procedures: addition, clarification, foregrounding, and specification;
- 2) Obligatory and optional explicitation;
- 3) Five types of explicitation: grammatical, lexical, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic.

Teaching Procedure:

1. Warm-up: Case study (3 minutes)

[Pair work]

Directions: Work in pair, examine the bilingual texts said by an announcer of a clothing store and decide in what ways the mistakes in the English text can be solved from the perspective of explicitation.

Chinese Text: 买 300 元减 50 元, 买 500 元减 100 元.....

English Text: Spend 300 yuan will reduce 50 yuan, spend 500 yuan will reduce 100 yuan...

2. Introducing the three dimensions (12 minutes)

[Whole class work]

1) Four strategic procedures

- **Addition** is a procedure in which an element is supplemented in the target text although it is not stated or expressed in the source text.
- **Clarification** refers to a procedure in which the translator makes clear in the target text what is implied in the source text.
- **Foregrounding** is a procedure to highlight an element which is not prominent originally or even remains in the background in the source text.
- **Specification** is a procedure in which a technique is employed to eliminate ambiguity or a specific term/idea is used in the target language to render a general or vague term/idea in the source language.

2) Obligatory and optional explicitation

- **Obligatory explicitation** covers a narrow range of cases in which explicitation is used to ensure grammatical or linguistic correctness in the target text.
- **Optional explicitation** encompasses a greater variety of cases, and in my research, explicitation will be investigated in its broad sense as a strategy to tackle lexical, syntactic, textual, semantic, and pragmatic differences between Chinese and English in addition to grammatical differences.

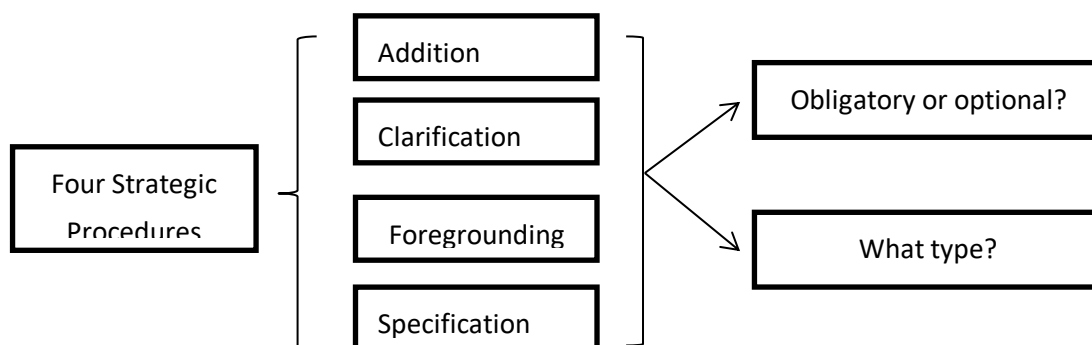
3) Five types of explicitation

- **Grammatical explicitation** is a means to bridge the linguistic gap between the source and the target languages.
- **Lexical explicitation** concerns lexical explicitness in the target text in comparison with the corresponding word or expression in the source text.
- **Syntactic explicitation** refers to cases when a word or a construction is added to ensure the completeness and accuracy of a clause or a sentence in the target text, or when the sequence of a sentence in the source text is rearranged to ensure syntactic naturalness or effective conveyance of meaning in the target language.
- **Semantic explicitation** concerns shifts in meaning between the source text and the target text, especially when a literal rendering of the source text turns out to be unreadable or illogical in the target text, the translator needs to add something so as to ensure a readable or logical target text.
- **Pragmatic explicitation** refers to a communication-oriented means to bridge a cultural gap, to involve the target readership as required by the target norm of a text type, or to make clear the context of situation in a conversation between two participants in a text.

[Note: After the three dimensions are introduced, typical examples are used to illustrate them.]

3. Summary (5 minutes)

[Whole class work]



Lecture 3

Topic: Obligatory explicitation vs. optional explicitation

Time: 20 minutes

Objectives:

After the lecture, students will:

- 1) Be better aware of some common mistakes most Chinese students make in their use of English;
- 2) Understand the distinctions between obligatory and optional explicitation better;
- 3) Draw rules about when to use and when not to use explicitation in Chinese-English translation.

1. Warm-up question (4 minutes)

[Whole class work]

Could you give one example to illustrate what is obligatory explicitation and another one to illustrate what is optional explicitation?

2. Discussion (4 minutes)

[Pair work]

Directions: Work in pair and list name some English grammatical items that are usually difficult for Chinese students and could well give rise to mistakes in their use of English.

Possible answers:

- articles (a/an, the)
- the singular or plural form of a noun
- syntactic elements (subject, predicate, object, etc.)
- the tense

3. Case study (12 minutes)

[Group work]

Directions: Work in group to identify as many cases of explicitation as possible in the following target text, decide whether each case is obligatory or optional, and then discuss and draw rules about when to use and when not to use explicitation.

ST: 长隆海洋王国位于珠海横琴长隆国际海洋度假区，呈献至大的水族馆，让您一次过与珍稀的鲸鲨、白鲸、北极熊和其它可爱动物见面！珠海长隆海洋王国更荣获由主题娱乐协会(TEA) 颁发 2014 年度的主题公园「杰出成就奖」，是您不可错过的必游景点！

立即计划您的海洋王国之旅，游遍 8 大主题区，到访 10 个珍稀动物展馆，挑战 9 项动

感游乐设施，欣赏 3 大剧场表演！您更可欣赏到花车巡游、横琴海汇演等百看不厌的大型户外节目，旅程中不容错过环球滋味美食和购物乐趣，让您尽享精彩体验！
(<https://sc.chimelong.com/100004?date=2019-08-19&tab=1>, Retrieved on 20th February, 2016)

TT: Located at Chimelong International Ocean Resort in Hengqin, Zhuhai, Chimelong Ocean Kingdom is a large aquarium that allows guests to view the rare whale shark, beluga whales, polar bears, and other adorable animals up close! Winner of the 2014 Thea Award for Outstanding Achievement (Theme Park), Chimelong Ocean Kingdom is not to be missed!

Plan your trip to Chimelong Ocean Kingdom now! Explore fun-filled themed zones, visit exotic animal exhibits, challenge yourself on exhilarating rides and immerse yourself in spectacular theatre shows! There are also large outdoor events such as the float parade and an incredible fireworks finale over the Hengqin Ocean to enjoy. Don't miss out on delicious international food and premium shopping options, too, for an excellent experience!
(<http://oceankingdom-int.chimelong.com/Oceankingdom/EN/>, Retrieved on 20th February, 2016)

Lecture 4

Topic: Explicitation as a procedural strategy

Time: 20 minutes

Objectives:

After the lecture, students will:

- 1) Be able to identify the four strategic procedures of explicitation;
- 2) Understand the problem-directed nature of using each of the four procedures in translation.

Teaching Procedure

1. Warm-up: Matching (2 minutes)

[Pair work]

Directions: Work in pair and match each of the four strategic procedures on the left with one definition on the right.

- | | |
|------------------|---|
| 1) Addition | A) a procedure in which a technique is employed to eliminate ambiguity or a specific term/idea is used in the TL to render a general or vague term/idea in the SL |
| 2) Clarification | B) a procedure in which an element is supplemented in the target text although it is not stated or expressed in the source text |
| 3) Foregrounding | C) a procedure in which the translator makes clear in the target text what is implied in the source text |
| 4) Specification | D) a procedure to highlight an element which is not prominent originally or even remains in the background in the source text |

2. Identifying the four procedures of explicitation (10 minutes) [Group work]

Directions: Work in group to identify “addition”, “clarification”, “foregrounding” and “specification” in the 8 target texts in comparison with the source texts and discuss what translation problems can each procedure address.]

ST1: 几个女工的声音高拔出来，好像鸡场里几只高声叫蛋的母鸡。(Mo, 2012, p.197)

TT1: The voices of a couple of women rose above the general buzz, like hens about to lay eggs. (Mo, 2001, p.2; Translated by Goldblatt)

ST2: ".....但是，像您这样的元老，省级劳模，即使厂里只留一个人，那也是您！"(Mo, 2012, p. 197)

TT2: "...But you're a veteran worker, a provincial model worker, a shifu — master worker — and even if we're down to the last man, that man will be you." (Mo, 2001, p. 2; Translated by Goldblatt)

ST3: 他支起自行车，前后左右地张望了一会，与看守大门的老秦头交换了一个眼神..... (Mo, 2012, p. 197)

TT3: He parked his bike and took a look around, exchanging a meaningful glance with old Qin Tou, the gateman. (Mo, 2001, p. 2; Translated by Goldblatt)

ST4: 他第一次感到心中不平，抡起木拐，敲打着大铁门，大声吼叫。(Mo, 2012, p. 197)

TT4: For the first time, he felt truly wronged. Banging his cane on the metal gate, he shouted at the top of his lungs. (Mo, 2001, p. 10; Translated by Goldblatt)

ST5: 卖猪汉子嘴角上浮起狡猾的笑容，展开了他的新一轮游说。(Mo, 2012, p. 209)

TT5: A crafty smile spread across the peddler's face as he launched into yet another sales pitch. (Mo, 2001, p. 17; Translated by Goldblatt)

ST6: 工人们吵了一阵，便各奔了前程。(Mo, 2012, p. 201)

TT6: The crowd of workers grumbled a while long before breaking up and heading home. (Mo, 2001, p. 8; Translated by Goldblatt)

ST7: "师傅，走吧，呆在这里没人管饭....." (Mo, 2012, p. 201)

TT7: Target Text: "Let's go, Shifu. You'll go hungry hanging around here..." (Mo, 2001, p. 8; Translated by Goldblatt)

ST8: 两个月后，他拄着一根木拐出了医院。(Mo, 2012, p. 202)

TT8: Two months later, he hobbled out of the hospital with the help of a cane. (Mo, 2001, pp.9 & 10; Translated by Goldblatt)

3. Presentation (8 minutes)

[Whole class work]

[Each group reports their findings.]

