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編譯論叢

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會議口譯實習課程之設計與實踐

汝明麗

會議口譯訓練向來強調實務演練，因此除了課堂內的講授外，亦十分重視教室外的實作機會。但實習課程絕不只是單純帶學生走出教室口譯，而是應先充分思考實習課在整個口譯訓練計畫中扮演的角色、與其他課程之間的連結，才能選出適宜的實習活動讓學生參與，並配合適當監督與反思過程，讓學生有最大的學習收穫。本研究首先依據經驗學習與實踐社群、專技習得理論探討口譯實習課程在設計上應考量的要點，接著蒐集臺灣各翻譯研究所既有之口譯實習課程，了解其授課內容，整理授課活動類型，進而訪問授課教師與學生對課程規劃的想法，包括各類實習活動的目的、執行上是否遇到任何困難、預期效益等。最後根據內容分析及訪談結果，提出口譯實習課程設計方向與實施建議。

關鍵詞：口譯實習、經驗學習、實踐社群、專技習得

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Design and Implementation of Conference Interpreting Practicum

Elma Ju

Training of conference interpreters is practice-oriented; in addition to lecturing and exercises in the classroom, opportunities to work under authentic conditions outside the classroom are equally important. However, practicum courses are not simply putting interpreter trainees in a real-life situation where interpretation services are needed. Rather, careful thought must be given to the role of a practicum course in the overall training program, and how it is linked to the rest of the curriculum before having students engage in appropriate learning activities in the field under proper supervision. This study first draws on theories of experiential learning and communities of practice as well as skill acquisition studies for key elements of an interpreting practicum course. Efforts are then made to collect and compile information about existing practicum offered by T&I schools/programs on this island. The researcher conducts content analysis of the course syllabus based on the key elements proposed by the experiential learning and communities of practice theories. The analysis outcomes serve as a basis on which the researcher interviews instructors of these courses with a view to gaining more insights into why the practicum is carried out the way it is, what challenges there may be in implementing the course design and the expected or perceived benefits the students reap from the practicum. As reflection is an essential part of experiential learning, the researcher also seeks to get hold of the students' reflections on their participation in various activities in the practicum. Such reflections provide another means of validating the related theories as well as the instructors' perceptions. Based on the aforesaid analysis and interviews, the researcher will make suggestions as to how an interpreting practicum can be designed and delivered with a more solid theoretical footing.

Keywords: interpreting practicum, experiential learning, community of practice, skill acquisition

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壹、前言

會議口譯作為實務導向的訓練，向來重視實作。有鑑於教室內講授與演練無法完全複製真實口譯情境，幾乎各地翻譯研究所均有安排實習課程，讓學生在接受過一定程度的訓練後，有機會在實際口譯場域觀摩或應用所學。不過實習課程絕非單純將學生帶去口譯會場做啞箱（dumb booth，指實際到會場進口譯箱練習同步口譯，但不開啟麥克風），或安排學生擔任某一大型活動的語言志工而已。在學生去實習場域前需要作什麼準備、實習結束後如何反芻及消化實習經驗，都會影響實習課程的成效。

本研究針對全臺翻譯研究所的口譯實習課程展開調查，希望了解其設計與執行的現況，並依據既有文獻內容的分析整理，提出兼顧理論和實務的課程設計方向，幫助學生順利進入口譯職場。

貳、文獻探討

本研究之理論框架分為三層。第一層級為產學合作，探討實習課程的銜接功能；第二層為實習課程的理論基礎——經驗學習與實踐社群；第三層則為常見實習活動類別。

一、產學合作

口譯本身即為專技的表現，訓練多以技能習得優先於理論學習，即所謂學徒制（apprenticeship）（Sawyer, 2004）。有鑑於學生畢業後終將進入各種會議，為不同類型的客戶／使用者服務，愈來愈多的口譯學校開始思考如何透過課程設計，反映會場情境（Lee, 2005）、縮減學用落差。

陳子瑋等於 2014 年國家教育研究院（以下簡稱國教院）《臺灣翻譯產學關聯研究》（以下簡稱《產學關聯報告》）指出，為減少學用落差以及協助學生畢業後順利進入職場，產學合作向來是各國政府、各大產業與教育機構

所關注的焦點。以學生個人角度而言，從學校到職場的轉換（school-to-work transition）對其在未來職涯成功與否有極大影響（Koen et al., 2012）。透過與產業界的合作，教育機構讓學生可以在畢業離開校園之前，體驗職場生活以及可能遇到的困難，並能實際應用教室裡所學的理論，比較理論與實務的差距，甚至有機會與教師一起討論這種差異（Baytiyeh & Naja, 2012）。

在翻譯界的產學合作方面，前述國教院《產學關聯報告》（陳子瑋等，2014）透過問卷調查與質性訪談，探討翻譯人才訓練機構與翻譯用人機構對於產學合作的看法，結果發現，學界與業界的合作目的存在一定的歧異。前者希望產學合作能夠讓學生認識職場環境，了解自己的興趣與未來發展方向；但對於翻譯用人機構而言，產學合作則是為了幫助學生建立該工作領域的專業能力。而產學合作的進行方式包括邀請業界人士蒞校演講、實際至用人機構或口譯會場實習、校內教師與業師[1]共同開課（協同教學）。產學合作所面臨的挑戰則包括學生能力不足、教師負擔加重、服務需求方無法及早確認與規劃、工作內容與在校所學存在差異等。

張嘉倩與林明佳（2017）透過文獻分析與訪談，探討臺灣口譯教育的現況，包括開課情形、教師背景、教學目標與課程設計、口譯產學合作現狀及口譯學術研究現況。在口譯產學合作現況的討論提到，研究所層級的口譯實習課程範圍廣泛，從會場接待、觀摩專業口譯到實際上場口譯都含括其中，邀請口譯或產業人才到校分享也是常見的產學合作或接軌的方式。

上述研究皆藉由大規模問卷發放輔以質性訪談，從總體方向分析臺灣翻譯產學關聯以及臺灣口譯教育的發展策略。在研究對象上，前者以翻譯人才訓練機構與翻譯用人機構為主，後者則進一步訪談八位熟悉臺灣口譯教育發展、於研究所或大學任教之口譯教師。兩份研究均透過第一手資料，分析目前翻譯產學合作、口譯教學的實際狀況，並提出政策建議。本研究將以之為

[1] 業師係指會展從業人員，包括現職口譯員、會議公司工作人員、音響工程師、公關公司工作人員等。

基礎，聚焦於研究所層級的口譯實習課，訪談對象則包括口譯教師與修習過實習課的學生。

二、實踐社群與經驗學習

談到口譯實習課的設計，就必須先了解口譯產業的生態：口譯員在轉介工作機會時，看的往往不只是學經歷，同時會側面了解其口碑，包括口譯能力、敬業態度等，而後者資訊多來自對方的口譯教師或合作過的譯者、客戶。對於有志從事口譯工作的翻譯所畢業生來說，在校實習課程往往是他們接觸外部業界人士的第一次機會。由此觀之，Lave 與 Wenger（1991）所提出的實踐社群（communities of practice）概念與口譯實習可謂息息相關。

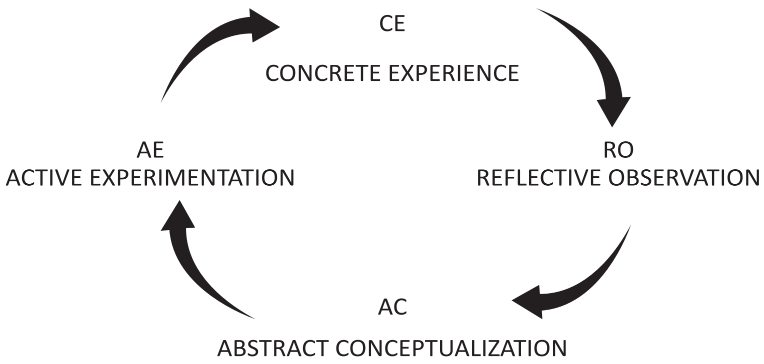
Lave 與 Wenger（1991）在研究師徒制學習模式時提出此一概念，意指新手學徒在工廠裡除了面對師傅外，還會接觸到其他精熟程度不一的學徒。身處這樣的社群中，新手學習的對象絕對不只限於師傅，而是所有社群成員。Wenger（2009）後續探討並擴大實踐社群的應用領域，將其定義為一群對某事物懷抱相同熱情的人，並持續互動、切磋精進個人於該事物的表現。Wenger 等（2002）強調，真正的實踐社群必須具備三個要素：（1）共同領域：對該領域的關注和興趣使該社群成員比非成員更具備特定領域的專業能力，並萌生認同感；（2）形成社群：因著對特定領域的共同興趣，社群成員會一起從事活動、相互討論、交流資訊；（3）實務作法：長期互動之下，社群成員逐漸發展出該領域內的實務常規，共享各種資源，如分享經驗、討論如何處理常見問題等。

仔細觀之，口譯實務界確實具備這三項要素：口譯圈成員與他人相較，都具備一定程度的口譯技能，對於口譯市場、專業發展也都有所關注；口譯實務上原本就需要有搭檔，在工作上密切合作、討論、交流資訊，自然而然形成一個社群；更重要的是，口譯界長期發展下來，確實有若干常見實務規範，如何與客戶協商、溝通等也有模式可循，因此口譯實務界確實可視為一實踐社群。

當然，所有實習課程都強調實作經驗，而 Kolb（1984）承襲 Dewey、Lewin 與 Piaget，提出經驗學習理論（experiential learning theory），認為「學習是透過經驗轉化來創造知識的過程；知識來自對經驗的理解與轉化」（p. 41）。Kolb 進一步提出兩種經驗理解模式：具體經驗（concrete experience, CE）與抽象概念（abstract conceptualization, AC），以及兩種經驗轉化模式：反思觀察（reflective observation, RO）和主動驗證（active experimentation, AE），形成一個四階段的循環學習過程——個人首先累積具體經驗（CE），接著退一步檢視、省思該經驗（RO），依據邏輯思維整理出新的洞見知識（AC），最後透過實際操作來驗證新的知識（AE）（見圖 1）。

圖 1

Kolb 經驗學習循環



資料來源：引自 *Experiential Learning: Experience as the Source of Learning and Development* (p. 21), by D. A. Kolb, 1984, Prentice-Hall. Copyright 1984 by Prentice-Hall.

這樣的學習循環過程在教室內固然可以進行，但實習課程的重點是將學生放在真實的（authentic）經驗學習情境，這裡指的不僅是在會議現場逐步口譯或同步口譯，前述與實踐社群的互動也是重要的經驗學習。至於如何確保口譯學生在獲取具體經驗之外，確實能有所反思，並主動進行自我驗證，則端視實習課程的設計與執行。

三、常見口譯實習活動

在專技發展研究領域，Klein 與 Hoffman（1993）提出四種有助於習得專技的經驗類別，分別是個人實作、指導、加工以及替代經驗。個人實作經驗基本上即為做中學；指導經驗係指以學徒之姿進入工作場域，例如觀摩師傅／專家示範；加工經驗則是在教室裡模擬工作場域，學習者必須在一定時間、空間內執行具特定難度的任務；最後，替代經驗主要指的則是專家訴說（storytelling）、分享實務經驗。

對應上述四種經驗類別，凡是在會場的實習活動，不論是實際提供口譯服務或是在現場做啞箱、擔任工讀生，應屬個人實作經驗；以聽眾角度觀摩口譯表現則屬學徒進入工作場域見習的指導經驗；至於業師或校友分享，應屬故事訴說型的替代經驗；模擬會議／角色扮演則最接近所謂的加工經驗。

從另一個角度來看，專技養成涉及直接經驗與間接經驗的累積（Klein & Hoffman, 1993），在常見口譯實習活動中確實可看到這兩個面向。直接的口譯實習主要是直接上場提供口譯服務，地點可以是教室／學校內，聽眾可能是教師、學生或其他人。最常見的例子是由教師邀請校內外講者到課堂上演講，並由學生提供口譯服務（Tsuruta & Naito, 2011）。若近一步擴大規模，例如邀請更多位講者、擬定正式議程、開放校外人士參與等，就是一般口譯學校會不定期舉辦的模擬會議。模擬會議不見得在實習課進行，但相較於一般課堂由教師準備素材讓學生練習，模擬會議則是藉由調整學習環境來打造接近真實會場的體驗（Conde & Chouc, 2019），其效益包括促進合作學習（胡家榮、廖柏森，2009）、提高抗壓性、增加特定主題知識（Li, 2015）、打造實踐社群的體驗（Lave & Wenger, 1991）等。相較之下，到校外實際會場口譯或是進入企業內參與較長期的實習方案（internship），一般來說機會有限（Li, 2015）。畢竟真實工作情境變數較多，在難易度較難掌控的情況下，對會議主辦單位或學生而言，風險較高。至於間接經驗，較常見的產學銜接方

式則包括聆聽校友或業師的第一手經驗分享、在會場觀摩專業口譯（Chang & Wu, 2017）等。

參、研究方法

本研究採用內容分析法與訪談法，首先參考前述產學關聯與口譯教育發展策略等研究，輔以經驗學習理論及實踐社群相關文獻，整理出口譯實習課程可考慮的要素。接著蒐集、整理目前全臺翻譯所實習課程實施現況，取得授課教師的授課大綱等資料，與理論比對，並以此為基礎，設計訪談大綱，邀請實習課的授課教師與修課學生接受訪問。

訪談大綱分為教師版與學生版（參見附錄），初稿擬定後分別請曾經教授口譯實習課程的一位資深口譯兼教師，以及一位曾經修習過口譯實習課的學生進行預試，確認訪談問題清楚易懂，並根據兩位的反饋意見加以微調訪題的用字遣詞或順序安排。

最終定稿之訪談問題可分為兩大類，第一類是實習課的設計與規劃，包括：（1）目前實習課程的內涵、各項活動比重安排及其背後考量；（2）口譯實習細節，如實習合作對象及執行階段注意事項。前者希望能與經驗學習理論的四階段來比對，後者則希望了解實習課與實踐社群之間的互動情形。第二類問題則關乎實習課程的執行，希望透過授課教師與修課學生的角度，了解實習課的效益以及執行上的困難。

研究範圍為國內七所提供口譯培訓碩士學位之研究所。[2] 在本研究計畫書提出當年度，研究者先行至上述七所研究所的網站蒐集口譯實習課程資料與授課大綱，由此擬定受訪教師名單。但由於若干學校的網站上顯示當學年度

2 國立臺灣師範大學翻譯研究所、國立臺灣大學翻譯碩士學位學程、輔仁大學跨文化研究所翻譯學碩士班、國立彰化師範大學翻譯研究所、長榮大學翻譯學系碩士班、文藻外語大學多國語複譯研究所、國立高雄科技大學應用英語系口筆譯碩士班。

未開設口譯實習課程，或口譯實習課由多位教師共同授課，研究者最後決定以專任教師為優先訪談對象。主要是因為專任教師通常年資較深，較有機會實際參與系所課程規劃階段的討論，也較熟悉系所課程的執行情形。受訪學生則是由受訪教師提供，於教師訪談結束後，請教師列出可能有意願接受訪談的名單，再由研究助理聯繫安排。

如前所述，在本計畫開始時，國內七所研究所中僅四所有開設名稱為「口譯實習」或「實習」的課程，但本研究訪談對象仍含各所至少一位口譯專任教師，包括目前正在教授口譯實習或過去曾負責過該類課程者，總計有八位任教於研究所之專任教師接受訪談。受訪學生則主要透過受訪教師引介，除了其中一所研究所因停開實習課較久，無法找到適合訪談的對象外，總計有 14 位來自六所不同研究所或翻譯碩士學程的學生（含畢業生）接受訪談。[3]

另外，本研究也請授課教師或受訪學生提供實際繳交過的實習心得報告。透過這些資料以及訪談逐字稿，研究者以專技習得、經驗學習理論和實踐社群為基礎進行分析，同步納入師生雙方觀點來檢視實習課的設計與實踐。

肆、結果與討論

一、統計結果：受訪者基本資料整理

本研究共計訪談八位代表七所翻譯研究所或翻譯碩士學程的專任教師，男、女各半，口譯年資和口譯教學年資（在 2017 年受訪時）平均近 15 年，是一群極為資深、經驗豐富的口譯兼口譯教師，詳細資料請參見表 1。

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[3] 六所翻譯研究所分別為：國立臺灣師範大學翻譯研究所、國立臺灣大學翻譯碩士學位學程、輔仁大學跨文化研究所翻譯學碩士班、國立彰化師範大學翻譯研究所、長榮大學翻譯學系碩士班、文藻外語大學多國語複譯研究所。

表 1

受訪教師基本資料

代號	性別	口譯年資	教學年資
T1	男	21	21
T2	男	21	15
T3	男	13	9
T4	女	15	15
T5	女	14	14
T6	女	16	16
T7	女	6	11
T8	男	20	16
平均		14.1 年	14.6 年

14 位受訪學生則來自六所翻譯研究所或碩士翻譯學程，其中男學生六位、女學生八位，其在學年級請參見表 2。

表 2

受訪學生基本資料

代號	性別	年級（碩班）
S1	女	三
S2	女	三
S3	女	三
S4	女	三
S5	男	三
S6	女	三
S7	男	二

（續下頁）

表 2

受訪學生基本資料（續）

代號	性別	年級（碩班）
S8	男	二
S9	女	畢業一年
S10	女	畢業四年
S11	男	二
S12	男	四
S13	男	三
S14	女	三

二、實習活動類別

由於實習機會安排不易，不論是業師或校友經驗分享、會場觀摩與工讀、會場做啞箱或口譯，都需要諸多外部因素配合。因此，教師在受訪時皆表示實習活動的次數與比例很難計算，每學期情況不盡相同，再加上有許多不可控因素。

在本研究調查的七所研究所／碩士層級的口譯課程中（以下以 I 代表各校或學程加以說明），有三所學校在受訪前一學年間，並未開設任何（口譯）實習或實務課程。不過，該系所教師或多或少在其他課程中有融入以下幾種常見的實習或實作活動。

其中四所受訪時有開設口譯實習或實習課的學校（I-1、I-3、I-5、I-6），其課程時數（學分）與開課階段（學年／期）、活動類型概述如下：

I-1：共開設兩門課程，分別為碩二上「口譯實習」（三學分）及碩二下「口譯實務」（兩學分）。兩門課程皆未含模擬會議，但包含以下活動：業師分享、校友經驗分享、會議觀摩、會場工讀、啞箱、實際逐步／同步口譯及其他相關工作，如架設與操作口譯器材、履歷表撰寫、如何報價與自我行銷。兩門

課分別由不同教師授課。「口譯實習」的教師為業師，課程安排以認識會展產業為主；「口譯實務」的教師則為專業口譯教師，安排較多校內會議實際口譯。上述列舉的各類實習活動都分別在二上或二下舉辦。

I-3：僅一門「口譯實習」課（三學分），但分別於三個學期（碩一下、碩二上與碩二下）開設，平均一學分需累積兩小時以上的實習時數。會議觀摩占多數，需搭配填寫口譯觀摩表，校內偶爾有同步口譯實習機會，而實際口譯的實習時數為觀摩的兩倍，亦即將會前準備時間也一併計入該學期口譯時數內。其他活動如模擬會議、角色扮演、業師與校友分享則主要於口筆譯入門課實施。