References

Mo, Y. (2001). *Shifu, you'll do anything for a laugh*. translated by Goldblatt, H., New York: Methuen.

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Lecture 5

Topic: Explication: a close look at a translated text

Time: 20 minutes

Objectives:

After the lecture, students will:

- 1) Better understand the five types of grammatical, lexical, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic explication;
- 2) Be able to identify cases of explication from three dimensions.

Teaching Procedure:

1. Warm-up question (3 minutes)

[Whole class work]

How do you understand the five types of grammatical, lexical, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic explication?

2. Identifying explication (10 minutes)

[Group work]

Directions: Work in group to identify as many cases of “addition”, “clarification”, “foregrounding”, and “specification” as possible in the following target text and decide whether it is obligatory or optional and what type of explication it is. Likewise, Groups 5 to 8 focus on.]

ST: 江南的春天素称多雨，一落就是七八天。住在上海的人们，平日既感不到雨的需要，一旦下雨，天气是那么阴沉，谁也耐不住闷在狭小的家里；可是跑到外面，没有山，没有湖，也没有经雨的嫩绿的叶子，一切都不及晴天好；有时阔人的汽车从你身旁驶过，还得带一身污泥回来。(唐弢. 《故乡的雨》. <http://page.renren.com/600549385/note/753388646?op=next>. Retrieved on 5th March, 2016)

TT: Spring in the south is known to be rainy. During this season, it never rains there but it remains wet for seven or eight days on end. Dwellers in Shanghai, who usually do not feel the need for rain, will be bored with having to confine themselves in their close quarters when outside it is gloomy with rain. While in the open, seeing no mountains, no lakes, no rain-drenched soft green leaves, you'll find nothing comparable to a fine day. Sometimes, worse still, a rich man's car flashing past may splash you all over with mud. (Translated by Zhang Peiji. <http://page.renren.com/600549385/note/753388646?op=next>. Retrieved on 5th March, 2016)

3. Presentation (7 minutes)

[Whole class work]

[Each group reports their findings.]

Lecture 6

Topic: Making implicit semantic ties explicit

Time: 15 minutes

Objectives:

After the lecture, students will:

- 1) Be aware of the paratactic features of Chinese in contrast with the hypotactic features of English;
- 2) Learn to add a cohesive tie in their English translation when necessary.

Teaching Procedure:

1. Warm-up discussion (2 minutes)

[Pair work]

Directions: Work in pair and compare the following target text with its source text and decide on the striking differences between Chinese and English as they indicate.

ST: 追二兔，逮不住。

TT: If you run after two hares, you will catch neither.

2. Adding a cohesive tie (8 minutes)

[Group work]

Directions: Work in group to work out the translations for the following sentences. Please identify the semantic tie between segments separated by a comma in each of the sentences and decide whether a cohesive tie would be added.

- 1) 世上没有丑女人，只有懒女人。
- 2) 人生没有假设，也不能回头。
- 3) 天气越来越热，最后几里路也越来越难走。
- 4) 爱情就像电热毯，开关由别人控制。
- 5) 十年前，我家里生活苦，父亲做小买卖，妈妈是家庭妇女，弟弟妹妹多。

3. Discussion (5 minutes)

[Whole class work]

[For each of the Chinese source texts above, one student is asked to write the translation of his/her group on the blackboard and then the class and the teacher discuss whether it is well translated and whether the cohesive tie added is correct.]

Lecture 7

Topic: Explication: Translation as an act of communication

Time: 20 minutes

Objectives:

After the lecture, students will:

- 1) Learn to use explication in translation to fulfil a particular function in real-life communication;
- 2) Learn to mediate between the author of the source text and the reader of the target text.

Teaching Procedure:

1. Warm-up question (3 minutes)

[Whole class work]

In what ways do you think translation is an act of communication?

2. Case study (8 minutes)

[Individual work+ whole class work]

1) Translate the following sentence into English and think about whether you have used explicitation.

远看是美景，近看想报警。

2) Take the following two questions into account and decide whether you will correct your translation.

- Who do you think is the author or the speaker of the source text?
- Who do you think is the reader or the listener?
- How will you use explicitation to fulfill the intended function in real-life communication?

3) A few students are asked to present their translations.

4) Discussion

- What might be English target readers' response if they read a target text that can convey the accurate meaning of the source text?
- In what context might the target text be used?

3. Translating Chinese sentences in a communicative way (9 minutes) [Group work]

Directions: Work in a group and translate one of the following sentences. Please bear the possible author and the potential target reader in mind.

- 1) 开车无难事，只怕有新人。
- 2) 我不是高傲，也不是胡闹，是厌倦了所有的依靠。
- 3) 黑夜给了你黑色的眼睛，你却用它来翻白眼。
- 4) 心里只有你一个频道，最可恨的是还没有广告。

[After the translation, the teacher organizes the class to discuss how to translate the sentences in a communicative way.]

Lecture 8

Topic: Bridging the gap between two cultures

Time: 18 minutes

Objectives:

After the lecture, students will:

- 1) Understand how cultural gaps can be bridged by using explicitation;
- 2) Learn to employ explicitation to bridge cultural gaps in translating Chinese dishes into English

Teaching Procedure

1. Warm-up: brainstorming and discussion (3 minutes) [Pair work]

Directions: List 4 or 5 Chinese culture-loaded terms and discuss in what ways it is difficult to translate them into English.

2. Translating Chinese culture-loaded terms (8 minutes) [Group work]

Directions: Identify the Chinese culture-loaded terms in the source texts, examine how they are explicitated in the target texts, and discuss whether each case of explicitation is a reasonable one or an unreasonable one of overtranslation.

ST1: 端午节那天，人们都要吃粽子。(Yao & Han, 1998, p. 27)

TT1: During the Dragon Boat Festival (which falls on the fifth day of the fifth lunar month), it is a common practice to eat Zong-zi, which is a rice pudding wrapped up with weed leaves. (Yao & Han, 1998, p. 27)

ST2: 林边有一个洞，叫白龙洞。传说白娘子曾经在这里修炼。(Pu, 1987, p. 30)

TT2: Near the forest is the White Dragon Cave which is said to be the very place where Lady White, the legendary heroine of *The Story of the White Snake*, cultivated herself according to Buddhist doctrine. (Pu, 1987, p. 30)

ST3: 满席鱼味，上官南面坐，笑而不语。(Luo, 2007, p. 115)

TT3: The table was laid, sumptuous with fish. The smiling chief sat in the seat facing south*, still wordless.

*In Chinese culture, the seat facing south is the VIP seat. In family it's for the head of the family. (Luo, 2007, p. 115)

ST4: “没良心的？狗咬吕洞宾---不识好歹。” (Cao Xueqin, cited in Luo, 2007, p. 114)

TT4: “You ungrateful thing? Like the dog that bit Lu Dongbin -you bite the hand that feeds you.” (Yang & Dai, cited in Luo, 2007, p. 114)

3. Translating Chinese dishes (7 minutes)

[Individual work+ whole class work]

Directions: Translate the following Chinese dishes from a menu in a restaurant into English and answer the following two questions:

What cultural differences are reflected in the Chinese ways and English ways of naming dishes?

How do you use explicitation to bridge such cultural gaps?

- 1) 三鲜汤
- 2) 满地金砖
- 3) 白玉藏珍
- 4) 雪中送炭

References

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Lecture 9

Topic: Explicitation in proofreading

Time: 18 minutes

Objectives:

After the lecture, students will:

- 1) Understand an awareness of the technique of explicitation is useful in proofreading;
- 2) Learn to correct mistakes from the perspective of explicitation.

Teaching Procedure:

1. Warm-up discussion (3 minutes)

[Pair work]

Directions: Work in pair and list some common mistakes made by Chinese students in Chinese-English translation that are related to an inadequate use of explicitation.

2. Proofreading (8 minutes)

[Group work]

Directions: Work in group and proofread the English target text. Find as many mistakes as possible that are related to an inadequate use of explicitation.

ST: 手机刷新了人与人之间的关系。会议室的门口通常贴着一张通告, 请与会者关闭手机。可是会议室里的手机依然响成一片。我们都是普通人, 没有多少重要的事。尽管如此, 我们也不会轻易关掉手机。打开手机象征着我们与这个世界的联系。手机反映出我们的"社交饥渴症"。最为常见的是, 一个人在路上走着走着, 忽然停下来盯着手机屏幕发短信, 不管是在马路中间还是厕所旁边。(TEM8-2009 Chinese-English Translation. <https://www.tceic.com/i5694i292gI90242g895k569.html>. Retrieved on 20th March, 2016)

TT: Cellphone has altered human relations. There is usually a note on the door of conference room, which reads "close your handset." However, the rings are still resounding in the room. We are all common people and has few urgencies to do. Still, we are reluctant to turn off the phone. Cellphone symbolizes our connection with the world and reflects our "thirst for socialization." We are familiar with the scene when a person stops his steps to edit short messages with eyes glued at his phone, disregard of his location, whether in road center or beside restroom. (<https://www.tceic.com/i5694i292gI90242g895k569.html>. Retrieved on 20th March, 2016)

3. Discussion (7 minutes)

[Whole class work]

[The class and the teacher discuss how to correct explicitation-related mistakes in the target text above sentence by sentence.]

Appendix 7 Questionnaire

Questionnaire: Students' Awareness of the Translation Process

(To be conducted after the pre-test and the post-test)

I. Introduction

Dear Participants,

Good day! This questionnaire is designed to help the researcher understand your perception of translation and how you translated the passage just now. Your answers will be valuable for the adjustment and improvement of translation teaching. If you have any questions, please feel free to consult the researcher. Thank you very much for your time!

II. Open-ended Questions

Directions: Write your answers to the questions in English or in Chinese.

1. Define **explicitation**.

2. How does **explicitation** help in Chinese-English translation?

3. What is your competence in using **explicitation** in Chinese-English translation?

III. Demographic Data

Student No.: _____

Age: _____

Gender: _____

Years of English learning: _____

Thank you again for your time!

-----The end-----

Note: To ensure accurate information will be collected, an equivalent Chinese version of the questionnaire will be used.

Appendix 8 Scores Given by 2 Markers of 20 Translations of the Pre-test and the Post-test

Text	F1	S1	T1	F2	S2	T2
1	59	58	58.6	59	59	59
2	62	60	61.2	63	60	61.8
3	64	62	63.2	63	62	62.6
4	59	59	59	60	58	59.2
5	66	64	65.2	65	65	65
6	64	64	64	64	63	63.6
7	63	61	62.2	61	60	60.6
8	65	63	64.2	65	64	64.6
9	68	66	67.2	66	68	66.8
10	65	61	63.4	63	62	62.6
11	66	60	63.6	66	62	64.4
12	67	64	65.8	65	66	65.4
13	68	67	67.6	67	66	66.6
14	66	65	65.6	67	67	67
15	64	65	64.4	64	65	64.4
16	58	56	57.2	57	53	55.4
17	66	70	67.6	69	68	68.6
18	65	64	64.6	65	66	65.4
19	62	60	61.2	64	62	63.2
20	59	57	58.2	60	57	58.8

Note. F1= Faithfulness score given by Rater 1; S1= Smoothness score given by Rater 1; T1= Total score given by Rater 1; F2= Faithfulness score given by Rater 2; S2= Smoothness score given by Rater 2; T2= Total score given by Rater 2.

Appendix 9 Pre-test and Post-test Scores of the Experimental and the Control Groups

Participant	Group	F1	S1	T1	F2	S2	T2
E02	1	63.0	61.0	62.2	66.0	65.0	65.6
E03	1	68.0	67.0	67.6	72.0	71.0	71.6
E07	1	65.0	64.0	64.6	68.0	66.0	67.2
E08	1	61.0	64.0	62.2	65.0	62.0	63.8
E10	1	64.0	61.0	62.8	66.0	65.0	65.6
E11	1	63.0	60.0	61.8	63.0	60.0	61.8
E13	1	61.0	61.0	61.0	66.0	64.0	65.2
E14	1	68.0	69.0	68.4	71.0	70.0	70.6
E15	1	59.0	58.5	58.8	66.0	66.0	66.0
E16	1	63.0	59.0	61.4	64.0	62.0	63.2
E17	1	68.0	68.0	68.0	67.5	69.0	68.1
E18	1	67.0	64.0	65.8	67.0	65.0	66.2
E19	1	64.0	63.5	63.8	66.0	64.0	65.2
E20	1	59.0	56.0	57.8	59.0	57.0	58.2
E21	1	58.0	56.0	57.2	59.0	60.0	59.4
E22	1	69.0	67.0	68.2	69.0	68.0	68.6
E23	1	66.0	65.0	65.6	67.0	65.0	66.2
E25	1	49.0	46.0	47.8	63.0	61.0	62.2
E26	1	66.0	67.0	66.4	62.0	60.0	61.2
E28	1	58.0	58.0	58.0	60.0	56.0	58.4
E29	1	61.0	60.0	60.6	62.0	61.0	61.6
E30	1	65.0	63.5	64.4	67.0	66.0	66.6
E31	1	68.0	71.0	69.2	71.0	75.0	72.6
E32	1	58.0	57.0	57.6	67.5	66.5	67.1
E33	1	67.0	64.0	65.8	65.0	65.0	65.0
E34	1	60.0	59.0	59.6	70.0	72.0	70.8
E35	1	62.5	60.0	61.5	71.0	69.0	70.2
E36	1	63.0	64.0	63.4	64.0	64.0	64.0
E37	1	62.0	61.0	61.6	68.0	67.0	67.6
E38	1	64.0	63.0	63.6	66.0	65.0	65.6
E39	1	65.0	62.0	63.8	65.0	59.0	62.6
E40	1	61.0	60.0	60.6	68.0	66.0	67.2

Note. Group 1= experimental group; Group 2=control group; F1= Pre-test Faithfulness; F2= Post-test Faithfulness; S1= Pre-test Smoothness; S2= Post-test Smoothness; T1= Pre-test Total; T2= Post-test Total.

(continued)

Participant	Group	F1	S1	T1	F2	S2	T2
E41	1	66.0	60.0	63.6	64.0	60.0	62.4
E43	1	62.0	61.0	61.6	65.0	61.0	63.4
E44	1	62.0	60.5	61.4	64.0	61.0	62.8
E45	1	68.0	64.0	66.4	67.0	66.0	66.6
E46	1	61.0	60.0	60.6	61.0	61.0	61.0
E47	1	71.0	72.0	71.4	66.0	68.0	66.8
E49	1	65.0	63.0	64.2	70.0	70.0	70.0
E50	1	62.0	58.0	60.4	73.0	71.0	72.2
E51	1	62.0	63.0	62.4	68.0	65.0	66.8
E52	1	61.0	57.0	59.4	67.0	64.0	65.8
E53	1	62.0	57.0	60.0	67.0	64.0	65.8
E54	1	60.0	59.0	59.6	66.0	64.0	65.2
E55	1	66.0	68.0	66.8	66.5	66.0	66.3
C01	2	66.0	62.0	64.4	66.0	63.0	64.8
C02	2	61.0	60.0	60.6	67.0	67.0	67.0
C03	2	65.0	64.0	64.6	72.0	72.0	72.0
C04	2	61.0	58.0	59.8	59.0	58.0	58.6
C06	2	65.0	63.0	64.2	63.0	60.0	61.8
C09	2	65.0	61.0	63.4	66.0	65.0	65.6
C13	2	56.0	54.0	55.2	63.0	63.0	63.0
C14	2	72.0	71.0	71.6	67.0	65.0	66.2
C15	2	58.0	54.0	56.4	62.0	59.0	60.8
C16	2	65.0	63.0	64.2	69.0	68.0	68.6
C17	2	61.0	61.0	61.0	64.0	62.0	63.2
C18	2	60.0	58.0	59.2	63.0	60.0	61.8
C19	2	63.0	61.0	62.2	61.0	57.0	59.4
C21	2	67.0	66.0	66.6	66.0	63.0	64.8
C22	2	64.0	65.0	64.4	65.0	61.0	63.4
C23	2	68.0	68.0	68.0	63.0	60.0	61.8
C24	2	71.0	68.0	69.8	72.0	65.0	69.2
C25	2	58.0	57.0	57.6	61.0	60.0	60.6
C26	2	60.0	58.0	59.2	68.0	64.0	66.4
C27	2	59.5	57.0	58.5	65.0	63.0	64.2
C28	2	65.0	64.0	64.6	59.0	57.0	58.2
C29	2	67.0	66.0	66.6	67.0	64.0	65.8
C30	2	69.0	63.0	66.6	64.0	61.5	63.0

Note. Group 1= experimental group; Group 2=control group; F1= Pre-test Faithfulness; F2= Post-test Faithfulness; S1= Pre-test Smoothness; S2= Post-test Smoothness; T1= Pre-test Total; T2= Post-test Total.