I-5：僅一門「口譯實務」課（三學分），開設於碩二下學期。學生必須完成三個學期的課程翻譯活動才能取得學分，主要協助校內其他系所外籍教師授課翻譯，形式包括逐步口譯與導覽器同步口譯。其餘活動如模擬會議、業師與校友分享、會場觀摩、啞箱與實際口譯服務等，均於另一門課「會議口譯（二）」由授課教師視情況安排。

I-6：碩士班為兩年制，碩二下學期本無任何課程安排，然而為達校方設定之研究生畢業門檻（須於畢業前實習），翻譯所二下學生必須修實習課，且須於校外實習，進入業界累積一定時數或字數的口、筆譯。至於模擬會議，僅於大學部安排一學期的課程，研究所並無相關活動。會場觀摩則鼓勵學生利用課餘時間進行，並未納入課程或時數要求。實際口譯實習則由教師自行為學生安排，非正式課程的一部分。

至於未開課之三所學校（I-2、I-4、I-7），其實習機會及活動類型概述如下：

I-2：由於校方有開課時數限制，因此並未開設口譯實習課，但上、下學期皆會各舉行一次模擬會議。由一年級學生負責籌辦、擔任講者，二年級做同步口譯練習。此外，校內若有系所邀請講者蒞校演講，也會安排翻譯所學生口譯。至於會場工讀或啞箱，大多由外部機構聯繫所方、提供機會。校內有些院所的導師會議也會請學生協助，用小蜜蜂（教學用麥克風）同步口譯。

I-4：目前實習課已經停開，過去則於碩三上學期開設，涵括上述大多數實習活動類別，僅未曾安排學生至會議現場工讀、發放耳機。模擬會議舉行一至三次，最後一次訂於期末作為期末考。也有許多由業師或學生演講，讓修課學生口譯練習的情況。至於校內外的實際口譯工作，主要以校內系所舉辦的研討會為主。會議觀摩則是鼓勵學生多參與。課程停開後，則主要請外部講者到口譯課堂上演講，並由學生進口譯箱練習，一學期約兩次左右。模擬會議則因教師、學生人數太少，較少舉行。

I-7：因課堂時數限制，目前已經停開實習課。過去曾開設口筆譯市場介紹（結合實習）課程，當時除模擬會議外，其他各類活動均包含在內。儘管目前已無實習課，但仍會利用其他形式進行，例如由雙講師（校內教師與校外業師）共同開課，邀請專家到校演講，讓學生口譯練習。此外，同步及逐步口譯教師也皆會視情況安排實習機會，如校內研究發展處或校外會議主辦單位（基於預算考量）邀請學生提供口譯服務。

整體而言，即便系所未開設口譯實習或實務課程，口譯授課教師（無論是口筆譯入門、逐步口譯、同步口譯等）仍可能會在課內／外時間安排不同類型的實習活動。因此，課程開設與否並不影響學生是否能取得實習機會。不過，在未開設課程的情況下，此類活動可能就會影響到教師授課進度，或因經費（邀請業師演講）限制，導致特定類型活動次數較少。

以下根據全體師生訪談之質性資料，分別討論各項實習活動的舉辦情形與可能效益。

（一）模擬會議

1. 規劃內容

七所學校中，僅四所不定期舉辦模擬會議。此處所指之模擬會議如 Ardito（1999）、林宜瑾等（2005）、Li（2015）、Conde 與 Chouc（2019）所討論，為較正式甚至涉及多種語言的會議。通常會議中會有數位講者針對同一議題發表演講或進行座談，而講者可能是校外的領域專家，也可能由學生來扮演。會議主題與素材可由教師團隊（De Laet, 2010）或學生自行選定。

另有一類模擬會議稱為「迷你模擬會議」或「角色扮演」，主要由教師安排資深口譯或領域專家至課堂上演講，學生進入口譯箱做同步口譯練習。因為講者人數僅一位，聽眾可能只有授課教師或少數學生，故稱為迷你會議。另一種情況則是由教師決定主題，要求學生自行作課前準備，輪流擔任主持人、講者、口譯等角色於課堂上練習，此即角色扮演。

由於在校內課堂進行，教師參與度高，包括會前規劃、會中觀察與聆聽以及會後討論與講評。至於會議主題，無論是由教師或學生決定，通常皆會是當年度熱門議題。因此，從食品安全到同婚制度，都曾是這些口譯模擬會議選定之議題。

2. 師生看法比較

各校教師對於模擬會議舉辦效益看法不一。問到若受限於時間與資源，模擬會議是否仍應保留時，教師 T2 認為答案是肯定的，因為「比起實際去口譯，多了一個可控制的優點」，不希望學生們「遇到很難的講者，結果帶回失敗與沮喪」。模擬會議可提供有難度但卻不至於太難的內容，對學生來說是好的。這點呼應了 Klein 與 Hoffman（1993）提出的加工體驗（manufactured experience），藉由模擬實際工作現場培養學生評估情境與應變的能力。而控制難度也讓學生得以透過模擬會議建立自信（De Laet, 2010）。

相較之下，教師 T1 則認為，若有實際口譯機會，就算只是做啞箱，即可捨棄模擬會議，因為「模擬會議跟實際工作比起來還是差很多的」。教師 T5 也對一般模擬會議角色扮演抱持質疑態度，因為「情境不同就會有很大的不同」。換言之，模擬會議的真實性（authenticity）仍有所欠缺。

而教師 T4 則是在無法邀到業師或領域專家來演講時，會選擇時下最熱門、最重要的主題，請學生自行查找資料，並到課堂演練，也就是針對特定主題，利用角色扮演的方式讓學生加強練習。這與東京外國語大學會議口譯學程作法一致，強調「關起門來做角色扮演與模擬會議的確有必要且安全」（Tsuruta & Naito, 2011, p. 106）。

學生的看法同樣分歧。有人覺得模擬會議似乎最後變成一個「show」（S1），因為學生在會前就能取得所有會議資料、甚至逐字稿，會認為自己的口譯不能出錯。而教師也是針對學生在準備萬全的表現下提出評語，「感覺不夠真……因為我們的表現其實也不是真實的」（S5）。但 S2 認為，從觀眾的角度來看，模擬會議未必不真實，反而是學生的心態可能需要調整。因為學生自己在準備時，就會覺得必須完美呈現，不可以有任何錯誤。

相較之下，參與過迷你模擬會議的學生提出的評價則較為正面。S9 和 S10 都提到教師安排業師演講，讓學生進口譯箱翻譯，並於結束後播放口譯與原音的雙軌錄音，由授課教師當場檢討，並邀請業師（領域專家）提供意見。S8 也提到某次口譯實習授課教師邀請講者至課堂上演講，讓學生練習逐步口譯。雖然沒有觀眾，但：

> 畢竟是外來的講者，有一種情境在，所以翻譯起來覺得蠻像真實的場面……而且那個講者老師也可以提供他的回饋與觀察。（S8）

該生稱之為一種「半情境式的」模擬會議，這在一定程度上呼應 Thiery（1990，轉引自 Sawyer, 2004）強調的會議口譯的情境感（the sense of situation）。

綜合師生看法，模擬會議和角色扮演具備相對可控的優點，屬於直接經驗累積，亦可說介於個人實作經驗與加工經驗兩者之間（Klein & Hoffman, 1993）。有師生提出真實性的問題，則牽涉到如何加工（manufacture）經驗。例如，資料提供可盡量貼近真實工作情況，像是較晚提供資料，迫使譯者提升準備效率，或僅提供投影片或演講大綱而非逐字稿／演講稿，並加入不同語速和問答環節，拉高口譯工作的變化與難度，亦即調整學習環境使其盡量接近真實（Conde & Chouc, 2019）。

此外，當下立即檢討也很重要。不論是資深口譯或其他領域專家，外來講者針對學生口譯提出的回饋意見皆十分寶貴。換言之，除了在擬真專業情境中沉浸式學習外，結束後更要加以分析，並獲取其他參與者的回饋（Perez & Wilson, 2011）。這種反思實踐（reflective practice）有助提升感知技巧（perceptual skills）（Klein & Hoffman, 1993），也符合 Kolb（1984）所說的

反思觀察（RO）。另一方面，規模縮小亦可增加操作彈性，無須勞師動眾即可定期讓學生進入這種擬真的會場演練，口譯學生在這類半情境或迷你模擬會議中也需要調整心態，以提供專業口譯服務的心情上場，應可讓這類實習活動發揮其原本設定的效益。

（二）業師／校友分享

1. 規劃內容

這裡指的業師可分為三大類。第一類是口譯，其中又可分為資深譯者以及與學生年齡較接近的畢業校友。第二類為會展產業相關專業人士，包括會議公司業務、音響設備工程師等。第三類則是其他領域專家。

七所學校均透過口譯實習或其他口譯課程（如口筆譯入門、逐步口譯、同步口譯）邀請業師到課堂分享。以口譯為例，多數聚焦於心路歷程、學習經驗的分享。而會展產業相關工作人員的分享重點則是介紹與口譯相關的產業工作環境，包括口譯箱等硬體設備的架設、討論口譯客戶需求等資訊。至於其他領域專家則多就個人專長領域發表演講，增進學生的知識廣度，即前述迷你模擬會議中提及之業師講者，講題十分多元，從語言、宗教到智慧財產權等不一而足。

2. 師生看法比較

八位教師中有四位均表示，邀請出色校友至課堂上分享，是學生們最喜歡的實習課活動之一，似乎能夠重燃學生對口譯的熱情（T4）。教師 T2 也指出，學生們喜歡聽校友分享經驗，主要是因為想知道如何進入市場。教師 T8 特別強調，資深口譯和校友分享仍有些許差別。大老級的譯者對學生來說似乎遙不可及，「但是學長姊前幾年畢業而已……已經很有成就了」，這就特別有激勵作用。

同樣地，這類活動能否加強實踐社群意識也與分享者的資歷、學生個人能力有關。T2 與 T8 都認為校友到課堂上分享自身經驗，修課學生後續能透過社群媒體追蹤校友動態，彼此之間似乎沒有隔閡，能很快拉近距離，有助

於提高凝聚力。但 T4 則認為效果因人而異。程度優異的學生會期待有朝一日加入這些優秀譯者的行列，但程度相對較低的學生不見得會有這種想法。

呼應前述教師們的看法，確實很多學生偏好業師或校友的經驗分享。學生 S11 就表示：「面對面跟業師（資深口譯）這樣的溝通、問答，真的給我們很大精神上的鼓勵」。S3 也認為，這種經驗分享是「其他課找不到的東西，然後你去外面上網搜尋什麼也不會有人隨便分享這些經驗」。這種第一手經驗，包括國外口譯所的訓練方式、學生如何安排練習與作息、工作上遇到的問題、狀況等。

此外，學生是否能透過這些分享，有較深刻的實踐社群認同感？持正面看法的學生認為，若以成為專業口譯為目標，可進一步與校友聯繫，甚至提供自己的履歷表，同時嚮往日後會輪到自己與學弟妹分享，有世代傳承的感覺（S4、S8、S10）。

相對地，有學生則認為要看情形，與教師 T4、T8 看法近似。也就是學生有時候會覺得自己與校友的程度似乎差很多，難免有一定的距離感（S3、S6、S10）。S12 不否認有些學生會有這樣的想法，但是「最主要是要問自己夠不夠努力……老師這方面（精神）打氣也很重要」。

至於會場工作人員、工程師等第二類業師分享，S1 覺得很重要，因為這些業師都會在課堂上細心地提醒學生，實際口譯時不一定會注意到的東西。而口譯畢竟隸屬於會展產業，透過業師分享，學生可以從更宏觀的角度理解自己所投身的產業環境。

最後，談到第三類業師——各領域專家分享，參與過迷你模擬會議的學生特別指出，這類演講會特別有臨場感（因為要實際口譯），同時也可以從中學習很多知識。

總體而言，師生皆樂見將業師／校友經驗分享納入實習或口譯課。其可能產生的效益包括增進學生不同的領域知識、激勵學生有為者亦若是、學習從更寬廣的角度來看待口譯工作。

根據 Klein 與 Hoffman（1993）的分類，專家或熟手的心得分享屬替代經驗，也就是學生 S5 所說：「不希望到了職場上，花了很多慘痛的經驗與時間去學」。但此類活動能否促進實踐社群凝聚力，師生皆有人持較保留的態度。若回到 Lave 與 Wenger（1991）的實踐社群定義，會發現社群成員除了一起從事活動、交流資訊，還會長期互動，共享各種資源。因此，在口譯或實習課中邀請業師或校友分享經驗，或可視為社群建立的開端。除了教師替學生精神打氣外，學生亦可後續善加利用社群媒體與校友交流討論，提升社群凝聚力。

（三）會場實習

與會場有關或在會場進行的實習活動，大致可分為以聽眾身分至會場觀摩、擔任會場工讀生、啞箱及實際提供口譯服務。平均而言，前三類活動在一學期課程裡僅會出現一至二次（僅一所學校例外，詳見下列討論），故以下匯總討論課程內容及師生看法。

1. 觀摩／擔任工讀生／啞箱

七校皆透過口譯實習或其他口譯課鼓勵學生多參與會議，觀摩專業譯者的表現。僅其中一所學校較為特別，會場觀摩占實習活動比重超過一半以上。該校教師設計了口譯觀摩單讓學生填寫，內容分為四大項。第一是描述會場位置、聽眾組成、口譯箱放置位置；第二部分為講者原文與譯文比對，分析口譯難度、口譯策略、譯者遇到的挑戰等；第三部分則要求學生只聽譯文，以聽眾角度對口譯進行評價；最後第四部分則是心得總結，說明觀摩對個人口譯學習有何幫助。

相較之下，其他學校皆無類似表單，且觀摩活動在口譯實習裡普遍占比較低。有時僅由口譯教師告知可報名觀摩的會議，但經常是由學生自行尋找這類機會。程序方面，有的教師會事先提供議程和資料給學生，要求學生先閱讀資料，並於觀摩後與學生討論參與心得。

教師 T2 在訪談時特別提到，若想要求學生去觀摩自己擔任口譯的會議，會事先與學生說明觀摩時要特別留意之處，如較難的原文、現場口譯如何處

理等。但 T2 坦言，觀摩的效益因人而異，可能會有很大的落差。有些學生對語言的敏感度不足，觀摩的效益就很有限。教師 T4 相對較樂觀，認為要求學生聽會觀摩時，需提醒一下該注意的內容，但實際上學生們其實能很快進入狀況，加上學生本身具不同專業背景，會後彼此在 Line 群組的討論反而讓教師受益匪淺。

學生對觀摩的意見頗具啟發性，如 S11 認為可以學習口譯換手、互動的方式。但 S3 和 S4 則認為：

> 觀摩很有用，可是又覺得每次觀摩完就覺得用不到自己身上，就是差很多然後也不知道怎麼辦。

而且許多會議內容艱澀、枯燥，其實無法兼顧原文與譯文。

受訪學生中，有兩位（S7、S8）的口譯實習課，觀摩比例高達七至八成。他們對於口譯觀摩單的設計都表示肯定，認為觀摩單讓他們能在會場時有意識地觀察可學習之處。但 S8 也提到，有時候能觀察到的點都相同，寫到最後會有點疲乏。S7 也認為，觀摩本身有幫助，但課程沒有安排上課時間，無法與教師、同儕討論，較為可惜，甚至「大部分同學都是覺得反正就是累積時數就好了」。

另一方面，有學生也認為，在訓練階段安排觀摩活動可能也有影響，例如 S1 指出，碩一時不會思考觀摩時要如何觀察，二上時也懵懵懂懂，直至二下時才知道需要加強之處，觀摩時就會特別關注專業口譯的處理與策略。S5 也認為，觀摩的收穫與自己本身的學習進程有關，換句話說，太早去聽可能也無法理解口譯員的策略或處理方式。有趣的是，S7 和 S8 恰好是碩一剛結束，即將升碩二的學生，而 S5 和 S11 則是甫完成二年級的訓練。

Chang 與 Wu（2017）的研究即以前述的口譯觀摩單為核心，邀請碩一學生在一上時開始運用這份表單觀摩會議，總計蒐集了 50 份觀摩單進行分析。結論認為觀摩單讓學生在觀摩時能夠更加聚焦，深入且全面地觀察、省思專業譯者的工作方式及環境。值得留意的是，該文指出由於研究者有時即為該場會議的口譯，因此學生在與會前就有機會能與跟教師討論如何準備該場會

議。甚至在某些情況下可以爭取學生在會場閒置口譯箱內做啞箱練習。會議如有錄音，也能於課堂上播放較具難度的段落給學生練習，並加以討論。

比對前述師生看法，口譯觀摩單類似於 Klein 與 Hoffman（1993）所提的指導經驗（directed experience），提供清楚的結構與輔導作用。但除了提醒學生該注意哪些部分外，可能也需要考量學生的學習進程。當學生對於口譯困難度有足夠自覺時，才有動機和能力作好觀摩。若能進一步將觀摩與教室內活動連結，如會前資料準備以及根據會議演講錄音做口譯演練，應該都有助於提升學生參與觀摩活動的興趣。

在會場工讀方面，型態多元，包括擔任講者聯絡人、雙語主持司儀、專案經理、協助引導現場貴賓、協助租借口譯機等。然而，前提是要有會展活動及聘用工讀生的需求，學生才能有上述實習機會。至於啞箱的安排，則需要事先與場地或主辦單位協調。若授課教師恰好也是該場會議的口譯，通常較有可能安排。也因為這些不可控因素，這兩類活動次數較少，甚至掛零。

授課教師 T1 即表示，安排會場工讀，主要是希望學生了解：

> 口譯工作周邊還有很多相關的服務，希望每個人都去每個環節試試看……將來合作的時候比較好。

而教師 T2 也分享他經常跟學生打的一個比方：

> 如果你要成為廚師的話，你去拜師傅，師傅會叫你先掃地，但你說掃地跟我煮飯有什麼關係……其實你必須要知道整個環節……口譯的工作不是那種高高在上的工作。

學生們對這樣的安排也頗能認同，如 S1 就表示：

> 平常我們去口譯，很難想像背後有很多人去支撐起一件事情……去上實習課讓我們可以更了解自己在當中扮演什麼樣的角色。

S11 則強調，若在會場擔任司儀，會後檢討可以激勵自己回想當天情形，避免以後再犯類似錯誤。

至於將啞箱納入實習，教師 T2 和 T8 持保留態度。T8 認為：

我個人的感覺是跟自己練習、同學之間練習相比其實效果沒有好到哪裡去，因為沒人在聽……模擬會議比 dumb booth 好，因為有聽眾。

教師 T2 也提出類似觀察：「如果 dumb booth 是去亂做的話，乾脆不要浪費時間」。

學生們其實很清楚，要找到實際口譯的實習機會並不容易。在會場做啞箱已十分接近會議口譯實作，所以 S2、S5 皆表示，希望實習課能多安排啞箱機會。S3 認為做啞箱有助於了解業界的真實情況，例如可以深刻感受到課堂所學與實際口譯的難度落差。或許也因為如此，S3、S4 都表示，若教師不在啞箱現場，學生時常會中途放棄，開始聽專業譯者的翻譯，且學生僅能彼此討論作為檢討，無法獲得教師的反饋。