(continued)

Participant	Group	F1	S1	T1	F2	S2	T2
C31	2	68.0	66.0	67.2	69.0	64.0	67.0
C32	2	49.0	47.0	48.2	65.0	65.0	65.0
C34	2	66.0	65.0	65.6	67.0	65.0	66.2
C36	2	63.0	62.0	62.6	63.5	62.0	62.9
C37	2	65.0	65.0	65.0	66.0	64.0	65.2
C38	2	71.0	69.0	70.2	69.0	71.0	69.8
C40	2	65.0	63.0	64.2	65.0	64.0	64.6
C41	2	66.0	63.0	64.8	66.0	61.0	64.0
C42	2	67.0	65.0	66.2	68.0	64.0	66.4
C43	2	59.0	58.0	58.6	58.0	56.0	57.2
C44	2	63.0	62.0	62.6	63.0	60.0	61.8
C45	2	57.5	54.5	56.3	60.0	58.0	59.2
C46	2	61.0	56.0	59.0	61.0	62.0	61.4
C47	2	63.0	62.0	62.6	66.0	63.0	64.8
C49	2	64.0	63.0	63.6	66.0	68.0	66.8
C50	2	60.0	59.0	59.6	68.0	64.0	66.4
C51	2	61.0	62.0	61.6	59.5	58.5	59.1
C52	2	61.0	60.0	60.6	66.0	61.0	64.0
C54	2	70.0	65.0	68.0	68.0	66.0	67.2
C55	2	55.0	53.0	54.2	58.0	55.0	56.8
C56	2	56.0	55.0	55.6	65.5	64.5	65.1
C57	2	74.0	72.0	73.2	71.0	70.0	70.6
C59	2	65.0	62.0	63.8	68.0	67.0	67.6
C60	2	64.0	62.0	63.2	64.0	65.0	64.4

Appendix 10 Participants' Answers to 3 Open-ended Questions

Table 1 The Control Group's Answers to Question 1 "Defining explicitation"

Participant	Pre-test Answer	Post-test Answer
C01	N/A	N/A
C02	N/A	显化是指在翻译过程中用更明确的话表达意思。
C03	N/A	N/A
C04	N/A	N/A
C06	把那些隐藏在文化背景中的意思通过具体的词语表达出来，使不同语境下或不同文化背景下的读者更好地理解。	将汉语中笼统的表达转化为更具体的表达，将原文内容可能隐含的意思翻译表达出来，为了翻译符合逻辑还可必要增加连词、介词等衔接词。
C07	没听说过“显化”	N/A
C13	Sorry, I have no idea.	N/A
C14	没有接触“显化”这个概念	仍不了解“显化”的定义
C15	N/A	英语注重形合，汉语注重意合。将原文的信息以更明确的方式表达出来。可以用增词法，还可添加额外的信息以辅助译文表达流畅，逻辑完整。
C16	N/A	N/A
C17	N/A	N/A
C18	没听过	N/A
C19	“显化”在英语中就是将汉语中的一些隐含的意思，在英语中很直白的表达出来并且还有一定提示词出现，例如：他去我就去。I would go if he go.	把原文的隐藏信息在译文中表现出来，使文章更流畅，增加连接词等。
C21	“显化”是英语中可以使其意思更倾向于明显、简化、具体化。	显化是指较为具体化，化抽象为具体，使原文翻译为特定语言时变得更清晰，明白，从而浅显易懂。
C22	N/A	N/A

Participant	Pre-test Answer	Post-test Answer
C23	N/A	在汉英的翻译过程中，通过承用一些特定的翻译方法或翻译技巧将中文中某些特定的隐含/内涵信息用浅显易懂的英文表达方式加以传达，以期达到较到位、完善的语言信息传达效果，减少因文化背景知识差异或语言内涵造成的语言交流误区或障碍。
C24	N/A	N/A
C25	N/A	N/A
C26	将汉语中意合所含的内容用具体语言表达出来	在翻译过程中将两种语言的不同之处考虑并适当地在原文基础上增加相应内容以完整目标译文的完整性及流畅性。
C27	The process or fact of becoming explicit. Or of causing to be explicit. Make something explicit.	译文以更加明显具体的语言传达原文信息，译者可在翻译过程中添加解释性词汇或连接词来达到目的。
C28	[E]xplicitation make it more transparent and clear to give an idea; it help people understand the idea well through its expression.	显化即在译文中添加一些解释性的词和句子，使译文更加清晰明了，有点类似于 Amplification。
C29	将句子中隐含的主语、逻辑关系等信息在翻译时增加出来。	N/A
C30	“显化”是英文中文区别之一的特征，保留原文基本特征加上连接词以形成逻辑达到目标语。	‘显化’就是翻译的明显，让读者能够一读就明白作者想要表达什么，由此译者就需要将译文翻译得尽量明白和浅显。
C31	“显化”是英文行文的重要特点。在翻译理论中，英文有别于中文，“显化”是指英文文本中文本意思清晰、准确、无歧义的表达方式，与中文相比，中文则显得模糊、写意。	The explicitation is a kind of translation technique implicated in the process of Chinese to English. The aim of it is to make the Chinese context clear and specific in English version.
C32	“显化”就是使汉语中的一些隐藏的信息在译为英语的时候显现出来。	N/A
C34	把隐含内容显出来。	把隐含或隐喻的内容用通俗易懂、较为简单的话语解释出来。
C36	把句子中的隐含意思表达出来。	在翻译的过程中遇到一眼不能完全看懂字面意思的词，需要加以解释，把完整的意思翻译出来，也就是对词语的充分解释，显示出所需表达的意义。

Participant	Pre-test Answer	Post-test Answer
C37	Explicitation means making the sentences more definite. Especially, there are some implication in the sentences, using explicitation in translation can make the meaning of the sentences more clearly.	译者在翻译过程中增添解释性的词语或增加连接词，从而让读者更好地理解目标文本所传达的含义。
C38	N/A	N/A
C40	使句子的意义表达得更清楚。	显化是翻译时添加一些解释性的词语或连接词使目标读者能更好地理解译文，并理解的一种翻译手段。
C41	N/A	通过添加解释的方式使翻译更加明了易懂。
C42	N/A	I still don't know.
C43	N/A	N/A
C44	定义：“显化”是发生在英汉互译中，将原语的意思尽量还原到目标语的翻译过程。由于语言本身所具有的特点，这种现象在翻译中尤其明显。	由于汉语是意合语言，英语是形合语言，所以在[汉译英]的过程中，要把汉语比较笼统的概念翻译为比较具体、明确的语言，这一过程为“显化”。
C45	N/A	N/A
C46	将句子中隐藏的含义翻译出来，如英译汉中的一些转折词“but, if”或虚拟语气等。	将文中没译出的隐藏含义译出来。
C47	N/A	N/A
C49	N/A	N/A
C50	N/A	N/A
C51	显化，突出文章中的逻辑关系，与句子的内在含义。	显化，使抽象难以理解的意思词汇解释清楚具体。
C52	英语的句法比较显化，体现在词语的词性-tion, -er, -logy。例：You should come here earlier.中文：你并没有早来。（隐含的意思）	N/A
C54	是一种翻译手段，用比较明显的方式将原文中隐含的一些信息翻译出来。	显化是指将原文中隐含的讯息，在翻译过程中用添加解释性的词组或连接词等方式让译文看上去更为明显、清晰、有条有理并赋有逻辑性。

Participant	Pre-test Answer	Post-test Answer
C55	N/A	N/A
C56	N/A	N/A
C57	N/A	N/A
C59	N/A	利用一些文中没有的信息或词语突显特点或重点，使文章更清晰连贯，意义明确。
C60	将意思更明白清楚表达出来。	指将原作的信息，在翻译过程中，采取更为明确的方式表达出来，包括增加额外的信息、资料、解释，直接表达出暗含的意思。

Table 2 The Experimental Group's Answers to Question 1 "Defining explicitation"

Participant	Pre-test Answer	Post-test Answer
E02	指我们在翻译的过程中通过增补一些词语，如形容词短语、名词短语等，使译文更加具有可读性，更符合地道的母语表达。	根据语境在译文中挑明原文暗含信息，从文章中推理出的信息，通过词汇、语用、语法等方面，运用填补、强调、省略等技巧将隐藏信息翻译出来。
E03	N/A	在翻译过程中通过对文中词汇、语法、句法等的改变、添加或删除，运用更为贴近目标语言的词汇、语法、句法、语用现象等使译文更有可读性。
E07	显化是在翻译过程中以更加明显的方式语言表达原文意思，适当在译文中增加词句。	目标文本以更明显的形式表达原文本的信息，是译者在翻译过程中增添解释性短语或添加连接词等来增强译本的逻辑性和易解性。
E08	N/A	Explicitation is a kind of skiu of clarifying expressions which reveals some informations or specific relations from texts in order to make translations more appropriate for the habitual of target languages.
E10	N/A	Explicitation concerns the process of "unfolding" and of "making clear" the meaning of things , so as to make the implicit explicit.
E11	具体化，在原文的基础上加解释。	显化是指利用①增补，②突现隐含信息，③突出重点和④具体化等手段，令源文段的意思能够更清楚的展现在译文，为求让读者理解更好。以上4种手法还包含