綜合師生看法，啞箱要發揮效益，似乎需要更強調事前的資料準備，並要求學生錄音作後續檢討，才能讓這類實作經驗真正幫助學生精進口譯技能。誠如 Kiraly（2000，轉引自 Sawyer, 2004）所強調，教授翻譯時，教師／教練的角色是透過示範、觀摩和反思提供學生學習環境。啞箱實習除了讓學生在現場觀摩專業譯者的「示範」外，也應加入反思以強化效果。

2. 實際提供口譯服務

（1）規劃內容

以校內而言，各校國際事務處、研究發展處、全院或全校導師會議、師資培育處／教師發展中心等都有相對固定的口譯需求，提供校內翻譯研究所學生實際提供逐步、同步口譯服務的機會。有的學校則因特定科系聘請外籍教師授課之故，也有每周固定的課程翻譯需求。此外，各校特色系所舉辦的國際研討會，時常基於經費限制，必須尋求翻譯所學生協助口譯。至於校外的實習機會，有時候是會議主辦單位主動來電系所詢問，有時則透過教師在業界的人脈來安排，因此有時不見得屬於實習課的範疇。例如教師 T6 指出，有時是校方接辦大型研討會，要求翻譯所師生搭檔，有時則是校外機構基於預算考量，要求師生合作口譯，這些都是學生實際上場演練的機會。

至於實習學生是否收取口譯費，有兩所學校明文訂定學生口譯實習收費制度，另三所學校則採逐案辦理，由系所辦公室或教師與口譯需求方討論，最後兩所學校的教師則認為學生實習不應收費。根據訪談，所有受訪教師都明白學生口譯收費會有破壞市場行情的問題，所以對於校外單位的接洽，會十分謹慎地篩選，例如以非營利機構或政府部門為優先合作對象。言明不收費的教師（T4）則強調，讓學生無償口譯，是希望學生有磨練的機會。而主辦單位提供的費用也不會是市場價錢，所以寧可不收，學生其實也不在意。教師 T5 也認為，無酬口譯等於是多一個實習的機會，學生需要的就是機會。他表示:「我跟學生說其實口譯和筆譯把技巧學好，之後要賺錢機會還蠻多」。

一般而言，會場實習前、中、後的標準程序如下：在會前，教師會協助學生取得會議資料，討論如何準備、製作詞彙表，有的教師（T1）甚至會指定學生擔任專案經理（project manager, PM）負責統籌和聯繫。實習過程中，因會議性質、教師日程安排等因素，有的教師會全程在會場聆聽（T4），有的是師生搭檔口譯（T5、T6），有的教師則不見得能夠到會場。而會後檢討，各校之間也存在相當差異，例如有的實習課並無實際課程，學生即便至校外實習，也沒有機會將錄音帶回學校請教師提供指導（T3）。有的教師也會要求學生在每次實習後繳心得報告，甚至要求學生聆聽自己的口譯錄音，做聽打逐字稿（T5），以及於課堂上分享心得（T4）。另外有些教師會於課堂上詢問、討論實習情形，因教師不見得在實習現場，檢討的重點時常並非口譯內容，而是「這次出去實習的整個流程」（T2）。

（2）師生看法比較

針對實際提供口譯服務，學生提出兩點有趣的觀察。第一，口譯實習會議主題和學校所在區域及在地產業有密切連結，如 S11、S12 就表示，校外的口譯實習機會幾乎為工業類（鋼鐵、石化）或藝文領域的產學合作，臺灣北部與南部的口譯需求業別似乎有地域差異，所以「就算是出去實習的話，業別上是有一些限制的」（S12）。

第二點，學生提到實習時聽眾帶來的影響。S5 表示曾經在校內院級會議為兩位外籍教師耳語口譯，發現他們一臉疑惑時，就立即意識到要過濾訊息，更貼近聽眾需求。S7 也提及，此類實習課可以體驗有聽眾的真實環境，與課堂上的模擬與練習仍有相當差別。

無獨有偶地，多位教師也都提及有無口譯聽眾的影響。T2 提到，相較之下，課堂上因為沒有使用者，屬於封閉式的口譯。到了實際會議現場，學生則可以立即感覺到使用者的存在。T8 也觀察到，有聽眾時，學生口譯的表現確實差很多。T5 直言，很多時候因為「在課堂上就是 A 翻完換 B，有一套固定程序……學生到了會場不會去注意使用者的需求」，但現場口譯就要隨時留意使用者需求。

綜合上述師生看法，在會場實際讓學生口譯能更直接且深刻地感受到聽眾、使用者的需求。然而其所涉業別、是否能在會前作好準備、會後進行檢討，顯然都會影響這類個人實作經驗（personal experience）的效益。誠如 Klein 與 Hoffman（1993）提及，專技習得受到多種因素影響，包括面對的挑戰多寡、範圍與難度、能否在實作前充分準備、實作後是否能從中學習等，正好呼應師生意見所觸及之業別限制、實習前、後的配套作法。

三、其他師生看法比較

（一）最有助益的實習活動

師生一致認為實際口譯為效益最大的實習活動，唯一的疑慮是實際會議難度較無法控制，若有任何問題，對主辦單位來說，會議成效大打折扣，同時也會打擊學生自信。

（二）與其他課程之連結

至於實習課和其他課程的連結，實際口譯最能讓學生應用課堂所學，理解教師課堂上的耳提面命，或了解從課堂走入會場時，需要如何調整。如 S1 表示，實際逐步口譯時，因為環境與課堂不同，表現也會不同。而在實習後是否能夠將心得反饋至課堂表現，往往因人而異。學生 S2 直言，教師不會刻

意提醒學生注意實習與平時課堂技巧的連結。因此，學生是否能有深刻感觸，就得看個人的悟性了。S5 也認為，實習課與逐步、同步口譯課有所連結，但有時候還是得靠教師提醒。教師 T2 也表示，學生在實習後自我反思的能力可能有限，能夠看到的面向較少，但是他較在意的是學生有沒有去思考。

但如果是必須進入校外機構內實習至少三個月（一個學期）的情況，學生們（S13、S14）則認為要看實習機構／業主而定。由於實習時間僅短短幾個月，一般公司不太可能投入心力指導實習生，遑論交付會議口譯工作。再加上實習不支薪，學生也較難全心投入，於是形成惡性循環，無法應用在校所學，自然不會產生與其他課程的連結。此外，若實習目的是讓學生熟悉職場環境，原本有工作經驗的學生是否能有不同的實習選項，也值得再深入討論。

（三）理想的口譯實習課程內涵／建議

所有師生皆認同，在理想情況下，訪談大綱上所列各項活動都應納入實習課。此外，針對是否新增其他實習活動，師生們也提出許多建議。如教師 T3 和 T8 都建議可讓學生參訪口譯用人機構，亦即 buy side，如會議公司、公關公司等。透過參訪，學生能了解口譯服務需求方如何辦理活動，以及他們對於口、筆譯的期待等。教師 T5 也提出類似的概念，但更聚焦於學生在提供口譯服務後客戶端的反饋，他認為應直接與客戶進行訪談，給予學生最直接的評價。

此外，教師 T1 和 T6 則強調軟實力的培養，包括專案管理、報帳與財務基本知識、如何與客戶議價等，也就是教導學生將自己視為企業家甚至品牌來經營。這點也獲得學生 S3、S4 的認同，認為從履歷表撰寫到如何報稅等都可納入課程。S11 則強調臺風及聲音表情訓練等也都可視為軟實力的培養。

教師 T6 也提到，考量市場不時出現削價競爭的情形，實習課也應加入專業倫理。汝明麗與吳鎮宇（2012）就曾藉由問卷調查，探詢口譯教師、口譯員、會議公司三大主要市場參與者對口譯專業倫理規範課程的看法。結果發現六成四的受訪教師係透過專業實務及其他口譯課程傳授專業倫理的概念

及原則，且高達九成受訪者都建議可由授課教師或外部講者分享個人經驗，亦即故事講述型態的替代經驗。

學生 S5 和 S7 則希望能夠增加一對一輔導機會（one on one tutoring/mentoring），例如在觀摩或啞箱結束後與口譯員互動、討論口譯應對策略。也就是增加面對面的互動機會（S7）。或也可以請專業譯者至會場，觀察學生實際口譯，並立即給予回饋、指導（S5）。

四、口譯實習課程規劃建議

根據以上師生訪談結果，本研究提議在資源許可下，各校規劃口譯實習課程時應盡可能考量學生本身的學習進程。以兩年制研究所口譯訓練為例，實習課可以安排在碩一下、碩二上和碩二下三個學期（見表 3）。

表 3

本研究建議之口譯實習課程內容

活動類型	碩一下	碩二上	碩二下
課堂：迷你模擬會議／角色扮演	✓	✓	✓
課堂：較大規模模擬會議（含遠距成分）	✓（籌辦）		✓（口譯）
課堂：邀請業師分享經驗	✓	✓	✓
課堂：邀請學長姊分享經驗	✓	✓	✓
會場：學生以聽眾角度觀摩口譯表現	✓	✓	✓
會場：學生擔任工讀生發放耳機		✓	✓
會場：學生進口譯箱內做 dumb booth		✓	✓
會場：學生實際提供同步口譯服務		✓	✓
會場：學生實際提供逐步口譯服務		✓	✓
其他：軟實力／專業倫理		✓*	✓*
其他：一對一輔導		✓*	✓*
其他：參訪用人機構	✓		✓

註：✓* 代表兩個時段擇一即可。

迷你模擬會議和角色扮演可由授課教師於實習課或一般口譯技巧課上安排，目的是拓展領域知識和增加實作機會，更重要的是安排來訪講者／業師提供服務使用者的回饋意見。基本上，上述三個學期皆可彈性納入。

但大規模的模擬會議建議仍可保留，規模除了指講者人數外，也包括觀眾組成，例如開放校外聽眾報名。模擬會議可由碩一學生主辦籌劃，講者可以由學生擔任，也可邀請校外來賓，而現場口譯則由碩二負責。此外，自 2020 年新冠肺炎疫情爆發後，遠距會議或虛實混合會議開始增加，亦可利用此種較大規模的模擬會議，鼓勵學生安排「因故無法」親臨會場的講者，必須透過線上會議平臺與會，讓碩二學生有機會在進入市場前了解遠距逐步或同步口譯時該注意的事項。另外提升模擬會議真實性的方式還包括：不事先提供所有資料給口譯、變化演講難度等。

其次是業師／校友分享，建議可自碩一下開始安排，以激發學生的學習動機，並開始形成實踐社群。至於有關進入市場的注意事項，不妨待碩二上、下再學習。碩一學生的主要心力可能仍在技巧學習上，恐較難心領神會與市場相關的分享，所以建議碩二安排業師／校友分享時的主題重點應與碩一下有所區別。

以聽眾角度參與會議則建議從碩一上開始，有助學生熟悉未來工作環境的氛圍。碩一下開始的觀摩會議則可善用口譯觀摩單，但與其強調觀摩時數，或許應更關注觀摩的品質。亦即碩一下開始，每學期可以要求學生繳回二至三份口譯觀摩單，填寫項目可由少至多、由簡入難，配合學生本身學習進程。但不論如何，繳回後最好搭配課堂討論，讓觀摩心得能夠內化，甚至應用到之後的口譯學習。

實際會場工讀或做啞箱，牽涉到太多不可控因素，若要求在一學期內安排一定次數，對授課教師來說是不小的壓力。不妨多利用校友分享時，請校友若有相關機會可及早通知授課教師，並提供會議資料讓學生作事前準備。在會場實際提供口譯服務，亦可透過這樣的方式來增加機會，時間點也建議

於碩二上、下進行，因學生的口譯技能已具一定基礎。若要求學生做啞箱，也應確保於課堂上播放錄音、進行檢討。

師生雙方都認為實際提供口譯服務的效益最高，但同時也需留意會前準備、會後檢討的機制，確實作到反思實踐（reflective practice）。此外，軟實力的培養也可與專業倫理一起討論，因兩者都有若干模糊地帶，不見得有標準答案。藉由實習課上的個案討論或講師授課，讓學生能在進入市場時亦具備適當的專業倫理意識和企業、品牌經營所需要的軟實力。時間點上也建議安排在碩二上或碩二下。至於學生建議的一對一輔導機制，立意甚佳，也有助於實踐社群的傳承與建立，但執行上易受限於口譯員的日程安排與意願，因此僅能於碩二上或下視情況安排，次數上亦無法強求。

最後，亦可納入用人機構的參訪活動。碩一下的參訪，應由口譯服務需求方說明他們對於口譯的期待，讓學生了解需要精進哪些能力，甚至也可藉機討論未來提供實習機會的可能性。而碩二下的參訪，學生們應更審慎看待，這類活動可能是另類的企業徵才，這時的參訪除了可以從用人機構的角度認識市場趨勢外，也是口譯學校將新手口譯引介給市場 buy side 的機會。

以上安排除了整合本研究師生看法，亦含括了專技習得研究所提出的四種經驗類型：個人實作經驗（實際提供口譯服務）、指導經驗（會場觀摩）、加工經驗（模擬會議／角色扮演）、替代經驗（業師分享）（Klein & Hoffman, 1993）。各項活動在實際執行上若能留意若干細節安排，即可更貼近經驗學習與實踐社群的原則和理念。

伍、結語

一、主要研究發現

陳子瑋等（2014）及張嘉倩與林明佳（2017）分別藉由大規模問卷發放及質性訪談，探討臺灣翻譯產學關聯及相關教育發展策略。本研究以之為基

礎，聚焦於口譯實習課作為產學銜接之設計與執行，從專技習得、經驗學習和實踐社群理論出發，首先調查全臺翻譯研究所口譯實習課程與執行現況，接著訪談口譯實習授課教師與參與口譯實習課的學生，最後根據調查發現與訪談結果，輔以前人文獻，試圖提出兼顧理論和實務的課程設計方向。

本研究主要發現如下：首先，綜觀臺灣七所翻譯研究所從過去到現在開設（過）的實習課程，大致可分為三類，包括模擬會議／角色扮演、業師／校友經驗分享以及會場實習。儘管有幾所學校並未正式開設口譯實習課，但受訪的口譯教師都盡力安排相關活動，讓學生有機會更接近職場實務，如會議口譯觀摩單的設計、實習報告範本等都可以看出教師的用心，但同時卻也呼應了國教院《產學關聯報告》（陳子瑋等，2014）所提及推動產學合作時，教師負擔加重的問題。

在教師費心安排口譯實習機會的同時，各校實習課程的重點不盡相同。有的學校強調學校到職場的銜接，但問題在於，有的學生先前就有產業工作經驗，若強制規定所有學生完成一學期的機構內實習，對於這類（準）在職生來說幫助可能不大。這點也是國教院《產學關聯報告》（陳子瑋等，2014）中所述另一項產學合作的挑戰：實習單位能夠提供的工作內容與學生所學可能存在差異。

前述三大類口譯實習課程亦符合張嘉倩與林明佳（2017）討論之研究所層級口譯實習課程特點：範圍廣泛。從會場接待、觀摩教師口譯到學生實際上場口譯皆屬之，邀請口譯或產業人才到校分享也是常見的產學合作／接軌方式。不過本研究受訪學生也提出若干問題，例如：是否有研究可以佐證？觀摩是否會出現邊際效益遞減的情形？受訪學生對口譯觀摩單的回應，大體符合 Chang 與 Wu（2017）的結論，亦即觀摩單有助於提升學生在會場觀摩的品質，從中得到收獲。但也有學生反映觀摩時數過多，重複填寫觀摩單時易感痲木。針對模擬會議，也有師生提出類似意見。可見不論是口譯會場觀摩（含啞箱）或模擬會議，雖立意良好，但實施時仍需於視情況與需求加以調整。

另一方面，不論是專技習得、經驗學習或是實踐社群理論，在口譯實習活動裡落實程度不一，例如：資深譯者的經驗分享可能是對學生的激勵，也可能帶來壓力，影響實踐社群的建立。但其實若授課教師能適時鼓勵學生，就能更加堅定學生的信念，繼續朝目標邁進。而經驗學習的心得或省思，可能也需要教師適時、主動地回饋，幫助學生更深刻地體悟實習與課堂學習之間的連結。

陳子瑋等（2014）《產學關聯報告》以全國翻譯系所教師為訪問對象，而張嘉倩與林明佳（2017）探討研究所層級之口譯教育，也是以教師觀點出發。相較之下，本文最大貢獻在於聚焦於產學合作中的口譯實習課，彙整師生觀點，並比對兩者異同。畢竟產學合作的目的是縮短學用落差，幫助學生銜接校園與職場。口譯學生作為實習活動的主體，若（自覺）未能從中獲益，就可惜了各方投入的心力與時間。因此，學生們對於各類實習活動的看法值得重視，並於規劃口譯實習課程時盡量納入。另一方面，由於筆者並非實習課授課教師，各校學生接受訪談時亦無修課評分壓力，或許更能如實反映自身參與實習課的真正感想與期待。

綜合師生意見，本文針對口譯實習提出的建議包括：（1）宜考量學生的學習進程，安排適合的口譯實習活動。（2）模擬會議／角色扮演在擬真之餘，也須妥善設計其挑戰程度，同時可考慮區分迷你模擬會議／半情境的實習機會以及較大規模的模擬會議，以符合不同實習目的。亦可舉辦混合遠距模式的模擬會議，幫助學生熟悉疫情下的口譯新趨勢。（3）業師／口譯／校友經驗分享除了能幫助學生看到口譯實務工作的不同面向外，也可依據學生學習進程調整分享重點。而授課教師若能適時給予學生鼓勵與打氣，則有助於激勵學生努力學習。（4）於會場實習時，不論是啞箱或觀摩專業譯者表現，可考慮增加與口譯員互動的機會，而非僅是被動聆聽，最後甚至導致疲乏、成效下降。換言之，執行方式可以有更多變化。若是學生自己上場實習口譯，也可將錄音檔帶到課堂上播放、檢討。（5）未來可考慮將軟實力的培養納入口譯實習課程中，例如專案管理、財務管理與微型企業經營等多元化課程以

及專業倫理的探討。（6）除前述三大類實習活動外，亦可多增加用人機構的參訪活動。

二、研究限制與未來建議

本研究探討臺灣七所翻譯研究所口譯實習課程僅以 2016 年至 2017 年間各所開課情形為基礎，接受訪談的師生人數也有限。因此，雖然盡力呈現各校師生對口譯實習課程的不同體驗與看法，仍係以管窺天，無法全面深入探索口譯實習課程。

建議未來研究可擴大訪談對象（例如納入實習單位主管）及增加人數，甚至進行縱貫性研究，涵括在學學生、畢業後甫入職場及離校三年（以上）的校友，追蹤其職場實務經驗的累積是否影響其對於口譯實習課程的看法，或其是否有機會與口譯實習課接觸的業師／前輩保持聯繫，形成日益擴大茁壯的實踐社群，作為進一步完善口譯實習課程的參考。