Participant	Pre-test Answer	Post-test Answer
E13	将原文中所隐藏的信息在译成目标语中体现出来，使其方便读者理解。	将原文中一些隐藏的信息增补到译文中，方便译文外国读者更好的理解文章内容。同时，将原文中语法省略的部分根据译语语法习惯，进行显化，使译文更符合语言习惯，更流畅。
E14	N/A	Explicitation means covering the ideas from the original passage in a simple way into target language.
E15	表达清楚明了。	译者在翻译过程中通过增添解释性词语、连接词来增强译文。
E16	N/A	显化就是在汉英翻译中，将一些中文没有强调的东西在英文上体现出来，比如说单复数、时态、背景和句子结构，或者将读者容易有疑惑的地方解释说明清楚。也可以结合读者群体适当添加一些内容。
E17	一些原文中忽视的成分在翻到目标语言的时候要写出来，例如：主语、谓语。	Explicitation is a translation technique. It exists because of the difference between English and Chinese. In order to do a qualified translation, explicitation is necessary in the translation process. According to the extent of necessity, explicitation can be divided into two groups: obligatory explicitation and optional explicitation. And there are four explicitation-related procedures.
E18	To make a word or phrase or sentence's meaning clear.	我认为就是把原文中需要具体表达的隐含或不明确的信息完整具体的翻译出来，方便读者理解。
E19	N/A	显化分为必须要进行的显化和不是必须的显化。显化是一种翻译技巧。必须要进行的显化包括 lexical, syntactic, textual, grammatical 等，涉及补充主语，添加连词、介词、时态、语态和[第三人称单数]，即是把中文的意合转化为英语的形合，这样的显化是必须的。如果不进行这样的显化就会造成语法错误。而不是必须的显化包括 semantic 和 pragmatic，如果没有进行显化也不会造成特别大的语法错误，但是显化之后能使阅读更流畅易懂。
E20	显化是在英语翻译中，你需要提供的信息，你想要表达的意思，在句子中显化出来。	显化是翻译时的一种方式 and 手段，显化分成好几个部分，有 optional explicitation 和 optional explicitation，显化是在翻译时把原文中的一些没提到的信息显化出来。
E21	N/A	在翻译过程中，将文本隐含内容完整表达出来，将缺少的部分补充完整，使信息具体。

Participant	Pre-test Answer	Post-test Answer
E22	N/A	Explicitation is to embed the implying information including textual, lexical, semantic, pragmatic, grammatical explicitation, etc.
E23	N/A	显化就是在翻译过程中把中文表达和英文表达不一样的地方显现出来，使译文在意义上更贴切原文。让目标读者读得懂。
E25	N/A	显化定义：目标文本以更明显的形式表达原文本的信息，是译者在翻译过程中增添解释性短语或添加连词等来增强译本的逻辑性和易解性。
E26	N/A	用通俗易懂的话解释文篇中的词语，让读者看懂，将文章中意思不完整的句子用自己的话补充完整，让逻辑通顺。
E28	使译文意思清晰，通俗易懂。	通过 Grammar、lexical、foregronoling 等方面对原文内容修改、补充，从而翻译出更通俗易懂的文章。可以采取意合或形合的方式翻译，但最重要的是忠于原文，适当显化。
E29	N/A	显化是汉译英当中值得注意的地方，由于语言之间的不同，导致相种语言在翻当中出现意思表达不准确、不清晰，这时需要通过显化来较正两者之间翻译出来的意思和信息偏差，达到信息和表述的准确性。
E30	N/A	翻译的时候，尽量把一些明确的信息和隐藏的信息翻译出来，尽量易懂。
E31	N/A	显化是对原文背景知识、宏观信息、隐含信息的解读后加以阐释说明。原文缺乏主语或语义有歧义时通过增词，增添信息，使译文完整明白。
E32	It means you need to understand exactly what it means and try to use another language to translate it in an obvious and correct way. So you need to add some words or sentence structure to help you translate it.	Explicitation is a way to discover the implicated meaning of original language and helps us to translate original language into target language. It includes several aspects such as grammatical, textual, lexical, sematic, pragmatic and syntactic explicitation.
E33	显化是指在翻译时，将源语中隐含的内容显现出来，在译成目标语时将其说明或表达清楚。	将源语中隐含或有歧义的地方，在目标语中进行明显地说明。

Participant	Pre-test Answer	Post-test Answer
E34	将原文中暗含的信息解释、表达出来。	Explicitation is a method to clarify some information that is ambiguity or unclear. It contains obligatory and optional explicitation . Optional explicitation consists of lexical , synatactic, textual, semantic, matic, and grammatical.
E35	N/A	将汉语表达中所没有的冠词表达出来、作者隐含的意思表达出来，适当增加连词、介词等使翻译出来的文本更为通顺、准确、流利。
E36	N/A	显化，就是将原文中省略的词句在译文中明显化出来，例如汉语中经常省略主语，而英语中的句子大多数都是有主语的，因此翻译时须将其显化，这样读者才能明白其中的含义。
E37	Explicitation is to express the whole information behind the text which is clearly [clear] for native speaker[s], but not for second language learners.	Explicitation is a skill in translation, translators will try to make some implicial meaning of origin language obvious in target language.
E38	N/A	指的是目标文本以更明显的形式表达源文本的信息
E39	N/A	显化指的是在翻译的过程中，一般英语会补充主语、冠词等信息。因为汉语在表达时注意意合思维，没有把具体的特征表现出来，所以在英文翻译的时候需要适当的补充主语、解释，使原文在翻译的过程中可清晰、具体。
E40	将原文所隐含的意义，明确、清晰地写在译文中，有时需要译者增加原文中所没有的成分，帮助译语读者理解译文所表达[的]含义或文化背景知识。	通过增补、阐述、突显、具体化的方法使译文在语法、词汇、语用、语义、句法方面符合译语[规范]，使译语读者能够清晰地理解原文所表达的意思。
E41	N/A	Explicitation is a stylistic translation technique which consist of making explicit in the target language. What remains implicit in the sourle language.
E42	N/A	显化就是通过观察英汉双语的差别，在翻译过程中将原文中隐含的内容表现出来。例如: addition, specification, foregronnding and clarification.

Participant	Pre-test Answer	Post-test Answer
E43	N/A	显化是一种翻译手段，目标文本以更明显的形式表达原文的信息；是译者在翻译过程中增添解释性短语或添加连接词等来增强译本的易理解性。
E44	显化是一种翻译技巧，将原作信息在译作信息中以更为明确方式表达出来。包括增加一些词，还包括额外的解释，直接表达出暗含的意思。	显化指的是翻译过程中将源文本一些语法、句子、词汇修改，显现到翻译文本中。使翻译文本更加符合目标语言的语境，贴近目标语言的文化。
E45	"The translator adds some phrase[s] or words to make the readers understand easily", and the text can be understood in the other language.	目标文本以更明显的形式表达源文本的信息，是译者在翻译过程中增添解释性短语或添加连接词等来增强译本的逻辑性和易解性，从而使原文艰涩晦暗之处在译文中变得清晰、明白、浅显。
E46	N/A	It is making explicit in the target language what is implicit in the source language.
E47	显化即在表达过程中，能一眼识出词性，并理解出作者的意思，例如，英语中的后缀-ed, -ly 等这些便是显化的过程。	显化即通过翻译汉语中未突显的词语及意思进行表达，例如汉语中未突显名词的个数、时态及隐含的意思都需要在英语译文中体现。
E049	The subject (probably other elements two) is more distinctable than that of Chinese. (他的字写得很草，所以字母不一定准确)	显化是在翻译过程中，通过增添解释性短语或添加连接词来增强译文的逻辑性和易解性。
E50	In my view, explicitation means emphasize on the difference. And the author want to catch readers' attention for some reasons.	将文本中不易发现或歧义，难理解部分突出出来，进行 addition, specification, foregrounding, clarification. (procedure of explicitation) Types: textual, lexical, semantic, syntactic, pragmatic and explicitation. 读起来更通顺，文字质量更高。
E51	把语言里隐含的意思清晰化、明朗化。	把原文的表意和内含的意思翻译出来，使读者更加理解作者所表达的意思。
E52	N/A	显化就是将汉语文本中一些省略了的或隐含的，没有表达清楚的内容，在翻译成英语时翻译出来让其符合英语文法和习惯。
E53	通过改变源语(部分的)词性或突显源语词语功能而在译语中适当体现，以求译语自然、通顺、灵活。	未显之物外化即为显化。通过各种方式 semantic, grammatic, lexical 等有时需用到 foregrounding 凸显或 Clarification, Specification, Addition 详尽详述。
E54	N/A	将汉语思维转化为更符合英语读者的阅读习惯和英语表达。

Table 3 The Control Group's Answers to Question 2 "How does explicitation help in Chinese-English translation?"