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附錄

教師／同學訪談大綱（2017／7）

教師姓名：____________ 性別：____________ 任教系所：____________

任教資歷：______________________ 口譯年資：______________________

同學姓名：________________ 性別：____________ 年齡：____________

就讀系所與年級：____

一、開課情形

1. 請問貴所過去三年至今有無開設口譯實習課程？

2. 如果有開設，請問開課頻率大概如何（過去三年來開過一次、二次或更多）？

3. 如果有開設，請問開課多半落在課程哪個階段（例如碩一、二、上或下學期）？

4. 開課與否的考量有哪些？

二、實際授課內容與效益

5. 口譯實習課程若以一學期18周來看，是否包含下列類型的內涵？（請勾選）

類型	是	否
課堂 模擬會議／角色扮演		
課堂 邀請業師* 分享經驗		
課堂 邀請學長姊分享經驗		
會場 學生以聽眾角度觀摩口譯員表現		
會場 學生擔任工讀生發放耳機		
會場 學生進口譯箱內做 dumb booth		
會場 學生實際提供同步口譯服務		
會場 學生實際提供逐步口譯服務		
其他，請說明		

* 業師係指會展產業從業人員，包括現職口譯員、會議公司工作人員、音響工程師、公關公司等。

6. 承上題，請問各類型課程安排，在 18 周內大約的次數或比重？

類型	次數	比重
課堂 模擬會議／角色扮演		
課堂 邀請業師* 分享經驗		
課堂 邀請學長姊分享經驗		
會場 學生以聽眾角度觀摩口譯員表現		
會場 學生擔任工讀生發放耳機		
會場 學生進口譯箱內做 dumb booth		
會場 學生實際提供同步口譯服務		
會場 學生實際提供逐步口譯服務		
其他，請說明		

* 業師係指會展產業從業人員，包括現職口譯員、會議公司工作人員、音響工程師、公關公司等。

7. 如果是實際到會場的實習課程，多半會與哪些校內、校外單位合作？

8. 會場實習機會是上述校外、校內單位主動提供，抑或授課教師爭取結果？

9. 同學在模擬會議前後或會場實習前後，是否有標準作業程序？

10. 實際會場實習前是否有機會與教師或同學討論？

11. 實際會場實習後是否有機會與教師或同學檢討？

12. 口譯實習課的評量機制為何？

13. 各項評量機制的目的為何（出席上課、要求撰寫實習報告或做心得分享簡報）？

14. 您覺得口譯實習課對同學有幫助嗎？

15. 您覺得口譯實習課是否與其他課程有所連結？如果有，是怎樣的連結？

16. 上述類型課程哪些最受同學歡迎？

17. 上述類型課程您覺得哪些對同學最有幫助？

18. 您覺得理想的口譯實習課程應包含哪些內涵（可依據題 6 建議增刪）？

19. 要實現上述理想實習課程，是否有任何困難？

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Lexical Bundles in English EU Parliamentary Discourse—Variation Across Interpreted, Translated, and Spoken Registers

Yinyin Wu

Formulas offer processing advantages in both language comprehension and production and signal one's identity in a professional community. This study attempts to explore the similarities and differences among European Parliament (EP) interpreters, translators, and Members of the EP (MEPs) in their use of English formulas, operationalized as four-word lexical bundles (LBs) identified through corpus-driven approach. English interpretations, translations, and speeches from the EP plenary sessions represent three registers, constituting the three corpora of this study. The LBs identified in each of the three corpora were then categorized based on their grammatical structures and pragmatic functions. Results showed that differences among EP interpreters, translators, and MEPs far outweigh similarities in actual bundle use, with only 10% of the total number of bundle types present in two or all three of the corpora. However, similar structural patterns of the three registers with noun phrase and prepositional phrase bundles playing a dominant role indicate informational purposes of the parliamentary discourse in general. Functional analysis revealed that the translated and spoken registers are more alike with the dominance of subject-specific bundles, indicating informational priorities. On the other hand, the interpreted register stands out with its nearly equal proportions of stance bundles, referential bundles, and subject-specific bundles, indicating a combination of informational and communicative priorities. Typology featuring LBs' functional characteristics may have pedagogical implications for translation and interpretation (T&I) training, and suggestions for enhancing LBs' pedagogical value are provided at the end of this paper.

Keywords: corpus-driven approach, lexical bundles, English EU parliamentary discourse, register variation, simultaneous interpreting

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歐盟議會英語語篇之詞串研究——口譯、筆譯及演說之語域差異

吳茵茵

套語（formulas）為語言的理解與產出帶來認知處理上的優勢，亦顯示使用者所歸屬的專業社群。本研究比較歐洲議會口譯員、筆譯員與各國議員英語套語的使用差異。研究方法分為兩步驟。首先，英語套語操作化為四字詞串（lexical bundles），採用語料庫驅動（corpus-driven）的方式辨認。語料庫有三種：一、歐洲議會全體大會的英語口譯逐字稿；二、與之對應的英語筆譯文本；三、大會的英語演說逐字稿。三種語料庫分別代表三種語域（registers）。第二步驟為詞串的文法結構及語用功能分析。研究發現，在詞串的實際使用上，歐洲議會口譯員、筆譯員與各國議員的差異極大，僅 10% 的詞串類別為兩者或三者共用。然而，三種語域的文法結構呈現類似模式，皆以名詞及介系詞片語的詞串為主，顯示議會語篇（parliamentary discourse）整體而言以資訊傳達為目的。功能分析顯示筆譯與演說兩語域較為類似，皆以「主題類詞串」為主，顯示資訊功能為重。口譯語域較為特別，其「立場類詞串」、「指涉類詞串」及「主題類詞串」比例相近，顯示資訊與溝通兩種功能並重。詞串功能分類有助於口、筆譯培訓，文末討論提升詞串教學價值的建議。

關鍵詞：語料庫驅動研究方法、詞串、歐盟議會英語語篇、語域差異、同步口譯

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Introduction

Formulaic language is ubiquitous in spoken language. It is processed faster than novel language for native speakers (Conklin & Schmitt, 2012), it contributes to fluency and idiomaticity (Pawley & Syder, 1983), and it signals the speaker's identity in a given community (Wray, 2000).

Drawing inspiration from the formulaic tradition of Homeric poems, Henriksen (2007) explains that simultaneous interpreting (SI) in the European Union (EU) context is a process of oral textualization characterized by formulaic language production, which facilitates fluent and uniform interpreting output for interpreters of the same booth. To show the existence of formulas in interpreting, Henriksen recruited ten Danish staff interpreters of Joint Interpretation Service of European Commission to interpret one English speech and one German speech into Danish. It was found that although some interpreters operated with a form-based approach, providing more literal renditions, some other interpreters adopted a meaning-based approach, employing formulas for recurrent and typical ideas in the source speech. Examples of these Danish formulas include "take the lead," "lead the way," and "playing a role" for the following three typical and recurrent ideas in the English source speech: "put itself at the forefront," "assuming global leadership," and "to provide global leadership" (Henriksen, 2007, p. 10).[1]

Standardized structure and formulas are also used in the process of drafting legal texts and translating documents in the EU context with the help of text corpora, terminological databases, and other computer-assisted translation tools, which facilitate EU translators' work by saving time and improving consistency (Cosmai, 2007/2014; Wagner et al., 2002). Examples of these standardized

[1] These Danish formulas were translated into English by Henriksen (2007).

formulas include “after transmission of the draft legislative act to the national parliaments,” “having regard to the opinion of the Committee of the Regions,” and “acting in accordance with the ordinary legislative procedure” (Cosmai, 2007/2014, p. 118).

Formulaicity can also be observed in the EU delegates’ speeches. As Henriksen (2007) points out:

> Delegates and especially Commission representatives often talk languages other than their mother tongue (primarily French or/and English), but their syntax, lexis and pronunciation will in most cases be influenced by that of their mother tongue, while their speech will include formulaic concepts specific to the EU discourse, often in French or English. The formulaic characteristics of the source text are strengthened by being produced by a non-native speaker, as such speakers tend to memorise an (at times fairly limited) number of fixed standard expressions and lack the native speaker’s command of alternatives. (p. 17)

Formulaic language seems to be a feature of interpretations, translations, and speeches in the EU context. Henriksen (2007) thus concludes, “diplomats and officials, translators and interpreters, thus all play a role in this weaving of a text of EU discourse” (p.18). The present study is an expansion and refinement of Henriksen’s study in the following three ways. First, the focus of analysis is English formulaic language produced by not only interpreters but also translators and delegates in their respective interpretations, translations, and speeches in the EU context. English has wider pedagogical implications since interpreters and translators worldwide often have English as part of their language combinations. Second, formulaic language is operationalized as lexical bundles (LBs), i.e., frequently co-occurred fixed word combinations identified objectively through corpus-driven approach. Third, the data for analysis are not elicited in an experimental context, but speeches and simultaneous interpretations from authentic European Parliament (EP) plenary debates, as well as the translated counterparts of the simultaneous interpretations of the same source speeches. This study aims to empirically explore how EP interpreters, translators and Members of the EP (MEPs) together weave the text of English EU parliamentary discourse.

Corpus Studies on Lexical Bundles

Although both fixed and semi-fixed sequences are counted as formulaic, this study focuses on frequently co-occurred fixed word sequences, such as "it goes without saying," "the extent to which," and "in (the) light of." Also known as LBs, *n*-grams, or clusters in the studies of multi-word units (Greaves & Warren, 2010), these recurrent word sequences are not idiomatic in meaning, not structurally complete, not perceptually salient, but are very common and serve as building blocks in discourse (Biber & Barbieri, 2007).

Large-scale corpus-driven analyses of LBs have been conducted to describe a discourse (e.g., Jablonkai, 2010; Jalali et al., 2015), to compare disciplinary differences (e.g., Hyland, 2008b; Kashiha & Heng, 2014), or to examine register variation (e.g., Biber & Barbieri, 2007; Biber et al., 2004; Grabowski, 2015). To describe a discourse, researchers often analyze the grammatical structures and pragmatic functions of LBs identified in their respective corpora. For example, Jalali et al. (2015) examined four-word LBs in a more than two-million-word corpus of medical research articles, and found that the most common structural category is prepositional phrases signaling a time period or location, such as "in the presence of," "at the time of," and "in the present study," whereas the most common functional category is text-oriented LBs, signaling transition and results and framing arguments, such as "on the other hand" and "the result of the."

Jablonkai (2010) studied four-word LBs in a more than one-million-word corpus of English EU documents, including legal texts, legislative preparatory documents, EU funds, and institutional documents. It was found that noun phrases and prepositional phrases, such as “the entry into force” and “on behalf of the,” account for 80% of the bundle types, whereas the predominant functional category is referential bundles, which specify attributes or identify entities, such as “hereinafter referred to as,” “in the form of,” and “in accordance with the.”

Functional and sometimes structural analyses have also been used to explore disciplinary differences. Kashiha and Heng (2014) examined four-word LBs in chemistry and politics academic lectures with 25,000 words respectively. They found that both disciplines employ similar proportions of stance bundles and referential bundles, but lectures on politics rely more on discourse organizers, such as “what I’d like to” and “come up with a,” to enhance comprehensibility and achieve coherence between ideas. Hyland (2008b) compared four-word LBs in master’s theses, doctoral dissertations, and research articles with a total of 3.5 million words from four disciplines: electrical engineering, microbiology, business studies, and applied linguistics. Structural analysis revealed that noun phrase with *of*-phrase fragments comprise about a quarter of the bundle types in all four disciplines, with hard science disciplines (electrical engineering and microbiology) using more passive bundles and social science (business studies and applied linguistics) employing more prepositional phrase bundles. Functional analysis showed that hard science disciplines contain more research-oriented bundles describing research objects, contexts, equipment, materials, and environment. Examples include “the structure of the,” “in the presence of,” and “was added to the.” Social science is dominated by text-oriented bundles that frame and structure arguments, such as “in the case of,” “in the sense that,” and “will be discussed in.”

Register variation across different text types within one discipline has also been examined via comparative analyses of LBs' structures and functions. Grabowski (2015), for example, studied the 50 most frequent four-word LBs in each of the following four text types within pharmaceutical discourse with a total of more than two million words: patient information leaflets, summaries of product characteristics, clinical trial protocols, and pharmacology textbooks. It was found that the four text types differ considerably in patterns of language use due to target users, functions, and situation contexts. Patient information leaflets, having the main purpose of instructing and alerting patients, are dominated by stance bundles signaling attitudes, obligation, and desire. Summaries of product characteristics, geared towards health professionals, are dominated by referential bundles framing focus, procedure, and time. Clinical trial protocols are marked by discourse organizers, conveying purpose, design, and methodology of clinical trials. Pharmacology academic textbooks are dominated by discourse organizers and referential bundles, signaling causative-resultative links, elaborating on arguments, and referring to procedure and process. Grabowski's (2015) study shows that even within one discipline, register variation across text types exists due to differences in communicative purposes.

Biber and Barbieri (2007) examined four-word LBs extracted computationally from a wide range of university written and spoken registers. The written registers include textbooks, course management, institutional writing, and academic prose, and the spoken registers include classroom teaching, classroom management, office hours, study groups, and service encounters. Functional analysis showed that the written university registers are generally dominated by referential bundles specifying time, place, and attributes of entities; examples include "over the course of," "from the office of," and "the relationship between the." On the other hand, the spoken university registers are generally characterized by stance bundles, but only the obligation/directive subtype (e.g., "we're gonna have to," "you might want to," and "you need to take") is prevalent in all spoken registers. Biber and Barbieri (2007) point out that functional variation of registers reflects the particular communicative needs of a given register.

These descriptive analyses of discourse, disciplinary differences, and register variation from the perspective of LBs have significant pedagogical implications for learners and teachers of a particular discipline and for translation and interpretation (T&I) training. By mastering these important yet inconspicuous building blocks in discourse, T&I trainees are able to produce spoken and written output characteristic of a particular discipline or register.

Research Purpose and Questions

Interpreters and translators worldwide often need to work from and into English, which is also the case in Taiwan where most T&I practitioners and trainees are non-native English speakers. However, working into English as a B language is unavoidable especially for interpreters. The video recordings and verbatim reports of the EP plenary sessions are rich resources for studying the English output produced by professional interpreters, translators, and delegates in international conference settings. Most English booth interpreters in the EU, as well as translators working into English in the EU, are native English speakers, and therefore their renditions may have pedagogical value in the Taiwan context.

Studies based on the video recordings and/or verbatim reports of EP plenaries have been conducted to explore directionality in SI (Monti et al., 2005), the impact of SI on EU institutional hegemony (Beaton, 2007), lexical simplification (Bernardini et al., 2016), and interpreters' visibility (Bartłomiejczyk, 2017). Although these studies have provided insights into features of the EU parliamentary discourse, few have attempted to describe and compare EP interpretations, translations, and speeches as three registers with a focus on English formulas. Knowledge of the similarities and differences of English formulas used by interpreters, translators, and delegates allows a more targeted training for T&I novices. Interpreting trainees are encouraged to pay attention to LBs used in both interpretations and speeches to facilitate their production and comprehension of conference English, whereas translation trainees may focus on LBs used in translations and speeches, as translators sometimes have to work with scripted political and diplomatic speeches.

The present study aims to describe English EU parliamentary discourse and explore its register variation by using corpus-driven approach to identify four-word LBs in interpretations, translations, and speeches of the EP plenary sessions. The LBs identified were then analyzed structurally and functionally to reveal register variation. Both quantitative and qualitative methods were used to answer the following four questions:

1. What are the LBs shared by EP interpreters and/or translators and/or MEPs?
2. What are the structural patterns of LBs used by EP interpreters, translators, and MEPs, respectively?
3. What are the functional patterns of LBs used by EP interpreters, translators, and MEPs, respectively?
4. What are the functional characteristics of LBs used by EP interpreters, translators, and MEPs, respectively?

The purpose of research question one is pedagogically oriented. LBs commonly used by EP interpreters and/or translators and/or MEPs should be given priority in T&I training. Research questions two to four follow the convention of corpus studies on LBs. Register variation revealed via analysis of LBs' grammatical structures and pragmatic functions would inform T&I pedagogy by sensitizing trainees to language patterns specific to a given register.

Methods

This study involved two stages. First, corpus-driven approach was adopted to identify four-word LBs crossing certain frequency thresholds. This means that the LBs were derived from data through computational tools, rather than being subjectively identified by the researcher. The second stage involved analysis of LBs' grammatical features and pragmatic functions.

Corpus Description

English interpretations, translations, and speeches from the EP plenary sessions constitute the three corpora of the present study. Interpretation and speech corpora are from a larger corpus called European Parliament Interpretation Corpus (EPIC) (Russo et al., 2005). EPIC is a parallel corpus of EP speeches and their corresponding simultaneous interpretations in the following language combinations and directions: from English into Spanish and Italian, from Spanish into English and Italian, and from Italian into English and Spanish. This study focuses on English speeches and English interpretations only. As shown in Table 1, interpretation corpus contains 38 interpretations from Spanish or Italian into English with a total of 18,611 words, and speech corpus contains 81 English speeches with a total of 40,711 words. The transcribed speeches and simultaneous interpretations are based on the recordings of plenary sessions held on February 10th, 11th, 12th, 25th, and 26th of 2004.

It should be noted that the word counts of interpretation and speech corpora are based on pruned transcripts. The transcripts of EPIC corpus preserve all the features of spoken language, including repetitions, hesitations, fillers, and words half produced. Although these dysfluency marks are natural in interpreting and speaking, they were removed in this study for a fair comparison among interpreted, spoken, and translated corpora.

Table 1

Constituents of the Three Corpora

Corpus	Word count	Number of speeches	Topics
Interpretation	18,611	38	Politics (15), Justice (9), Economics and Finance (7), Health (2), Agriculture and Fisheries (2), Transport (2), Procedure and Formalities (1)
Translation	20,577	38	Same as above.
Speech	40,711	81	Politics (31), Justice (12), Economics and Finance (9), Health (23), Agriculture and Fisheries (1), Transport (1), Procedure and Formalities (4)
Total	79,899	157	

Note. The number of speeches for each topic is shown in parentheses.

The translation counterparts of the simultaneous interpretations of the same source speeches were copy-pasted from the final translated version of the verbatim proceedings in English published by the EP.[2] According to Bernardini et al. (2016), the translations of the proceedings "resulted from an independently performed translation process based on the revised verbatim reports, without any reference to the interpreters' outputs" (p. 69). As shown in Table 1, translation corpus contains 20,577 words, about 2,000 more words than interpretation corpus. Topics on

[2] https://www.europarl.europa.eu/RegData/seance_pleniere/compte_rendu/traduit/2004/02-10/P5_CRE(2004)02-10_DEF_EN.pdf (accessed 15 March 2019) is the online source for English verbatim proceeding dated February 10th of 2004; https://www.europarl.europa.eu/RegData/seance_pleniere/compte_rendu/traduit/2004/02-11/P5_CRE(2004)02-11_DEF_EN.pdf (accessed 15 March 2019) is the online source for English verbatim proceeding dated February 11th of 2004; https://www.europarl.europa.eu/RegData/seance_pleniere/compte_rendu/traduit/2004/02-12/P5_CRE(2004)02-12_DEF_EN.pdf (accessed 15 March 2019) is the online source for English verbatim proceeding dated February 12th of 2004; https://www.europarl.europa.eu/RegData/seance_pleniere/compte_rendu/traduit/2004/02-25/P5_CRE(2004)02-25_DEF_EN.pdf (accessed 15 March 2019) is the online source for English verbatim proceeding dated February 25th of 2004; and https://www.europarl.europa.eu/RegData/seance_pleniere/compte_rendu/traduit/2004/02-26/P5_CRE(2004)02-26_DEF_EN.pdf (accessed 15 March 2019) is the online source for English verbatim proceeding dated February 26th of 2004.

politics, justice, and economics and finance comprise the bulk for all three corpora, with speech corpus having an additional major topic on health.