Participant	Pre-test Answer	Post-test Answer
C01	N/A	N/A
C02	N/A	汉语的习语，用 <i>literal translation</i> 会使译文读者迷惑；汉语常隐藏主语等，英语句子必须有主谓宾；英语讲究逻辑、注重连贯性，可用增译法使其更具连贯性；显化使文章更清晰、易于译文读者理解。
C03	N/A	N/A
C04	N/A	N/A
C06	使不同文化背景或不在同一语境下的读者更容易理解。	①将笼统的表达转化为具体的表达，便于读者接受和理解；②重点突出，主次分明。
C07	N/A	N/A
C13	N/A	N/A
C14	N/A	仍不知道
C15	N/A	可以使译文更加流畅，考虑到读者的需求，让读者更易懂原文表达的意思。
C16	N/A	N/A
C17	N/A	N/A
C18	N/A	N/A
C19	N/A	有助于译者更好的消化原文及读者更好的理解译文。
C21	可以更好地使其翻译转换后，让读者在一定文化背景中理解翻译过来的意思。	①使原文要表达的意思转意清晰；②读者更能读懂译文的信息。
C22	N/A	N/A
C23	N/A	①在英语译文中，补全中文句子中省略的句子成分，有助于英文句子的完整，使译语读者易于理解；②将一些带有特定文化语境内涵的词语进行简单的含义解释，有助于译语篇章的连贯性以及译语读者加深对原语语境的理解。

Participant	Pre-test Answer	Post-test Answer
C24	N/A	N/A
C25	N/A	N/A
C26	有助于外语读者更加贴切地了解原文文化。	可以使译文整体更加完整，可读性更强。使读者产生亲切感。
C27	It can better explain the whole sentence or passage which could may reader understand easily.	有利于译文读者更好理解译文（by 解释性词汇或连接词）
C28	显化可以使翻译句子更明确清晰、通俗易懂。	增强译文的逻辑性和易解性，使原文的艰涩变得明白。
C29	以便更清楚明白地表达句子的意思，不容易在翻译时产生异议。	N/A
C30	可以更好地保留原材料内容，并将其翻译为目标语传达给读者。	因为汉语和英文在某些方面有很大的区别，比如意[合]和形合，译者就应该将不同文化承载的内涵和文化缺失的部分通过加词、阐释等方法显化表达。
C31	掌握英文文本“显化”的特点之后，可在汉英翻译时着重体味写作者的内容与思想，而不流俗于形式。但其也有缺点，过于重视内容则易丧失文采，使文章翻译后流于粗俗，无美感可言。因此，“文质相符”最好不过。	显化可以使汉语中的蕴含意义更为具体、清晰地传达给译文（英文）读者。
C32	使英语更能表达汉语的意思。	N/A
C34	跨越文化差异，更好让读者理解。	汉语在很多时候注重意境（画面感和给人的感觉），而英语在大多情况下句子结构、语法都很严谨，所以在汉英翻译过程中需要把汉语的句子意思具体化、直白化再转换成英语。
C36	让读者更加清楚明了。	为了让读者更加容易清楚地明白所表达的意思。
C37	I think that explicitation can help readers to understand the meaning of original text easily and clearly.	①让读者更好地理解原本文本的信息；②让目标文本的逻辑性更强、更容易被读者理解。
C38	N/A	N/A
C40	使读者能更好地了解译文与作者的意图。	使外国读者能更好地理解并了解中国文化。

Participant	Pre-test Answer	Post-test Answer
C41	N/A	汉语和英语是完全不同的两种语言，显化可以帮助读者理解作者意思。
C42	N/A	I still don't know.
C43	可以使目标语更充分表达原语信息，使目标语读者清晰理解原语语言所要传达的内容。	N/A
C44	作用：可以使原语的意思在目标语中得到更充分的还原，有助于目标语接受者更好的理解。	可以使汉英两种语言的差异问题得到最大化的转换，更便于英语读者理解原文，最大化的避免因文化障碍造成的误解。
C45	N/A	N/A
C46	能让翻译语言更贴近本国文化，让读者更清晰原作意思。	方便译文读者理解原文。
C47	N/A	N/A
C49	增加文字和调整语序使读者更能恰当理解文本。	N/A
C50	N/A	N/A
C51	显化使汉英翻译形化意合，使英文翻译突出中文逻辑。	在汉英翻译中，汉语为意合语言，英语为形合语言，显化则将汉语中的逻辑意象用英语更具体的表达。
C52	了解显化后，在汉英翻译中，汉译英时，体现显化，直接呈现隐含的意思。	N/A
C54	因为英语本身就比中文更需要具体化而不是抽象化，所以显化更符合汉译英的译法。	作用重大。比方说原文是汉语，但翻译为英语时，我们需要考虑两方人是否能够看懂并理解译文。因为中西方文化背景不同，甚至是经济、政治背景的不同，都会引起理解偏差。于是，利用显化的方法可以使译文更清晰易懂，让读者能容易并快速地抓住信息点。
C55	N/A	N/A
C56	N/A	N/A
C57	N/A	N/A
C59	N/A	突出重点，有利于翻译内容的紧凑性，更为容易理解译文。

Participant	Pre-test Answer	Post-test Answer
C60	帮助读者理解、明白意思差异。	显化使译语读者更加明白译作的意思，通过译者的补充说明，使晦涩难懂的句子、词语得到了加工，使之更贴合译语读者的文化背景，对译作更加清晰。

Table 4 The Experimental Group's Answers to Question 2 "How does explicitation help in Chinese-English translation?"

Participant	Pre-test Answer	Post-test Answer
E02	显化在汉英翻译中作用显著而且非常重要，例如“警察监视看犯罪嫌疑人一举一动”，译为：The police kept close watch on the man under suspicion.其中的一举一动通过动词“keep close”来显化。	能将文中一些比较隐晦，不直接表达的词语真实的呈现在读者面前，使读者更能感受到跨文化交流与读懂文本。
E03	N/A	使读者阅读译文时在语言和文化两方面都更好地理解译文，减少文章在翻译过程中带来的误解，减少译文的‘翻译味道’，让读者更好地接收文中的内容和意义。
E07	更加具体表达作者意思，情感表达到位。	让读者对文章更容易理解，译者更能传达原文意思。
E08	N/A	It plays an important role in expressions and fluency, because something intrinsic must be emphasized or something trivial should be omitted.
E10	N/A	增添了解释性短语，更突显文本的逻辑性和概括性，便于读者了解原文的意思，忠实于原文。
E11	令读者更容易理解。	①让译文的表达更清楚；②突显源语言隐含的信息；③减少由于文化差异带来的理解问题。
E13	英文中注重主语，而汉语中有些情况会省略，在汉译英中，需要在原语中找到主语，并在英文中体现出来。	由于汉英语言差异大，所以显化尤为重要，汉语属于意合思维，经常省略主语宾语，而英文中则是形合思维，需将隐藏中汉语中的这些显示出来。同时，也要将逻辑关系更加明确。

Participant	Pre-test Answer	Post-test Answer
E14	N/A	1.清晰表达意思； 2.更符合读者思维。
E15	N/A	使译中清晰。
E16	N/A	可以使目标读者更了解译文。了解不同文化的差异，显化在某一种程度上也可以了解正确使用英语语法。
E17	能够更好地实现语言转化，使句子通顺，能够被另一语言的人理解，因为每个语言的的习惯不同。	N/A
E18	帮助读者理解文章真实意图。	使译文更符合原文并且具体解释原文所要表达的真实含义。
E19	N/A	如题 1 所答。
E20	显化作为一种翻译技巧，指将原作的信息在译作中以更为明确的方式表达出来。	因为在翻译中的读者不一样，有可能是面向大众的，所以在翻译的时候显化出一些原文中没有的信息可以帮助读者理解。
E21	N/A	由于文化差异，在汉语中会省略主语，多个动词串联使文章更连贯，翻译之后将主语翻译出来，进行断句，使文章在翻译之后更便于阅语，需要显化来完成。
E22	N/A	With the difference between chinese and , English, literal translation may cause rcaelers trouble understanding the meaning. And applying explicitation will prevent this problem in a great extent, allowing readers to have a better understanding.
E23	N/A	①助于减少汉英差异给翻译带来的困难；②帮助目标读者更好地理解原文传达的意思；③消除歧意；④使译文更加地道。
E25	N/A	显化可以更加地道，准确地表达出译文文本需表达的意思。