Identification of Lexical Bundles

Computer program WordSmith Tools version 7 (Scott, 2016) was used to identify LBs in each of the three corpora. First, LBs' length, distribution range, and frequency cut-off point had to be established. In terms of bundle length, although there have been studies exploring three- to five-word strings (e.g., Simpson-Vlach & Ellis, 2010) or three- to six-word sequences (e.g., Gilmore & Millar, 2018), most LBs studies have focused on four-word sequences (e.g., Biber & Barbieri, 2007; Biber et al., 2004; Chen & Baker, 2010; Cortes, 2004; Grabowski, 2015; Hyland, 2008a; Jablonkai, 2010; Jalali et al., 2015; Kashiha & Heng, 2014). The present study also examined four-word bundles for the following three reasons. First, aligning with previous research studies makes analysis and findings comparable. Second, three-word bundles are highly frequent whereas five-word bundles are rarer (Biber et al., 1999; Gilmore & Millar, 2018), but four-word bundles yield manageable numbers of items to work with (Chen & Baker, 2010). Third, four-word bundles provide a wider and clearer range of structures and functions to analyze than three-word bundles (Cortes, 2004; Hyland, 2008a, 2008b).

Distribution range is another criterion for identifying LBs. The purpose is to avoid idiosyncratic uses by a single author or speaker (Biber et al., 2004). To be included for analysis, LBs have been set to occur in at least three different texts or lectures (Chen & Baker, 2010; Kashiha & Heng, 2014), five different texts (Biber et al., 2004; Cortes, 2004; Jalali et al., 2015), or 10% of all texts (Hyland, 2008a, 2008b; Jablonkai, 2010) in a given corpus, or no distribution range was specified (Grabowski, 2015). Due to the sizes of the three corpora in the present study, no distribution range was adopted as it might limit the number of LBs for subsequent analysis.

Frequency cut-off points of LBs can be arbitrary. Some studies have taken a more conservative approach by setting a high cut-off of 40 times per million words (e.g., Biber & Barbieri, 2007; Biber et al., 2004; Grabowski, 2015; Jablonkai, 2010). Some have adopted a middle position by setting the cut-off point at 20 times (Cortes, 2004; Hyland, 2008a, 2008b; Jalali et al., 2015) or 25 times (Chen & Baker, 2010) per million words. The lowest frequency cut-off point would be ten times per million words to generate a wider pool of LBs for subsequent analysis (e.g., Simpson-Vlach & Ellis, 2010).

The three corpora in the present study are very small and are of different sizes; therefore, the above-mentioned frequency cut-off points were replaced by raw frequency thresholds, as shown in Table 2. The raw frequency threshold was set at two for both interpretation and translation corpora to generate the widest pool of LBs identified for comparison. This threshold corresponds to a normalized frequency of 108 per million words in interpretation corpus, resulting in 302 bundle types with a total frequency of 704 occurrences, and 97 per million words in translation corpus, resulting in 364 bundle types with a total frequency of 918 occurrences.

Speech corpus is about twice the size of either the interpretation or translation corpus. To be more consistent with the normalized frequency of either the interpretation or translation corpus, the raw frequency threshold of speech corpus should be set at four, corresponding to a normalized frequency of 98 per million words. However, that threshold would result in only 98 bundle types, about a third of the bundle types identified in either the interpretation or translation corpus. If the same raw frequency of two (corresponding to a normalized frequency of 49 per million words) is adopted, it would result in as many as 962 bundle types, about three times the number of bundle types in either of the other two corpora. Therefore, as shown in Table 2, a compromise was reached with a raw frequency threshold of three (corresponding to a normalized frequency of 74 per million words), resulting in 226 bundle types with a total frequency of 922 occurrences. Although the corresponding normalized frequencies of the three corpora are different, they are all above 40 per million words, the highest frequency threshold adopted in other studies.

Table 2

Raw and Corresponding Normalized Frequency Thresholds of the Three Corpora and the Resulting Numbers of Bundle Types and Occurrences

Corpus	Set raw frequency threshold	Corresponding normalized frequency (per million words)	Number of bundle types	Number of bundle occurrences
Interpretation	2	108	302	704
Translation	2	97	364	918
Speech	3	74	226	922
Total			892	2,544

Structural and Functional Analysis of Lexical Bundles

Structural and functional analysis of LBs allows researchers to describe discourse and compare registers. The pioneers of this line of exploration are Biber et al. (1999), who categorized four-word LBs in conversation and academic prose based on bundles' grammatical structures, and a number of studies on LBs have adopted this earlier version of categorization (e.g., Chen & Baker, 2010; Cortes, 2004; Hyland, 2008a; Jalali et al., 2015). However, the structural taxonomy in

Biber et al. (2004) is more streamlined, in which four-word LBs were classified into three main types: bundles that incorporate verb phrase fragments, those that involve dependent clause fragments, and those with noun phrase and prepositional phrase fragments. This newer version of structural taxonomy was adopted by Jablonkai (2010) in her analysis of four-word LBs in English EU documents. Her added category of LBs that incorporate adjectives, adverbs, and numbers was included in the structural typology adopted in the present study, as shown in Table 3.

The functional taxonomy proposed by Biber et al. (2004) has been widely adopted by researchers (e.g., Chen & Baker, 2010; Grabowski, 2015; Jablonkai, 2010; Kashiha & Heng, 2014; Simpson-Vlach & Ellis, 2010). LBs were classified into three main categories based on their primary pragmatic functions in the corpus: Stance bundles express stance, attitudes, or assessments; discourse organizers introduce or elaborate on a topic; and referential bundles specify quantity, tangible and intangible attributes, time, space, and text markers (Biber et al., 2004).

Categorizing functions of LBs is not straightforward since a bundle may serve different functions in different contexts. Therefore, I checked the concordance lines of every bundle to verify its primary and most salient discourse-pragmatic function in the EU context. Since functions are context-based, researchers exploring different genres and registers have taken a more liberal attitude with Biber et al. (2004) taxonomy by expanding, collapsing, or modifying categories. Some of the categories added or modified by Jablonkai (2010) or by Simpson-Vlach and Ellis (2010) were included in the present study. The justification of these inclusions will be provided in descriptive analysis of LBs' functional characteristics. Table 4 presents the functional typology adopted in the present study.

Table 3

Structural Categories of LBs

1. LBs that incorporate verb phrase fragments	
Subcategory	Example
1a. (connector +) 1st/2nd person pronoun + VP fragment	you don't have to
1b. (connector +) 3rd person pronoun + VP fragment	that's one of the
1c. Discourse marker + VP fragment	I mean you know
1d. Verb phrase (with non-passive verb)	take a look at
1e. Verb phrase with passive verb	can be used to
1f. Yes–no question fragment	does that make sense
1g. WH-question fragment	what does that mean
2. LBs that incorporate dependent clause fragments	
Subcategory	Example
2a. 1st/2nd person pronoun + dependent clause fragment	I don't know why
2b. WH-clause fragment	what I want to
2c. If-clause fragment	if you have a
2d. (verb/adjective +) To-clause fragment	to come up with
2e. That-clause fragment	that I want to
3. LBs that incorporate noun phrase and prepositional phrase fragments	
Subcategory	Example
3a. (connector +) Noun phrase with of-phrase fragment	the end of the
3b. Noun phrase with other post-modifier fragment	the way in which
3c. Other noun phrase expressions	or something like that
3d. Prepositional phrase expressions	at the same time
3e. Comparative expressions	as far as the
4. LBs that incorporate adjectives, adverbs, and numbers	
Subcategory	Example
4a. Adjectives	the Economic and Social
4b. Adverbs	in so far as
4c. Numbers	# and # and

Note. Adapted from "*If you look at . . .*: Lexical Bundles in University Teaching and Textbooks," by D. Biber, S. Conrad, and V. Cortes, 2004, *Applied Linguistics*, *25*(3), p. 381 (https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/25.3.371); "English *in the context of* European Integration: A Corpus-Driven Analysis of Lexical Bundles in English EU Documents," by R. Jablonkai, 2010, *English for Specific Purposes*, *29*(4), p. 261 (https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2010.04.006).

Table 4

Functional Categories of LBs

I. Stance bundles	
Subcategory	Example
A. Epistemic stance	the fact that the
B. Attitudinal/modality stance	
(B1) Desire	if you want to
(B2) Obligation/directive	you don't need to
(B3) Intention/prediction	I was going to
(B4) Ability/possibility	to be able to
(B5) Evaluation	it is obvious that
(B6) Hedges	it is likely that
II. Discourse organizers	
Subcategory	Example
A. Topic introduction/focus	take a look at
B. Topic elaboration/clarification	
(B1) Non-causal	you know what I'm
(B2) Cause and effect	in order to get
C. Discourse markers	thank you very much
D. Metadiscourse	go back to the
III. Referential bundles	
Subcategory	Example
A. Identification/focus	is one of the
B. Specification of attributes	
(B1) Quantity specification	a little bit of
(B2) Tangible framing attributes	the size of the
(B3) Intangible framing attributes	in the case of
C. Time/place/text-deixis/multi-functional	
(C1) Time reference	at the time of
(C2) Place reference	of the United States
(C3) Text-deixis reference	as shown in figure
(C4) Multi-functional reference	at the end of
D. Contrast and comparison	be related to the

(continued)

Table 4

Functional Categories of LBs (continued)

IV. Subject-specific bundles	
Subcategory	Example
A. EU-related—reference to an organization/institution	Committee of the Regions
B. EU-related—reference to a document	the Treaty on European
C. Codes	# of the EC
D. Others	the principle of subsidiarity

Note. Adapted from "*If you look at* . . .: Lexical Bundles in University Teaching and Textbooks," by D. Biber, S. Conrad, and V. Cortes, 2004, *Applied Linguistics*, *25*(3), pp. 384-388 (https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/25.3.371); "English *in the context of* European Integration: A Corpus-Driven Analysis of Lexical Bundles in English EU Documents," by R. Jablonkai, 2010, *English for Specific Purposes*, *29*(4), p. 262 (https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2010.04.006); "An Academic Formulas List: New Methods in Phraseology Research," by R. Simpson-Vlach and N. C. Ellis, 2010, *Applied Linguistics*, *31*(4), pp. 498-502 (https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amp058).

Lexical Bundles Shared by EP Interpreters and/or Translators and/or MEPs

Translation corpus exhibits a wider range of different bundle types (364) than interpretation corpus does (302), as shown in Table 2. Since English translations and interpretations in this study are renditions of the same Italian or Spanish source speeches, the difference may suggest that translators, under less time pressure, can create more diversity in bundle use. This is in line with the findings of Bernardini et al. (2016) on lexical simplification of interpreted and translated EP proceedings in both Italian and English; their English interpreted and translated texts are the same as those used in the present study. They found that interpreted texts are consistently simpler than their translated counterparts, with interpreters into English making greater use of text-internal repetitions and common words.

Considering that interpretations and translations are renditions of the same source speeches, albeit one is spoken and the other is written in nature, it is surprising to see that the two corpora only share 58 bundles types, less than 1/5 of the LB types in either of the corpora (i.e., 19% of LB types in interpretation corpus and 16% in translation corpus). This suggests that the difference between EP interpreters and translators is more striking than their similarity in actual bundle use.

It is also surprising to see that interpretation and speech corpora, both are supposed to be spoken in nature, only share 35 bundle types (i.e., 12% of LB types in interpretation corpus and 15% in speech corpus). This number is close to that of the bundle types shared by translation and speech corpora—37 (i.e., 10% of LB types in translation corpus and 16% in speech corpus). It may be explained by the fact that English speeches delivered by MEPs are to some extent written in nature. In fact, 43 out of 81 speeches in speech corpus are read-out (53%), 24 are impromptu (30%), and 14 are mixed between the two (17%). The structural and functional analysis will collaborate the literate nature of EP speeches.

Table 5 is a list of 92 bundles appearing in two or all three of the corpora. Nineteen out of these 92 bundles are present in all three corpora, accounting for merely 2% of the total number of bundle types in the three corpora (892), yet the total occurrences of these 19 bundles amount to 289, accounting for 11% of the total occurrences of four-word LBs in the three corpora (2,544). If we look at the whole list, these 92 bundles account for only 10% of the total number of bundle types in the three corpora (892); however, their total occurrences (768) account for 30% of the total occurrences of LBs in the three corpora (2,544), suggesting that these 92 bundles play a somewhat important role in building the EU parliamentary discourse.

Table 5

Raw Counts of Shared Bundles in Interpretation Corpus (IC), Translation Corpus (TC), and/or Speech Corpus (SC) in Total Raw Frequency Order With Bundles Present in All Three Corpora Shown in Italics

N	Lexical bundle	IC	TC	SC	Total
1	*I would like to*	4	20	15	39
2	*of the European Union*	6	7	15	28
3	*the European Union and*	6	5	14	25
4	thank you very much	6	—	17	23
5	*in the European Union*	5	3	10	18
6	in relation to the	—	3	14	17
7	*on the basis of*	6	5	5	16
8	*the rule of law*	3	6	6	15
9	*that the European Union*	5	2	7	14
10	*the implementation of the*	2	4	8	14
11	*of the Lisbon strategy*	2	7	4	13
12	Stability and Growth Pact	—	9	4	13
13	*the end of the*	2	4	7	13
14	*the fight against terrorism*	4	6	3	13
15	*when it comes to*	4	5	4	13
16	*it is important to*	2	6	4	12
17	the area of freedom	6	6	—	12
18	*the Commission and the*	3	4	5	12
19	the Stability and Growth	—	8	4	12
20	for the European Union	—	4	7	11
21	*the Council and the*	3	2	6	11
22	as a result of	—	3	7	10
23	can only be described	5	5	—	10
24	*in the Member States*	2	4	4	10

(continued)

Table 5

Raw Counts of Shared Bundles in Interpretation Corpus (IC), Translation Corpus (TC), and/or Speech Corpus (SC) in Total Raw Frequency Order With Bundles Present in All Three Corpora Shown in Italics (continued)

N	Lexical bundle	IC	TC	SC	Total
25	only be described as	5	5	—	10
26	the work of the	2	—	8	10
27	with regard to the	—	3	7	10
28	at the same time	5	4	—	9
29	be described as terrorists	5	4	—	9
30	in the light of	5	4	—	9
31	Justice and Home Affairs	—	2	7	9
32	*of the European Parliament*	3	2	4	9
33	that there is a	2	—	7	9
34	as soon as possible	5	—	3	8
35	on the one hand	3	5	—	8
36	the European Union has	—	5	3	8
37	trafficking in human beings	2	—	6	8
38	I'd like to thank	3	—	4	7
39	in the context of	—	3	4	7
40	*in the fight against*	2	2	3	7
41	that we have to	4	—	3	7
42	to say that the	—	2	5	7
43	*with the European Union*	2	2	3	7
44	with the United States	5	2	—	7
45	I think this is	2	—	4	6
46	of the European economy	2	—	4	6
47	of the United Nations	2	4	—	6
48	on the question of	3	—	3	6

(continued)

Table 5

Raw Counts of Shared Bundles in Interpretation Corpus (IC), Translation Corpus (TC), and/or Speech Corpus (SC) in Total Raw Frequency Order With Bundles Present in All Three Corpora Shown in Italics (continued)

N	Lexical bundle	IC	TC	SC	Total
49	that we need to	2	—	4	6
50	the adoption of the	—	2	4	6
51	the European arrest warrant	2	4	—	6
52	the European Union should	2	—	4	6
53	will be able to	2	4	—	6
54	an area of freedom	—	2	3	5
55	and I’d like to	2	—	3	5
56	bear in mind that	3	2	—	5
57	before the end of	—	2	3	5
58	by the European Commission	2	3	—	5
59	human rights and democratisation	—	2	3	5
60	implementation of the Lisbon	2	—	3	5
61	implementing the Lisbon strategy	2	—	3	5
62	in all Member States	2	3	—	5
63	of the area of	3	2	—	5
64	of the Committee on	—	2	3	5
65	of the Member States	—	2	3	5
66	progress has been made	2	3	—	5
67	the context of the	—	2	3	5
68	the European Union will	—	2	3	5
69	the future of the	3	2	—	5
70	the light of the	2	3	—	5
71	the Lisbon strategy and	2	3	—	5
72	to the Council and	2	—	3	5

(continued)

Table 5

Raw Counts of Shared Bundles in Interpretation Corpus (IC), Translation Corpus (TC), and/or Speech Corpus (SC) in Total Raw Frequency Order With Bundles Present in All Three Corpora Shown in Italics (continued)

N	Lexical bundle	IC	TC	SC	Total
73	at the beginning of	2	2	—	4
74	between the European Union	2	2	—	4
75	by the Commission and	2	2	—	4
76	I think it is	2	2	—	4
77	in the case of	2	2	—	4
78	in the medium term	2	2	—	4
79	ne bis in idem	2	2	—	4
80	of the South Caucasus	2	2	—	4
81	on the guidelines for	2	2	—	4
82	rule of law and	2	2	—	4
83	say that it is	2	2	—	4
84	the Conference of Presidents	2	2	—	4
85	the fact that the	2	2	—	4
86	the President of the	2	2	—	4
87	the State and society	2	2	—	4
88	the United States and	2	2	—	4
89	this area of freedom	2	2	—	4
90	to be able to	2	2	—	4
91	we are convinced that	2	2	—	4
92	what is happening in	2	2	—	4
Total					768

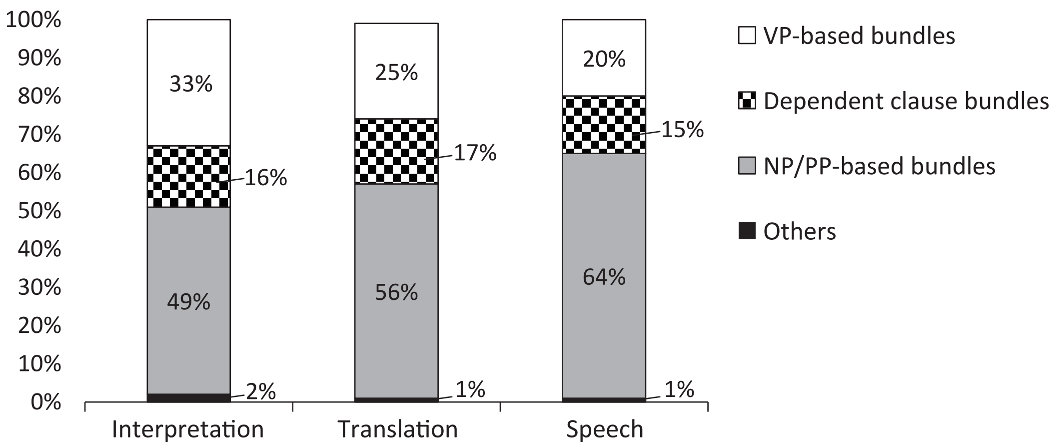
Structural Patterns of the Three Registers

Since different normalized frequency thresholds were adopted for the three corpora, the comparison of their structural and functional patterns is discussed in terms of percentages. As Figure 1 shows, all three corpora follow similar patterns in the proportional distribution of structural categories: Noun phrase and prepositional phrase based (NP/PP-based) bundles rank as the largest category, followed by verb phrase based (VP-based) bundles, dependent clause bundles, and others, i.e., fragments containing adjectives, adverbs, or numbers. This trend of structural distribution is the same as that in Jablonkai's (2010) study on English EU documents, in which NP/PP-based bundles account for 80% of the bundle types whereas VP-based bundles almost 10% and dependent clause fragments about 6%.

According to Biber et al. (2004), NP/PP-based bundles are what set apart academic written and spoken registers from conversation, in which 90% of the bundles contain verb phrases. A register with more nouns than verbs or personal

Figure 1

Structural Distribution of Lexical Bundle Types Across the Three Corpora



pronouns also means that the purposes are more informational than interpersonal. With NP/PP-based bundles constituting the largest structural category in all three corpora in this study, it shows that English EU parliamentary discourse is similar to English academic discourse in that both are formal English with informational purposes.

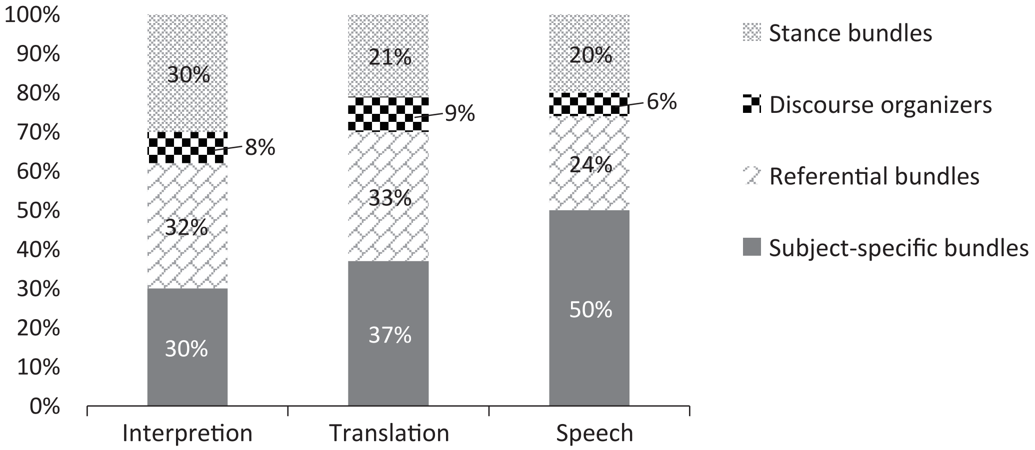
Dependent clause bundles and VP-based bundles are more common in spoken registers (conversation and classroom teaching) than in written registers (textbooks and academic prose) (Biber et al., 2004). In this study, as shown in Figure 1, dependent clause bundles account for similar proportions in all three corpora, whereas the percentage of VP-based bundles in interpretation corpus (33%) is higher than that in translation corpus (25%) and in speech corpus (20%). This indicates that the interpreted register is the most oral in nature out of the three, whereas the spoken register is the most literate with its lowest proportion of VP-based bundles and highest proportion of NP/PP-based bundles. The literate nature of the spoken register may be explained by the fact that 70% of the number of speeches in speech corpus are either read-out or a mix between read-out and impromptu (see Appendix A for raw counts and examples of bundle types across structural categories in the three corpora).

Functional Patterns of the Three Registers

As Figure 2 shows, the interpreted register in the EU parliamentary discourse is unique in that stance bundles, referential bundles, and subject-specific bundles almost equally account for 1/3 of the corpus, with discourse organizers making up the remaining 8% of the bundle types. On the other hand, the translated and spoken registers display similar patterns in the proportional distribution of LB functions, with subject-specific bundles constituting the largest category (37% and 50%,

Figure 2

Functional Distribution of Lexical Bundle Types Across the Three Corpora



respectively), followed by referential bundles (33%, 24%), stance bundles (21%, 20%), and finally discourse organizers (9%, 6%). Both patterns (interpretation vs. translation and speech) are different from Jablonkai's (2010) analysis of EU documents, in which referential bundle types constitute the largest category (58%), followed by subject-specific bundles (33%), discourse organizers (6%), and finally stance bundles (3%).[3]

Referential bundles, the largest functional category in academic written registers and also extremely common in academic spoken register (classroom teaching), mainly serve informational purposes, whereas stance bundles, the largest category in spoken registers (both conversation and classroom teaching), show communicative priorities (Biber et al., 2004). If communicative and informational priorities are two ends of a continuum, English discourse of EU documents, with

[3] The percentages of Jablonkai's (2010) functional categories were calculated by the author of the present study based on the raw numbers of bundle types given in her Table 7 (p. 262).

stance bundles accounting for only 3% of the overall bundle types (Jablonkai, 2010), would be located at the far-right end. Similar to academic spoken register, in which both stance and referential bundles equally account for nearly 40% of the bundle types (Biber et al., 2004),[4] the interpreted register in the EU parliamentary discourse would be located in the middle of the continuum, combining both communicative and informational priorities. On the other hand, the translated and spoken registers in the EU parliamentary discourse are more informational than the interpreted register, but not as informational as the English of EU documents. This suggests that EP plenary debates, even in the forms of translations and scripted speeches, are still not as literate as EU documents because of the larger presence of stance bundles (see Appendix B for raw counts of bundle types across functional categories in the three corpora).

Functional Characteristics of Lexical Bundles in the Three Registers

What follows is descriptive analysis of LBs' functional characteristics. LBs present in two or all three corpora are given priority in example selection.

Stance Bundles

Stance bundles include two main subcategories: epistemic stance bundles and attitudinal/modality stance bundles. Epistemic stance bundles express one's knowledge about the coming information, whereas attitudinal stance bundles, containing six subtypes, frame one's attitudes.

[4] The percentages of the functional categories in Biber et al. (2004) were calculated by the author of the present study based on the raw numbers of bundle types given in their Table 4 (p. 396). It should be noted that their study does not contain the category of subject-specific bundles, which are informational in nature.

Epistemic Stance Bundles

Epistemic stance bundles convey knowledge, thoughts, beliefs, viewpoints, awareness, and facts. They are mostly personal, expressing certainty (e.g., "I believe that the" and "I do not believe") as in Example 1, or uncertainty (e.g., "I think it is," "I'm wondering whether we," and "as I see it").

1. "We are convinced that" this directive, although not perfect, must be implemented during the current term of office. (translation)

Impersonal epistemic stance bundles express certainty, as in Examples 2 and 3.

2. Furthermore, we must consider "the fact that the" opening, in two years, of the Baku-Tbilisi-Ceyhan pipeline will be of enormous strategic importance. (translation)
3. In the near future, freedom, security, and justice will be a particularly critical area "taking account of the" different approaches of the new Member States on this problem. (interpretation)

As shown in Figure 3, epistemic stance bundles make up about 1/5 of the overall stance bundle types in all three corpora, suggesting their importance in both spoken and written registers.

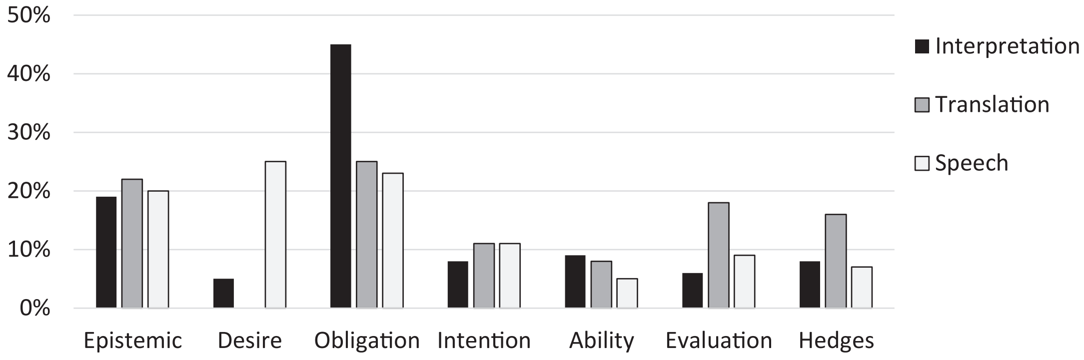
Attitudinal/Modality Stance Bundles

Attitudinal/modality stance bundles express personal attitudes towards events or actions. Six subtypes were distinguished—desire, obligation/directive, intention/prediction, ability/possibility, evaluation, and hedges. The first four were created by Biber et al. (2004), and the latter two were added by Simpson-Vlach and Ellis (2010).

Desire Bundles. These bundles express wishes and expectations, such as "and I hope that," "we look forward to," and "I don't want to." As shown in Figure 3, desire bundles do not appear in translation corpus, whereas they account for 1/4 of

Figure 3

Proportional Distribution of Stance Bundle Types Across Subcategories and Subtypes in Interpretation, Translation, and Speech Corpora



the overall stance bundle types in speech corpus. A closer look shows that in speech corpus, desire bundles demonstrate great variety, containing words like “want” (as in “I want to thank” and “want to ensure that”), “hope” (as in “I hope that we”), “look forward to” (as in “we look forward to”), and “welcome” (as in “I very much welcome” and “I welcome the opportunity”). However, the desire bundles in interpretation corpus lack diversity, with the word “want” present in every desire bundle type (as in “I don’t want to,” “we want to do,” “we want to have,” and “we say we want”). This may suggest that MEPs giving scripted or unscripted speeches enjoy greater flexibility in expressing desire, whereas EP interpreters, under the time pressure of SI, tend to use the simplest and most direct way of expressing desire. Translation corpus containing no desire bundles is consistent with previous findings on written discourse. For example, no desire bundles are present in English EU documents (Jablonkai, 2010), and spoken classroom management contains more than triple the percentage of desire bundle types than written classroom management (Biber & Barbieri, 2007). Desire bundles may seem redundant in the eyes of EP translators, and may be deleted in the translation process.

4. "I welcome the opportunity" to brief the Members of the European Parliament today on our plans for the spring European Council. (speech)

Obligation/Directive Bundles. These bundles serve the functions of calling for actions (e.g., "remains to be done," "main objective is to," "we have to overcome," and "to ensure that the"), drawing attention (e.g., "we must look at" and "have to look at"), or underscoring the point to be made, as in Example 5:

5. We have to "bear in mind that" citizens are kidnapped, and terrorists are in prison. (interpretation)

As shown in Figure 3, obligation bundles are particularly prominent in interpretation corpus, accounting for almost half of its stance bundle types. Interpreters use "we have to," "we need to," "we must," and "we've got to" more than translators and MEPs do. These bundles serve the function of emphasizing the actions to be taken, but they are also less substantial words that can be used to stall for time during SI.

Obligation bundles are common in both spoken and written university registers (Biber & Barbieri, 2007), which is witnessed in the present study. In fact, as shown in Figure 3, obligation bundles also constitute the largest subtype of stance bundles in translation corpus, and the second largest in speech corpus.

Interestingly, in the analysis of Biber et al. (2004, p. 385) on university teaching, the second-person pronoun "you" is often contained in obligation bundles, directing the listener to take certain actions, such as "I want you to," "you have to be," "you look at the," and "you might want to." However, in the three EP corpora in the current study, "you" never occurs in this subtype; instead, the plural form of the first-person pronoun "we" is mostly used. This may suggest that in classroom teaching, lecturers take a more authoritative role than students, whereas MEPs, whom interpreters and translators serve, are of equal standing.

Intention/Prediction Bundles. These bundles express intention (e.g., "what it intends to"), agreement and support (e.g., "fully agree with the" and "support the implementation of"), or future commitment, as in Example 6:

6. We have commitments to Afghanistan, and "we will continue to" deliver on them. (interpretation)

Ability/Possibility Bundles. Ability bundles are the fourth subtype of attitudinal/modality bundles in Biber et al. (2004) typology, and Simpson-Vlach and Ellis (2010) added the dimension of possibility in this subtype. Ability/possibility bundles in this study introduce actual or possible actions, as in "that we can do," "allow them to be," and "not be possible to." The ability bundle "be able to" in Examples 7 and 8 can be deleted without changing much of the meaning, but its presence seems to soften the coming proposition.

7. Therefore, we have "to be able to" develop ideas for the implementation of the Lisbon strategy. (interpretation)
8. I feel bound to say that the Commission ought "to be able to" put in place appropriate legal instruments to ensure easy and secure transfer of the fruits of immigrants' labours. (translation)

Evaluation Bundles. Added by Simpson-Vlach and Ellis (2010), evaluation bundles express one's judgement or attitude towards the statement to be made, as in "it is important to," "it is essential to," "it is incumbent on," and "it is useful to."

9. So it is extremely unfair and just purely demagogic "to say that the" approach of the Commission to this policy area is laxist. (speech)

Hedges. Also added by Simpson-Vlach and Ellis (2010), hedges express tentativeness (e.g., "have some sort of" and "appears to have been"), but more commonly, they mitigate the coming criticism by expressing one's regrets and unwillingness (e.g., "I am sorry to" and "I have to say") or by acknowledging the merits (e.g., "it's all very well" and "it is true that").

10. It's true that "progress has been made," as mentioned by the representatives of the Commission and Council and Rapporteur, and I'd like to congratulate them on that, but nonetheless the progress is inadequate. (interpretation)

Discourse Organizers

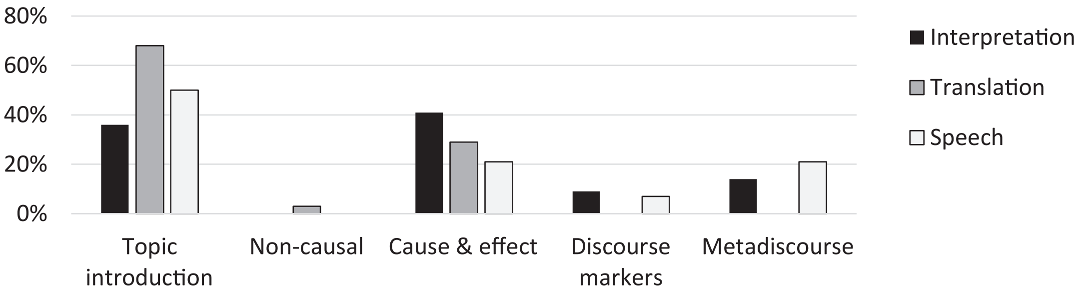
Discourse organizers include four subcategories: topic introduction/focus, topic elaboration/clarification, discourse markers, and metadiscourse. These bundles signal the start, transition, and end of a segment of discourse.

Topic Introduction/Focus Bundles

Topic introduction bundles introduce a new topic. Figure 4 shows that they account for half or more than half of the bundle types under discourse organizers in both speech and translation corpora, and 1/3 in interpretation corpus. In interpretation and speech corpora, most of the topic introduction/focus bundles are extensions of "would like to," whereas those in translation corpus exhibit more diversity, such as "should like to highlight," "the third priority is," "to make a further," and "to point out that."

Figure 4

Proportional Distribution of Discourse Organizing Bundle Types Across Subcategories and Subtypes in Interpretation, Translation, and Speech Corpora



11. "I would like to" comment briefly on each of these aspects. (translation)

Example 12 illustrates the combination of two four-word bundles ("question arises as to" and "as to whether the") into a seven-word bundle.

12. "The question arises as to whether the" figure alone is the problem. (translation)

Topic Elaboration/Clarification Bundles

These bundles were not divided into further subtypes in Biber et al. (2004) typology, but Simpson-Vlach and Ellis (2010) created two subtypes: non-causal and cause and effect.

Non-Causal Bundles. Appearing only in translation corpus, these bundles clarify or paraphrase what has been mentioned previously.

13. But that protocol denies what Parliament has been requesting for years, "that is to say" democratic control. (translation)

Cause and Effect Bundles. These bundles indicate causal relationship, a reason, a purpose, or an effect. Examples include "this is why the," "on account of the," "in order to protect," and "has led to a."

14. South Africa, Argentina, Brazil, Taiwan, South Korea, for example, have all turned their backs on the proliferation of nuclear weapons partly "as a result of" international pressure, but also "as a result of" sensible and wise decisions taken in response to domestic debate and opinion. (speech)

Discourse Markers

Added by Simpson-Vlach and Ellis (2010), discourse markers signal the beginning or ending of a discourse, as in "debate is now closed." In Example 15, the bundle "thank you very much" wraps the entire speech.

15. "Thank you very much," President. I wanna restrict my remarks to the area of legal migration. ... This is why I urge the Commissioner and the Council

to press on with this very difficult work in an important area a structured programme for planned migration for the European Union of 25 countries and more. "Thank you very much." (speech)

Metadiscourse Bundles

Also added by Simpson-Vlach and Ellis (2010), metadiscourse is speakers/writers' commentary on a text to interact with listeners/readers (Hyland, 2017). Bundles in this subcategory include "to my earlier answer" and "we were talking about."

16. And here "I come back to" what Mr. Linkor has said, and also Mr. Lange also had to say. (interpretation)

Both discourse markers and metadiscourse bundles seem to be features of spoken registers, since translation corpus contains none of these two subcategories of discourse organizers, as shown in Figure 4.

Referential Bundles

Drawing listeners/readers' attention to an entity or certain attributes of an entity, referential bundles constitute the largest functional category in Jablonkai's (2010) analysis of English EU documents. In this study, they also make up the largest functional category in interpretation corpus, and the second largest in both translation and speech corpora, as shown in Figure 2. Four main subcategories were differentiated: identification/focus, specification of attributes, time/place/text-deixis/multi-functional bundles, and contrast and comparison bundles.

Identification/Focus Bundles

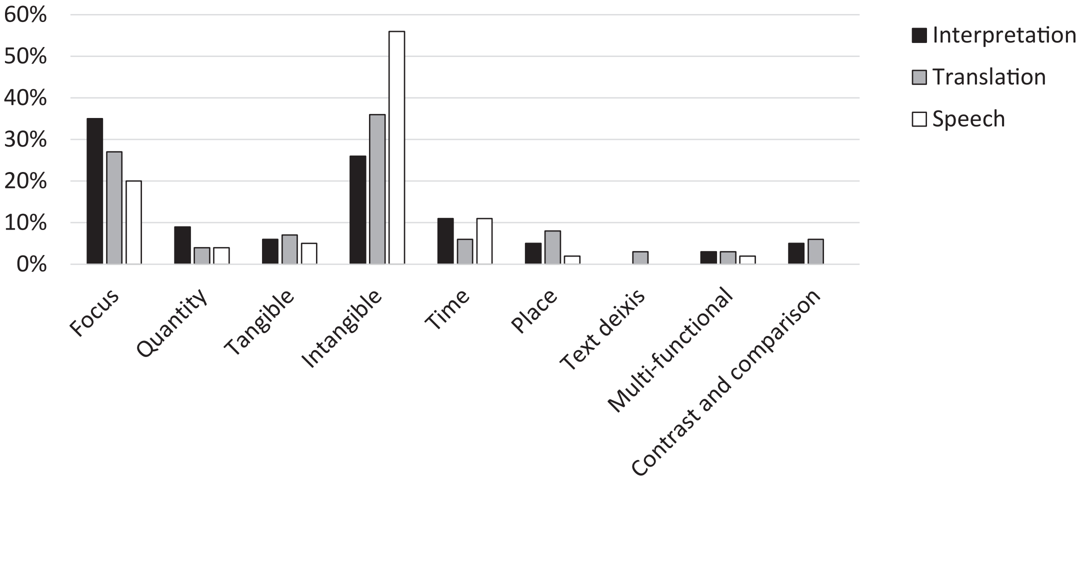
Identification/focus bundles are different from topic introduction/focus bundles under discourse organizers; the former are more local, drawing attention to a noun phrase or an idea, whereas the latter are more global, drawing attention to a new segment of discourse. Here, focus bundles usually contain words like "it is," "that is," "this is," "there is," "there has," "what is," "which is," "means that," and "one of." These words signal local emphasis. Focus bundles are usually followed by a noun phrase as the point of focus (e.g., "I refer to the," "difficulty lies in the," and "as one of the").