Participant	Pre-test Answer	Post-test Answer
E26	N/A	有强调突出，更加通俗易懂，使文章更加合理。
E28	尽可能用第二种语言表达愿意，不失作者意图。	有利于译文读者跨越文化差异障碍，更好理解作者意写作目的。
E29	N/A	显化能使汉英翻译中由于一些语言上、文化上的差异得到消除，汉语中许多表达，如果直接翻译会使得读者不了解，或者读不懂，显化使得意思更加到位。
E30	N/A	得达到很好的传递信息的作用，并且在读者不了解文化背景的情况下，不会觉得疑惑。
E31	N/A	1.使译文句子成分完整，表达意思清晰明白；2.补充原文所隐含或缺失的含义。
E32	It helps readers understand the content easily and obviously. From the additional words, you can get the meaning easily.	Explication reminds translators to pay more attentions on implicated meaning in both original language and target language, which help the translation become better. Some optional and obligatory explication help to maintain important characteristic of both language.
E33	我认为，显化便于目标语言读者的阅读和理解。因为有许多汉语中为了意境而缺少的语法成份，经过显化，会让英文读者更一目了然，不会有歧义。	我认为显化在翻译中作用非常大，它既能保证原文的语境不被破坏，又使目标语对于读者更易读懂。
E34	由于汉语和英语不同的语言特点，汉英翻译时通常要将汉语中省略的主语等在英语中写出来，将一些抽象化的概念具体化，便于译文读者的阅读与理解。	可以使异文读者对原文信息进一步深入了解，减少文化差距等产生的阅读误解。
E35	N/A	增加文章的连贯性，准确度，更易使读者理解文章所要表达的主旨。
E36	N/A	使译文能更好地忠实于原文，能让读者更好地获取译文的正确信息。

Participant	Pre-test Answer	Post-test Answer
E37	It plays an vital role in Chinese-English translation. It helps readers from oversew understand the text not only in listerially but in a deeper way. To express the meaning what the anthor try to convey.	It helps teadors, especiall foreign itaclorsto understand the text properly.(太草，我看不懂)
E38	N/A	增加译本的逻辑性和易解性，从而使原文晦暗之处在译语中变得清晰，明白，浅显。
E39	N/A	N/A
E40	帮助译语读者理解译文内容，使译文明晰、通顺、逻辑正确。	使译语读者理解原文所表达的意思。使译文通顺、没有文法上的错误，并在此基础上，能让译文贴合原文所表达内容，且能使译语读者理解，对译文不产生歧义。
E41	N/A	显化能更地道、忠实地表达原文的意思，特别是在某些情况下，一些句子需要相应的文化背景才能理解的时候。
E42	N/A	可以使读者更清楚原文的含义以及原文想表达的意思。减少误会，使文章更流畅。
E43	N/A	通俗易懂，使文章意思更加明确，重点突出。
E44	帮助读者更好地理解全文，有利于文化之间的交流。	汉语与英语的语言有着不同之处，文化也有在着差异。显化能够缩小这一影响，从而让翻译文本更加流畅、得体，更易让读者了解其中真正的含义。
E45	It can make reader understand the books when they read the foreign books or information.	通过添加连词或解释性词语等来增强逻辑性和易解性，从而使原文艰涩晦暗之处在译文中变得清晰、明白、浅显。
E46	N/A	It helps the readers understand the implicit meaning from the source text.
E47	可以帮助我们读懂作者的意思，无须过多的推敲。有助于节省翻译的时间以及准确翻译原文的内容。	有助于读者明白译文，显化也有助于使意思表达完整，以及对语法，意思表达上更精确。

Participant	Pre-test Answer	Post-test Answer
E49	N/A	通过运用显化使得翻译过程难度减小,且增加译文逻辑性和易解性。
E50	①More convenient to realize the difference between chinese and english. ②Easier for readers to understand what the author's really ideas and opinions.	1.make readers more easy to read ,to understand what the author want to express.(reader-easy); 2.Artides more smooth to read; 3.aesthetic effect; 4.Gap the difference between various culture, background.(Chinese and English specially);这些技巧帮助我更好的理解、翻译文本。
E51	显化能让译文更加清楚表明原文的真正意思。	令读者更加清楚原文表达的含意,令译文更加符合译出语言规律。
E52	N/A	可以帮助读者更好的理解,因为中文和英文,语法、文化、习惯有很大不同,显化可以在忠实原文的基础上,让翻译更好理解。
E53	显化若运用得体,课使译文更自然流畅,为译语读者提供便利与亲切感,一定程度上可以大幅度改变 Chinglish 的现象。	显化可以使译入语和译出语有更好的共鸣感,帮助译文的读者更好的理解文章大意。也使语言更自然、流畅,便于人们理解文本。
E54	N/A	使得译文更符合英语表达和语法,能够使读者对文中内容有更好的理解。

Table 5 The Control Group's Answers to Question 3 "Can you use explicitation skilfully in Chinese-English translation? (If you can, please illustrate how you use it.)"

Participant	Pre-test Answer	Post-test Answer
C01	N/A	N/A
C02	N/A	N/A
C03	N/A	N/A
C04	N/A	N/A

Participant	Pre-test Answer	Post-test Answer
C06	有时可以，有时不可以，取决于我对句子理解的程度。	否，只知道介绍旅游景点时有故事传说的，要把故事说出来，便于不同文化背景的读者更好地理解景点的由来。
C07	N/A	N/A
C13	N/A	N/A
C14	N/A	N/A
C15	N/A	否。但是我觉得可以用连词来连贯，使译文流畅。还可以增加信息，让译文的逻辑意思完整。还要把汉语笼统的表达变为英语的更实在的表达。
C16	N/A	N/A
C17	N/A	N/A
C18	N/A	N/A
C19	N/A	尚不。
C21	不能，有时会忽略到这点。	否
C22	N/A	N/A
C23	N/A	通过学习和练习对显化有了大概的认识，需要通过更多的练习以加深对其了解。
C24	N/A	N/A
C25	N/A	N/A
C26	不能。	不能

Participant	Pre-test Answer	Post-test Answer
C27	It depends sometimes in some easy passage. I can use it properly. But in some difficult and professional essay, I can't do it best. I think the most important thing use explicitation is use some other word to explain the whole sentence or passage well and make it understandable.	不能
C28	不能，我认为我的翻译略微模糊，容易使翻译句子有歧义和表达不清。	不能，因为在译文中我还不能判断有些信息重要与否，添加显化因素可能会歪解原文意思。同时可能会使译文冗长复杂。一般来说，针对可能造成文化差异的翻译中，我会添加一些关于这方面的解释。
C29	简单的一些可以，比如逻辑关系，e.g. '你不来，我就走。If you do not come, I will go.'	N/A
C30	不能。	我还未能娴熟地应用显化，这需要大量的阅读和练习，我还在努力中……
C31	未达到娴熟。初学阶段，尚在摸索。“显化”方法可以使文本意顺畅地传达于双语之间，因此拿到文本后要通览二至三遍之后，再翻译。	显化需将汉语文本中的蕴含信息处理为可以理解的信息展示给英语读者。必要时可采用拟人（personification），比喻（metaphor & simile），对比（compare & contrast）等修饰手法（rehtorical devices）阐释观点。
C32	不能。	N/A
C34	否。	一般。
C36	不能。	一般，如在这次翻译中遇到的“渔村悠悠，炊烟袅袅”，我试图翻译的意思为“渔村那过的是一种慢生活，有时会有一缕缕的烟是因为有人在煮饭。The fishing village where people live a slowly life, sometimes there was rising smoke because someone was cooking.

Participant	Pre-test Answer	Post-test Answer
C37	暂时不能。	还不能完全娴熟应用。我在翻译过程中虽然会注意到英语的一些逻辑关系所以会在汉译英过程中适当添加一些关连词、连接词，可是有时会忘记对一些较特殊的汉语词的翻译加上适当的解释，也就是说，会忽略对读者的考虑。
C38	N/A	N/A
C40	不能。思维转换显得困难，时态语法应用不好。	不能。应用方法：查找更多关于译文本的资料，理清逻辑并运用相关连接词。
C41	N/A	不是很娴熟，但在渔女的翻译时，我用了 Yunv(fisher girl)来帮助读者理解。
C42	N/A	I still don't know.
C43	其实我不懂。	N/A
C44	应用：①汉语：小心翼翼。②英语：you should be really careful tiuards what you do.即：很多汉语中特有的表达，例如：成语，在翻译的时候，一定要再加上一些句子成分，例如：主语，宾语，使其符合英语表达习惯。	一般情况下可以，例如：一些虚指的代词翻译为较具体的量词。
C45	N/A	N/A
C46	不太能。在转折词上运用转娴熟，如“but-但是，Although-虽然”这种如汉语中没有，能够娴熟地在英语中表达出来。	不能。不会。只会一点连接词运用。
C47	N/A	N/A
C49	不能。	N/A
C50	N/A	N/A
C51	No.	No.