17. In order that my country may overcome this difficult time, all the European Institutions must keep a close watch over "what is happening in" Italy. (translation)
18. And what we are trying to do is to create a common level playing field at European level to guarantee that in all 25 Member States there will be the same pattern of protection of personal data "when it comes to" law enforcement. (speech)

As shown in Figure 5, focus bundles constitute the largest subcategory of referential bundles in interpretation corpus. Out of the 34 focus bundle types in interpretation corpus, eight contain fragments of simple sentence structures with

Figure 5

Proportional Distribution of Referential Bundle Types Across Subcategories and Subtypes in Interpretation, Translation, and Speech Corpora



words like “that is,” “it is,” and “this is” (as in “that’s not the way,” “it’s not just a,” and “this is something that”), whereas only two focus bundle types in either translation or speech corpus contain such words. This may again suggest that under temporal and cognitive constraints of SI, interpreters tend to resort to simpler sentence structures than translators and MEPs do.

Specification of Attributes

Bundles specifying attributes have three subtypes: quantity specification, tangible framing, and intangible framing.

Quantity Specification Bundles. They specify quantities (e.g., “the number of those” and “majority of Member States”) or amounts (e.g., “there can be little” and “a great deal of”).

19. The Lisbon reforms must be carried through, implemented and developed “in all Member States” of the Union. (translation)

Tangible Framing Bundles. These bundles contain concrete words like “eye,” “face,” and “hands,” yet they may be metaphorical in meaning, as in “with an eye on,” “in the face of,” and “in the hands of.” Other tangible framing bundles refer to physical characteristics or range of the coming noun, as in “as part of the,” “in the field of,” and “this new form of.”

20. All of these subareas “of the area of” freedom, security, and justice have a direct bearing on Member States’ sovereignty. (interpretation)

Intangible Framing Bundles. These bundles describe abstract features, as in “the dignity of the,” “the independence of the,” and “the competitiveness of the.” They may take the form of nominalization, such as “the implementation of the,” “the development of the,” and “the creation of the.” These bundles also indicate relationships between ideas, such as “in accordance with the,” “in relation to the,” and “in connection with the.” They may also serve as bridges between clauses, as in “of which I am” and “in this way we.”

21. Without stronger institutions and better law enforcement, we'll get nowhere "in the fight against" drugs. (speech)
22. We can convince our citizens that this needs to be done to improve security "on the basis of" more cooperation and not "on the basis of" more repression. (interpretation)

Intangible framing bundles constitute the largest subtype under referential bundles in Jablonkai's (2010) analysis of EU documents. In this study, intangible framing bundles also make up the largest subtype of referential bundles in both translation and speech corpora, and the second largest subtype in interpretation corpus, as shown in Figure 5. This may suggest that intangible framing bundles are common in formal English, both written and spoken.

Time/Place/Text-Deixis/Multi-Functional Bundles

Time Bundles. They refer to a specific time (e.g., "February of this year"), a period of time (e.g., "over the next three" and "in the last few"), the onset or ending of time (e.g., "from this point of" and "before the end of"), or immediacy (e.g., "at the earliest opportunity" and "as soon as possible").

23. And I'm sure "in the medium term," if we have that, we can get to budgetary balance "in the medium term," especially if we look at the population trends. (interpretation)

Place Bundles. They refer to countries or regions.

24. Mr. President, the problems "of the South Caucasus" are as easy to identify as they are difficult to solve. (translation)

Text-Deixis Bundles. These bundles are unique to translation corpus, as shown in Figure 5. This is consistent with the findings of Biber et al. (2004) in that text-deixis bundles are common only in written registers.

25. "As stated in the" report, the pillar structure should be done away with. (translation)

Multi-Functional Bundles. Depending on the context, multi-functional bundles may refer to time or concepts, act as discourse markers, or be part of an idiom (e.g., "at the end of" the day). Bundle "at the same time" acts as a non-causal topic elaboration bundle (the same function as "furthermore") in Example 26, and acts as a time referent in Example 27.

26. But the current Pact has rules that are far too rigid to enable us to do any of that, so we have to rethink it. "At the same time," it must provide a guarantee of stability in Europe, which will be safeguarded by the carefully and conscious choices taken by our leaders. (interpretation)
27. Its [the draft law's] development is happening "at the same time" as the action on the vigilante groups. (interpretation)

Contrast and Comparison Bundles

These bundles signal similarities or differences between two entities (e.g., "the same is true," "is more constructive than," and "a comparison between the"), or highlight two different opinions about something, as in the case of "on the one hand" and "on the other hand." Both interpretation and translation corpora have the bundle "on the one hand," which interestingly is not followed by "on the other hand" in interpretation corpus. It is possible that under the time constraint of SI, interpreters either forget that they have started the argument with "on the one hand," or they fall back on shorter words like "but" to save time, as in Example 28:

28. I'm very sorry about the ambiguity and incoherence being expressed by some colleagues, who "on the one hand" praised the report because it's good, but then very illogically say that they are not going to support it. (interpretation)

Example 29 is the translation counterpart.

29. I very much regret the seriously misguided and inconsistent way in which certain Members, "on the one hand," heap great praise on the report because it is good, but, "on the other," say that they are not going to support it. (translation)

Subject-Specific Bundles

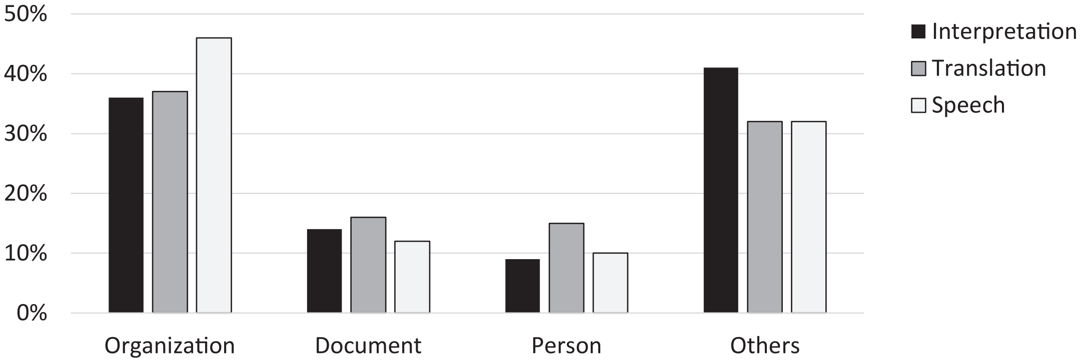
Created by Jablonkai (2010), the category of subject-specific bundles is devoted solely to EU-related terminology or concepts. Four subcategories were differentiated: reference to an organization/institution, reference to a document, reference to a person, and others. As shown in Figure 6, reference to an organization and others are the two major subcategories in all three corpora.

EU-Related—Reference to an Organization/Institution

Jablonkai (2010) included reference to a country in this subcategory, but it overlaps with place bundles under referential bundles. In the present study, reference to a country was categorized as a place bundle, whereas the bundles in this subcategory refer to EU institutions (e.g., "the Commission and Council" and

Figure 6

Proportional Distribution of Subject-Specific Bundle Types Across Subcategories in Interpretation, Translation, and Speech Corpora



"the European Parliament in"), international organizations (e.g., "of the United Nations"), European governments (e.g., "that the UK government"), and Europe as a whole (e.g., "of the enlarged Europe").

30. I'd like to thank you for this opportunity to discuss the work of the "Justice and Home Affairs" Council in 2003. (speech)

EU-Related—Reference to a Document

These bundles refer to treaties, initiatives, charters, reports, agreements, strategies, guidelines, and pacts.

31. We must build a dynamic in the Lisbon process by ensuring that the "Stability and Growth Pact" actually provides for growth as well as stability. (speech)

EU-Related—Reference to a Person

This subcategory was created for the present study, replacing Codes in Jablonkai's (2010) typology. Bundles referring to a person contain words such as "members," "ministers," "President-in-Office," "Vice-President," "representatives," "rapporteur," "researchers," "commissioner," "citizens," and "gentleman."

32. That will be for the new Commission to decide on, and particularly "the President of the" Commission. (interpretation)

Others

These bundles express specific EU-related issues or concepts, usually in the form of noun phrases. Examples include "cooperation among the police," "the cease of hostilities," and "democracy and human rights."

33. Our success will depend on standing firm in respecting "the rule of law" and applying all the mechanisms permitted by law. (interpretation)

Conclusions

This study investigated the similarities and differences across interpreted, translated, and spoken registers in English EU parliamentary discourse by identifying frequently occurred four-word LBs through corpus-driven approach and by analyzing LBs' grammatical structures and pragmatic functions. It was found that only around 10% of the bundle types are shared among EP interpreters and/or translators and/or MEPs, suggesting differences far outweigh similarities in actual bundle use.

However, the three registers display similar patterns in structural distribution. The dominance of NP/PP-based bundle types in all three corpora suggests that the English discourse produced by EP interpreters, translators, and MEPs is highly informational. What is surprising is that speeches delivered by MEPs are more literate in nature than not just interpretations but also translations, as shown by the highest proportion of NP/PP-based bundle types and the lowest proportion of VP-based bundle types in speech corpus. The literate nature of the spoken register may be explained by the fact that 70% of the speeches in speech corpus are either read-out or a mix between read-out and impromptu.

Functional analysis revealed that the interpreted register contains almost equal proportions of subject-specific bundles, referential bundles, and stance bundles, indicating a combination of informational and communicative priorities. On the other hand, the spoken and translated registers display similar functional patterns. The more dominant role played by subject-specific bundles and referential bundles indicates informational priorities of the two registers. Although the spoken register seems to be more literate than even the translated register, as shown by structural analysis, a closer examination of bundles' functional characteristics revealed that the spoken register still possesses oral features with its high proportion of desire bundle types, the presence of discourse markers and metadiscourse bundles, and the absence of text-deixis bundles.

The four-word bundles identified in the present study might provide practical value for citizens, translators, and interpreters of the EU Member States. These bundles may also be useful for translators and interpreters worldwide whose language combinations involve English, as prefabricated sequences signal one's professional identity and offer processing advantages in both language production and comprehension.

To enhance bundles' pedagogical value, two major limitations of the present study may need to be addressed. First, compared with the corpus sizes of other corpus-driven studies, the sizes of the three corpora in this study are very small. Although small corpora allow close examination of patterns of language use in context (Koester, 2010), language patterns revealed by large corpora warrant further study. Second, the number and frequency of four-word bundles identified in the present study may be inflated, as bundles may overlap. For example, in interpretation corpus, the bundle "in the fight against" occurs twice, whereas the bundle "the fight against terrorism" occurs four times, amounting to a raw frequency of six. However, the two bundles can be collapsed as one five-word bundle, "(in) the fight against terrorism," with a frequency count of four. But this five-word bundle would render comparison of LBs across the three corpora difficult. For example, in speech corpus, only the bundle "in the fight against" makes the frequency cut, and in each occurrence, it is followed by a different object: "drugs," "terrorism," or "international organised crime and terrorism." For pedagogical purposes, collapsed bundles with variable slots, such as "(in) the fight against terrorism/drugs/international organised crime," may be more complete in meaning and thus easier for T&I trainees to memorize. Future studies are encouraged to collapse bundles before functional categorization for pedagogical applications.

Two other directions also merit further investigation. First, other features of English EU Parliamentary discourse, such as lexical variety, lexical density, collocations, and sentence length, may be explored via corpus-based or corpus-driven approach to further reveal the universality and variation of the three modalities: interpretation, translation, and speech. Second, the interpreted, translated and spoken registers of other languages, such as Mandarin Chinese, may be examined using corpus-based or corpus-driven approach to understand intra-language and inter-language register variation for the purposes of T&I training.

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Appendix A

Raw Counts and Examples of Bundle Types Across Structural Categories in Interpretation Corpus (IC), Translation Corpus (TC), and Speech Corpus (SC)

Category	Subcategory	IC	TC	SC	Example
1. VP-based	1a. 1st/2nd person pronoun + VP fragment	44	19	28	we have to overcome
	1b. 3rd person pronoun + VP fragment	25	42	8	debate is now closed
	1d. Verb phrase with non-passive verb	22	18	7	taking account of the
	1e. Verb phrase with passive verb	7	13	—	be borne in mind
	1f. Yes–no question fragment	—	—	2	are there any comments
	1g. WH-question fragment	1	—	—	how do we get
Sub-total		99	92	45	
2. Dependent clause	2b. WH-clause fragment	6	9	2	what is happening in
	2c. If-clause fragment	3	—	1	if we do that
	2d. To-clause fragment	23	42	13	to face up to
	2e. That-clause fragment	17	11	17	bear in mind that
Sub-total		49	62	33	
3. NP/PP-based	3a. Noun phrase with of-phrase fragment	46	56	28	the cease of hostilities
	3b. Noun phrase with other post-modifier fragment	18	32	22	our policies with the
	3c. Other noun phrase expressions	23	28	31	the State and society
	3d. Prepositional phrase expressions	59	88	65	as part of the
	3e. Comparative expressions	2	1	—	than in the United
Sub-total		148	205	146	
4. Others	4a. Adjectives	3	3	—	aware of the need
	4b. Adverbs	2	2	2	here in this House
	4c. Numbers	1	—	—	half a per cent
Sub-total		6	5	2	
Total		302	364	226	

Appendix B

Raw Counts of Bundles Types Across Functional Categories in Interpretation Corpus (IC), Translation Corpus (TC), and Speech Corpus (SC)

Category	Subcategory	IC	TC	SC
I. Stance expressions	A. Epistemic stance	17	17	9
	B. Attitudinal/modality stance			
	(B1) Desire	5	—	11
	(B2) Obligation/directive	41	19	10
	(B3) Intention/prediction	7	8	5
	(B4) Ability/possibility	8	6	2
	(B5) Evaluation	6	14	4
	(B6) Hedges	7	12	3
Sub-total		91	76	44
II. Discourse organizers	A. Topic introduction/focus	8	23	7
	B. Topic elaboration/clarification			
	(B1) Non-causal	—	1	—
	(B2) Cause and effect	9	10	3
	C. Discourse markers	2	—	3
	D. Metadiscourse	3	—	1
Sub-total		22	34	14
III. Referential expressions	A. Identification/focus	34	32	11
	B. Specification of attributes			
	(B1) Quantity specification	9	5	2
	(B2) Tangible framing attributes	6	8	3
	(B3) Intangible framing attributes	25	43	30
	C. Time/place/text-deixis/multi-functional			
	(C1) Time reference	10	7	6
	(C2) Place reference	5	9	1
	(C3) Text-deixis reference	—	3	—
	(C4) Multi-functional reference	3	4	1
	D. Contrast and comparison	5	7	—
Sub-total		97	118	54

(continued)

Raw Counts of Bundles Types Across Functional Categories in Interpretation Corpus (IC), Translation Corpus (TC), and Speech Corpus (SC) (continued)

Category	Subcategory	IC	TC	SC
IV. Subject-specific bundles	A. EU-related—reference to an organization/ institution	33	50	53
	B. EU-related—reference to a document	13	22	14
	C. EU-related—reference to a person	8	20	11
	D. Others	38	44	36
Sub-total		92	136	114
Total		302	364	226

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Revision in the Process-Oriented Translation Classroom: Student Perspectives

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Revision (and self-revision) has consistently been regarded as indispensable in ensuring the quality of the translation product. From a pedagogical perspective, a self-revision task can provide translation trainees with an opportunity to reevaluate their output and become more reflective about their linguistic knowledge and translation strategies. Despite its potential benefits, however, revision has received little attention in the research of translation pedagogy. This study explored how a class of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) undergraduate students perceived the revision task in an English-Chinese translation classroom. In this one-semester study, the students were asked to revise their draft translations after receiving input from various sources. Through a questionnaire, interviews, and students' learning journals, this study examined students' perceived focus of revision as well as their perceptions of revision and related pedagogical activities. Results suggested that students placed greater importance on accuracy, tailoring, smoothness, and mechanics when revising. These preferred focuses of revision corresponded broadly to those revealed in studies of professional translators. As to the activities designed and implemented to scaffold the revision process, students appeared to favor group work and peer review. Findings also indicated that students generally agreed to the positive role of revision in the improvement of translation quality. Pedagogical implications are discussed.

Keywords: translation revision, student attitudes, scaffolding activities, translation pedagogy

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過程導向翻譯課堂中的修訂活動：學生觀點

葉純純

要確保翻譯品質，修訂（和自我修訂）是必不可少的。在翻譯教學中，自我修訂任務可以促使學習者再次審視其譯文，並反思其語言能力及翻譯策略。雖然修訂任務有其益處，在翻譯教學領域，相關研究仍相當有限，因此，本研究要探討英語為外語的大學生對英中翻譯修訂任務的看法。此研究歷時一學期，學生完成翻譯初稿後，依據得到的多方回饋再修訂其譯文。研究蒐集資料包括問卷調查、訪談及學習日誌，以探討學生對修訂重點、修訂任務及修訂相關教學活動的看法。結果顯示，學生較關注的修訂重點為準確、考量特定需求、流暢和技術性細節，這些修訂重點與專業譯者的修訂重點有相當程度的吻合，而在多種支持修訂過程的教學活動中，學生偏好小組合作和同儕回饋活動。研究也發現，學生普遍認為修訂有助提升譯文品質。論文最後提出教學建議。

關鍵詞：翻譯修訂、學生態度、鷹架學習活動、翻譯教學

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Introduction

Researchers on translation pedagogy have noted problems in the traditional teacher-centered translation classroom (Gile, 1994), where the teacher explains translation principles and skills and then gives assignments, which students complete on their own and submit for teacher evaluation. In this pedagogical model, the teacher is charged with the responsibility of transmitting knowledge, while the student remains passive or unengaged. Addressing the inadequacy of such educational practice, Kiraly (1995) proposes a new pedagogy of translation with principles such as student-centered instruction, fostering responsibility, and encouraging cooperation (p. 33). In line with this idea, researchers and practitioners have begun to explore alternative ways of conducting teaching in the translation classroom. Among these attempts, process-oriented instruction, which aims to promote and facilitate learners' self-regulation, appears to have garnered both research and pedagogical attention. Arguing for the benefit of process-oriented teaching, many translator educators have thus implemented a variety of pedagogical interventions such as diary writing (Fox, 2000), integrated problem and decision reporting (Gile, 2004), and translation commentary (Shei, 2005). While these studies have reported a generally positive impact of these activities on students' translation competence, revision—a task with the potential of eliciting learner reflection on the decision-making process—has received relatively little attention in translation pedagogy.