Participant	Pre-test Answer	Post-test Answer
C52	尚未确定能否娴熟地应用显化。	N/A
C54	Sorry, 不是特别熟。	并不能。虽然我能够发现一些原文中不太合理的地方，即直译并不能成功地让读者理解之处，但由于本人翻译水平仍旧较低，且时间不够，所以并不能太充分地使用显化。
C55	N/A	N/A
C56	N/A	N/A
C57	N/A	N/A
C59	N/A	不能。
C60	不能，并不能应用自如。懂基本内容、理论，并不能娴熟应用。	不能十分娴熟。只能一般应用，判断译作的译语读者文化背景，再通过增添词或者信息到译作，使显化功效发挥出来。

Table 6 The Experimental Group's Answers to Question 3 "Can you use explicitation skilfully in Chinese-English translation? (If you can, please illustrate how you use it.)"

Participant	Pre-test Answer	Post-test Answer
E02	N/A	一般。还需要多加练习。如在刚刚的翻译中，我运用单复数、冠词等这些中英文差异的东西使语言更加地道地运用起来。同时，我也会增加一些连接词，如 <i>what's more</i> 等，使语言更加流畅。
E03	N/A	词法：在专有名词前添加“the”；文本：在修饰成分时多用过去分词或现在分词、从句等形式；句法：把无灵主语句的主语添上；语义：添加文中没有的文化信息，如“难得一见”中“美丽的 XX XX 的添加；语法：注意时态、复数等。
E07	不能娴熟运用，需多加练习和开阔思维。	不娴熟，努力学习中。
E08	N/A	A little

Participant	Pre-test Answer	Post-test Answer
E10	N/A	不能很娴熟，觉得自己在翻译方面的能力还是弱一点，不能很熟练地运用。
E11	不太娴熟，因为有时候显化与简洁不能很好协调。	在翻译过程中有意识去运用显化，但还有一定的进步空间。
E13	但在汉译英中，我们需要分析句子，找到主语，并在英语中体现。	还不行。
E14	N/A	能。如语法上的显化及文章内容上的显化。
E15	N/A	通过学习了一个学期的翻译，我还是觉得自己没能很好地应用显化。
E16	N/A	事实上，我仍对单复数时态有些疑惑。
E17	不能，我认为自己在翻的时，读懂就开始翻译对句子成份分析做的并不娴熟，更不用说熟练地应用显化了。	还不能，有时会忽略一些注意，例如单复数和主语的显化以及时态。
E18	I'm not very good at explicitation until now.	不太能。因为我对有些显化手法的运用掌握得并没有那么熟练，还需要多加练习。
E19	N/A	对于添加主语，或者添加关系词、连词、介词、冠词之类的都能意识到要应用显化，但涉及语义语用的显化还是掌握得不好，以致有的翻译看上去很生硬，像翻译软件翻出来的一样。
E20	不能。	否，不能完全掌握。
E21	N/A	否。在翻译时必需有意识的观察才能发现需要显化的部分，容易在翻译时忽略。
E22	N/A	No, I can't. Sometimes I can't even understanding the meaning of different types of explicitation.
E23	N/A	未能。
E25	N/A	N/A
E26	N/A	不太娴熟。

Participant	Pre-test Answer	Post-test Answer
E28	否。	一般。缺主语是要增加主语，使译文句子结构完整。有时可以通过更换主语使译文更通顺，更具有逻辑性。
E29	不能。	不能。
E30	N/A	一般，比如一些带有中国特色的词语，地各（带有历史故事或故事）的都翻译为与它内容相近的名字。
E31	N/A	不是很熟练使用显化。虽然在翻译中会努力将自己的注意力更多放在显化上，但有时候会不清楚该用哪种技巧（或不确定哪一种更合适）去翻译。
E32	No, I think I don't master this skill very well, so that's the reason why won't I'm trying to translate works as much as possible.	I always consider explicitation from the following aspects: grammatical, lexicological, textual, syntactic, semantic and pragmatic explicitation. Then I will pay attention on optional and obligatory explicitation like tense, singular, plurals, personal deixis and so on. (有些单词看不懂，所以有些拼写可能是错的)
E33	我认为自己在这个阶段，对于显化的应用还有所欠缺，需要多加练习才可。	能。比如增词（Addition）和必须翻译出的显化（Obligatory），中文中的无主句在译成英文时，一定要加上主语。
E34	No. Because I don't learn about it more.	N/A
E35	N/A	不能。
E36	N/A	不能。
E37	I can not use it very properly. because sometimes even myself can not understand the holden informations from the text.	No, I don't think I am handle it well.
E38	N/A	解释性语和添加连接词。

Participant	Pre-test Answer	Post-test Answer
E39	N/A	N/A
E40	暂时不能，还未熟练掌握。	形合、意合思维的转化。注重全文时态、语态、单复数等语法。对于原文隐含意义进行适当补充说明，通过改变句型结构（例：从句等形式）来突出重点，补充冠词、数量词等汉语中没有的词性。
E41	N/A	N/A
E42	N/A	我能使用一些显化，但不够娴熟。适当增加主语，改变时态，将模棱两可的内容说清楚。
E43	N/A	一般。不过 foregrounding 里的突出重点还是会合理运用到。
E44	当然不能了。	我认为我不能娴熟地应用显化。
E45	不能。	不能。
E46	N/A	N/A
E47	尚且不能娴熟。汉语中的显化并未向英语那么明显，需仔细的推敲。	较能娴熟。①例如在 grammatical explicitation 中，我会关注并显化是否加单复数； ②lexical explicitation 中是否加 'the'； ③semantic explicitation 是否显化隐含意思； ④ syntax explicitation 是否突显句式变化； ⑤pragmatic explicitation 是否突显语义表达。
E49	N/A	N/A
E50	No, I still can't use the explicitation wen in different context.	Sometime I can use it fluently. I think what I'm good at is the procedure of addition. I have the awareness to add some connections, explain some abstract words and soon.(e.g. and, here, next e.t.) "What challenges me is the procedure of clarification. To be honest, I'm not good at figuring out what authors want to imply [the author implies]."

Participant	Pre-test Answer	Post-test Answer
E51	不能。暂时还在多数直译的阶段。	一般般。一般比较会使用语法、句法、词义、语用的显化。
E52	N/A	① 中文缺少主语时，翻译时加上主语；② 句子间加符合逻辑顺序的连接词；③ 对于一些可能对读者不熟悉的文化背景，试着解释；④ 改变句子顺序，让其符合英文思维；⑤ 词性变化；⑥ 中文喜欢用短句，在翻译时要根据情况改成从句之类的。
E53	暂时还不能，词语变形不熟，力不从心。	有显化的意识，但还不能很熟练的应用，基本语法还比较薄弱。
E54	N/A	有想到是否要应用显化，但是没有能够娴熟应用。

Appendix 11 Excerpts of Interview Transcripts

1.有很大帮助，我觉得最主要的还是当时我们学习的那个“显化”的方法，觉得就是“显化”我们就分为四种类型，然后七个分类，通过这个学习以后我觉得它，就比如说：那种的“显化”就会让我注意下一些语法错误啊，然后像老师在上课强调的 a 啊，the 啊的问题，自己平时可能没有注意到，但是通过训练后，觉得自己这方面的错误会减少很多；还有一些就是说，有一些词你要把它解释出来啊，像所讲的这种文化之间的差异；然后还有一个就是说，整个结构啊，上课讲的那些，思维方式吧，这对于我自己来说进步最大的地方，注意到这些差异.....

.....最大的收获就是首先注意到了那些“显化”对于我们翻译的重要性，就是说一定要注意那个地方；然后我还认识到就是说语法其实很重要的，觉得有的时候一句话里面，有很多语法错误啊，即使你很注意你的修辞，或者怎么样，它也是一个不会得高分的，质量不高的文字；然后还有就是最重要的还是要意识到中西方这种思维上啊、语言上啊，用词上啊的差异吧，这是我收获最大的地方.....

(Participant E50)

2. 师：然后整个篇章呢？就刚才是词和句，然后整个篇章来看.....

学生：整个篇章就是它的连接性的一些词语吧，先把它串起来更加有逻辑性一点，会比较容易翻一些。

师：一般会有意识的去串吗，会用一些连词来串吗？

学生：对，会；因为不串就会看起来有点干巴巴，有点怪，读起来感觉不地道

师：OK.另外就是说我们在教课当中就会提到“显化”，在译的过程中会有意识的或者有时候会想起来这个是“显化”。

(Participant E02)

3. 师：然后我们不是有在教“显化”这个概念，然后在你的翻译当中，你会意识地去用它吗？还是说.....

学生：我觉得我对“显化”这个，好像还学得掌握得不是特别好，就是很多地方我不确定该用哪一个，就不是很多种吗，就是我会不确定应该用哪个才是对的；还有其实，在上课的时候我就有个很大的疑惑，就是因为不是有些句子，老师您说是不能直译吗，就是怎么说，另外的表达这种感觉，但是有时候我觉得您这样翻其实跟原句看起来是完全不一样的，所以我不知道怎么表达，怎么去掌握这个度；把握这个度，我觉得我把握不了；倒觉得如果我是按照自己的理解去翻了之后，但是它翻出来是跟原句完全表达不一样，我就觉得这样子其实是不是有点不符合就是原文的意思啦？ (Participant E05)