In the field of translation, revision has consistently been regarded as indispensable in ensuring the quality of the translation product. The importance of revision, particularly self-revision (checking one's own work), should thus be emphasized "right from the very first practice course in translation" (Mossop, 2010, p. 8). From a pedagogical perspective, a self-revision task provides translation trainees with an opportunity to review their drafts. With appropriate guidance and feedback, students can learn to identify and correct their own errors. Furthermore, when making revision decisions, trainees can potentially learn to monitor and evaluate their strategy use and become more reflective about their linguistic and translation knowledge. These metacognitive skills have been recognized as important factors contributing to success in the translation profession. It can therefore be argued that incorporating revision into translation pedagogy can benefit students both at the training stage and in their future careers (Chodkiewicz, 2018). Despite the potential benefits that a revision task may bring to student translators, relevant research remains sparse. Hence, this study set out to examine students' perceptions of revision in an undergraduate translation classroom. This inquiry will inform the field of translation pedagogy that has so far had little discussion about the use of revision in the teaching of translation.

Literature Review

Process-Oriented Approach in Translation Teaching

In the recent decades, the teaching of translation has seen a paradigm shift from teacher-centered to student-centered learning (Kiraly, 1995) and, accordingly, from product-oriented to process-oriented instruction. Drawing from constructivist theories of learning (Vygotsky, 1981), process-oriented translation teaching sees students as learners of translation methods rather than producers of finished products. Therefore, trainers adopting a process approach ask students questions about their translation choices to prompt trainees to reflect on their decision-making process (Gile, 1994).

Over the past decades, various efforts have been made to implement the process approach in translation teaching. In Gile (1994), when submitting translation assignments, students were required to attach written problem reports, where they described translation problems encountered such as understanding a particular sentence and searching for equivalents in the target language. A decade later, Gile (2004) revisited this pedagogical practice, which he now termed as *integrated problem and decision reporting*, and restated its advantages including more serious student work, heightened learner satisfaction as a translator, and increased teacher understanding of trainee problems.

Similar student written reports are widely adopted in the translation classroom, albeit in different names. For example, Fox (2000) used "translation diaries" to help learners develop the ability to analyze the source text and to produce texts tailored to the target readership. Shei (2005) asked students to write "translation commentary," an English composition to accompany translation tasks. In the composition, students should detail their problem-solving procedures and other task-related thoughts. Similarly, Yeh (2009) implemented a "reflection writing" task to accompany translation assignments. Students were encouraged to reflect upon and write about their translation process such as the problems they encountered and the solutions they reached.

In addition to using dairies to focus students' attention on the translation process, feedback provision has also garnered interest from translation educators embracing a process approach. Among sources of feedback, the teacher is well acknowledged as playing a critical role in enhancing students' translation competence particularly when the feedback is systematic (Dollerup, 1994). Nevertheless, in the recent decades *collaborative learning* has gained increasing attention in translation teaching.

Collaborative learning is an umbrella term for a number of teaching approaches involving learners interacting in groups of two or more to achieve collective learning goals. The concept of collaborative learning can be linked with cognitive and sociocultural theories of verbal interaction and language acquisition. Among the cognitive theories that explain human language learning, Long's (1983, 1985) influential interaction hypothesis posits that verbal interaction and meaning negotiation are necessary for learning to occur because they provide comprehensible input needed for language acquisition. From a sociocultural perspective, verbal interaction is also of utmost importance for language acquisition because cognitive development, particularly higher order cognitive abilities such as language learning, is socially situated (Vygotsky, 1981). Therefore, learning can be understood as arising from interaction between humans and between an expert and a novice. More specifically, a person's learning or problem-solving ability can be augmented by carefully calibrated support provided by an expert, which is usually referred to as scaffolding. Although scaffolding is generally conceived as assistance provided by an adult or a more knowledgeable peer, studies of learner discourse have indicated that peers of similar L2 proficiency were capable of scaffolding each other in the process of completing a task (Ohta, 1995; Villamil & de Guerrero, 1996). Furthermore, such mutual scaffolding, or "collective scaffolding" (Donato, 1994), encourages learners to pool together all available linguistic resources to solve problems at hand and thus enables them to perform beyond their existing level of competence.

Two classroom activities facilitating students' mutual scaffolding are peer review and group work. Wang and Han (2013), for example, implemented peer feedback in two English-Chinese translation tasks in an Australian university. In addition to providing online peer feedback, students were also encouraged to review peer's feedback on their own translation as well as read other students' peer reviewed translations for comparison. The survey administered after these activities suggested that students found all the three activities beneficial to their learning, with receiving peer feedback bringing the most positive impact.

Group work is also popular with learners because it provides a more comfortable space for students to discuss ideas freely with their peers. In such a pedagogical activity, students can not only learn from each other but also learn to vocalize their thoughts and defend their translation decisions (Hubscher-Davidson, 2007). Recognizing the advantages of group work, teachers have accordingly designed collaborative group learning tasks to engage learners and develop translation competence. Students in Lee's (2012) study translated a travel guide collaboratively. In both Yeh (2011) and Lai (2002), students were put in small groups to work on translation projects over an extended period of time. In Chien (2015), students worked collaboratively to locate and correct translation errors in their everyday environment. In Romney (1997) and Tsai (2020), students were required to translate the assigned text individually and then participate in in-class collaborative activities such as group discussion and group presentations.

Despite these different applications, collaborative learning has consistently been found to bring positive effects in various ways. Cognitively, students developed more in-depth understanding of the source text and improved the grammatical accuracy of the target text (Romney, 1997). The translations generated collaboratively were generally of a higher quality (Lee, 2012) and exhibited more creativity (Lai, 2002; Lee, 2012). Metacognitively, students learned to evaluate different translation versions of the same source text and justify their choice of the version using their knowledge of the text's communicative function. They also became highly-motivated and autonomous learners (Lai, 2002). Affectively, students reported enjoying discussing and correcting errors with their peers (Chien, 2015). Similarly, Romney (1997) reported students' appreciation as well as enjoyment in participating in the collaborative class. Students in Yeh's (2011) study indicated that they liked learning activities involving group work and discussion, such as in-class group discussion, oral report of group research, and project presentation.

The above review shows that various interventions have been implemented to provide support to assist in students' learning process. At the drafting stage, written problem reports or translation diaries can heighten students' awareness of problems encountered and strategies adopted to solve problems. Teacher or peer feedback at the post-drafting stage can provide the reader's perspective and allow learners to evaluate the appropriacy and adequacy of their translations. Collaborative group learning tasks can easily be turned into a mechanism to support students throughout the planning, drafting, and post-drafting phases. However, it is noted that the revision task, which should follow from the drafting and feedback activities, has seldom been closely examined in translation pedagogy research. This review of the literature will thus turn to considering revision in the practice and teaching of translation.

Translation Revision

Revision is described by Mossop (2010) as a function performed by professional translators where "they identify features of the draft translation that fall short of what is acceptable and make appropriate corrections and improvements" (p. 109). In other words, revision is a way of ensuring quality in translation, with the purpose of arriving at "intelligible and optimal relevant translations" (Carl & Schaeffer, 2017, p. 103). Skipping revision, "an essential part of translation production procedure" (Mossop, 2010, p. 116), is therefore considered unprofessional.

Revision in translation is a recursive process, and it may be performed during and after the drafting phase. Research has shown that translators monitor their output and perform revision before they finish translating the last source word (Asadi & Séguinot, 2005; Schaeffer et al., 2019). This type of revision, termed as "online revision" (Jakobsen, 2003), can be compared with "end revision," which takes place immediately after the completion of the draft translation. Nevertheless, it is generally deemed advisable that a translator stay away from a draft translation for some time before coming back to its revision (Newmark, 1988) because a certain amount of time between the completion and revision of the draft translation may enable the translator to review the task with a fresh look.

In translation, different types of revision may be adopted depending on the purpose as well as other considerations such as time constraints and use purposes. For example, revision may take the form of unilingual reading or comparative checking, the former referring to the act of checking the translation without comparing it to the source text, and the latter involving comparing each sentence in the translation to the original text. Both unilingual reading and comparative reading are important to producing a quality translation, although it is often advised to perform unilingual reading first because one can often spot many errors using this method while avoiding introducing mistranslations in the process of correction (Mossop, 2010, p. 146).

To facilitate quality control, various checklists of translation errors or problems needing attention have been developed. Among them, Mossop's (2010) list of 12 parameters is perhaps the most frequently cited in the revision literature. Mossop's revision parameters are phrased in the question form and classified into four groups: meaning transfer, content, language, and presentation, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Mossop's Model of Revision Parameters

Parameters	Specific parameters	Error types
Meaning transfer	Accuracy	Does the translation reflect the message of the source text?
	Completeness	Have any elements of the message been left out?
Content	Logic	Does the sequence of ideas make sense? Is there any nonsense or contradiction?
	Facts	Are there any factual, conceptual, or mathematical errors?
Language	Smoothness	Does the wording flow? Are the connections between sentences clear? Are the relationships among the parts of each sentence clear? Are there any awkward, hard-to-read sentences?
	Tailoring	Is the language suited to the users of the translation and the use they will make of it?
	Sub-language	Is the style suited to the genre? Has correct terminology been used?
	Idiom	Are all the word combinations idiomatic?
	Mechanics	Have the rules of grammar, spelling, punctuation, and correct usage been observed?
Presentation	Layout	Are there any problems in the way the text is arranged on the page: spacing, indentation, margins, etc.?
	Typography	Are there any problems related to bolding, underlining, font type, font size, etc.?
	Organization	Are there any problems in the way the document as a whole is organized: page numbering, headers, footnotes, table of contents, etc.?

Note. Adapted from *Revising and Editing for Translators* (2nd ed., p. 125), by B. Mossop, 2010, St. Jerome. Copyright 2010 by St. Jerome.

Mossop's (2010) revision parameters have been used as a yardstick to compare with the parameters employed by practicing translators and revisers when revising either other people's or their own translations. For example, Shih (2006) observed that the specific revision parameters obtained in her study of Taiwanese translators corresponded to Mossop's in general. Rasmussen and Schjoldager's (2011) study similarly reported that the problems attended to by the revisers in their survey study were largely comparable with those identified in Mossop's list of parameters. Therefore, to facilitate comparison across studies, the current research adopted Mossop's revision parameters to elicit information about students' perceptions of their revision practice.

Researchers have examined various aspects of translation revision including the role of revision in the translation process (Asadi & Séguinot, 2005; Dimitrova, 2005), evaluation of revision quality (Arthern, 1987), quality of unilingual revision versus comparative revision (Brunette et al., 2005), and relationship between the amount of time spent and the quality of revision (Künzli, 2007). Relatively little research has been undertaken on translators' perception of revision, except for Shih (2006). Shih's interview study recruited 26 Taiwanese non-literary professional translators with varying working experience and investigated a range of revision routines and procedures including the number of times revision was performed, length of drawer-time (the amount of time between the completion and revision of the draft translation), and individual translators' revision checklists. Results suggested that a majority of her participants performed self-revision either once or twice, depending on the length and the urgency of the task. They did not often have extended drawer-time because of the imposed time constraints. As to revision checklists, the top three problems these professional translators checked for were fluency, accuracy, and terminology control (i.e., consistent use of terminology throughout the whole translation). Furthermore, Shih observed that her participants were capable of adjusting and customizing their revision priorities in order to attain the utmost performance.

Revision in Translation Training

Studies on revision in translation training can be broadly divided into two groups. The first addresses revision-specific education, aiming at developing trainees' ability to execute revision as a professional activity. These studies have identified revision competence (Künzli, 2006; Robert et al., 2017) and examined the effect of revision training (Scocchera, 2020). The second group of studies looks at revision as a stage of the assignment cycle in translation training, particularly in undergraduate education. In these studies, revision is incorporated into translation learning and teaching mainly to engage students by encouraging them to invest more time and effort into the assignment, with the ultimate goal of developing students' translation competence. This review shall now focus on the second group of research to better contextualize the present study.

Chodkiewicz (2018) investigated the decisions and success of students' revision in response to teacher feedback on their draft translations. A class of 36 undergraduate translation students were given an assignment to complete at home. Errors in the draft translations were identified by the instructor and then classified into six categories: functionality, meaning transfer, terminology, style and register, grammar, and formal aspects. The students were then asked to either revise or justify their translation decisions in response to teacher feedback. Results suggested that students revised a great majority of teacher markings in all the six categories, but at the same time they took no action regarding 16.2% of the markings in grammar and 12.2% in form. The most justifications were made in functionality and meaning, and most of these justifications were deemed successful. On the other hand, where students decided to revise their decisions for functionality and meaning, the revisions were less successful, with some of them actually leading to a negative effect on the translation. It has to be noted that despite providing valuable insights into students' revision decisions and success, Chodkiewicz's (2018) largely quantitative study did not offer detailed information regarding the specific reasons for revising or not revising errors marked by the instructor. Furthermore, research has shown that students tend to make revisions in reaction to teacher feedback because the teacher is perceived as knowledgeable and capable of giving useful feedback (Nelson & Carson, 1998; Zhang, 1995). It is not known how students will approach and perceive the revision task if provided with input mainly from collaborative activities such as group work and peer review. The last issue was recently taken up by Tsai's (2020) research.

Also conducted in an undergraduate translation course, Tsai (2020) examined how students perceived three activities—group presentations, written peer review, and peer assessment using a checklist—designed to assist students in the revision of their draft translations. Findings suggested that a majority of the respondents found group presentations to be the most interesting because they could learn from their peers and from their own errors. The participants also found group presentations to be the most useful and consulted presentation slides when revising. Their trust in the slides mainly resulted from a belief that the group had carefully examined every word and did thorough research, thereby assuring the credibility of the presentation content. In addition, the students acknowledged that all three activities helped enhance language skills and boost confidence in translation competence. While this study has shed light on students' perceptions of collaborative activities in the translation classroom, it neither addressed how they viewed revision as a stage of the assignment cycle in translation learning and how they prioritized translation problems needing attention in revision.

While revision has long been recognized and recommended as a means of bolstering students' composing ability (Ferris, 1997; Mendonça & Johnson, 1994), it has received scant attention in the translation classroom despite the repeated call for the incorporation of a process approach in translation training. Little is known regarding translation students' practice and perceptions of revision. To mediate the gap, this study set out to explore how English as a Foreign Language (EFL) undergraduate students perceived the revision task in an English-Chinese/Chinese-English translation classroom. In this one-semester study, the students were asked to revise their draft translations after receiving input from various sources. Through a questionnaire, interviews, and students' learning journals, this study examined students' perceived focus of revision as well as their perceptions of revision and related pedagogical activities.

Method

Research Context and Participants

This study was conducted in an introductory translation course at a public university in southern Taiwan. This semester-long elective course focused on a combination of theory and practice, working primarily with short non-literary texts. Two textbooks of translation were adopted, one dealing with English-Chinese translation and the other addressing Chinese-English translation. The class met once a week for three hours. Course activities consisted of lectures, in-class translation exercises, and interactive discussion based on either the textbook contents or translation exercises.

All 19 students of the translation course were invited to participate in the research. All except two were English majors in their third and fourth years. Among the 18 students who returned the questionnaire, two-thirds were female. None of them had formally studied translation before. A great majority of them rated their English reading (78%) and writing (72%) ability as *fairly good*.

Translation Assignments, Revisions, and Scaffolding Activities

Students were given five translation assignments in the semester, the first three being English into Chinese translation and the final two Chinese into English translation. Each source text was around 200 words long. Students were given a week to complete the draft translations and another week to revise. It should be noted that this introductory translation course did not aim to cultivate professional revisers. Rather, revision was incorporated into the assignment mainly to encourage students to invest more time and effort in the translation process, with the ultimate goal of developing their translation competence and positive attitudes (Chodkiewicz, 2018).

To support students' revision, input was provided from different sources including peers, self, and teacher. Input from peers took the forms of group presentations and peer review. First, students were randomly assigned into five groups, each taking charge of one assignment presentation. The presentation was given in the class meeting following the submission of the draft translations and covered an analysis of the source text, explanation of translation strategies, and justification of translation decisions. It also included a question-and-answer session to allow an opportunity for the student audience to seek clarification or further explanation from the presenting group. Then, after the presentation, students were required to conduct peer review in pairs, offering suggestions and ideas to help each other correct and improve draft translations. These two activities together lasted around 40 minutes.

After the two student-centered activities, the teacher provided feedback. To promote collaborative learning and problem-solving abilities, teacher feedback was kept brief to prevent students from becoming dependent on the teacher. Instead of giving direct correction, the teacher pointed out where the presenting group might have misinterpreted or have failed to understand. She then urged the students to reconsider the translation problems in their revisions. It should be noted that, after students submitted their revisions in the following week, the teacher would conduct whole class discussions to address translation issues identified in the assignment so as to ensure adequate guidance for student translators.

Students were also instructed to keep a learning journal either in English or in Chinese, writing an entry to accompany each translation or revision task in addition to a final reflective entry at the end of the semester. They were encouraged to keep a record of the translation or revision process, note the strategies to tackle translation problems and the reasons to justify their revision decisions (Fox, 2000; Gile, 1994, 2004; Yeh, 2009). Because of its potential to facilitate self-reflection and self-directed learning, the learning journal was deemed as a form of self-feedback.

Data Collection and Analysis

Data sources for this study included a questionnaire, individual interviews, and learning journals. The use of these multiple sources of data allowed triangulation of the findings, thus adding rigor to the research.

A questionnaire consisting of three parts was administered towards the end of the course to gauge students' perceptions of revising translation. The first part of the questionnaire (Appendix) comprised participants' demographic information, including gender, translation experience, and self-rated English reading and writing ability. Part B asked students to report the amount of attention given to various error types when revising. These error types were adapted from Mossop's (2010) list of revision parameters. However, the parameters concerning physical presentation—layout, typography, and organization—were excluded because these problems were deemed irrelevant to the revision task investigated in the study. The final part contained seven Likert-scale questions and one open question. Four of the Likert-scale questions gauged students' perceptions of the four activities designed to support students' revision process—journal keeping, group presentations, peer review, and teacher feedback. The remaining three Likert-scale items and the open question examined students' general perceptions of revision in translation.

After the questionnaire was completed, three students (S1, S2, S3) volunteered to participate in follow-up interviews. These students represented a diversity of learner characteristics such as gender, motivation, and English proficiency level and were expected to provide multiple views on the research issue. The interviewees were informed of the purpose of the study and assured of the confidentiality of their participation and responses. The interviews were held individually in the researcher's office one week after questionnaire administration. They were conducted in students' first language, Mandarin Chinese, to ensure free expression of experience and opinions. During the interview, students were asked to comment or elaborate on their responses to the questionnaire, using examples from their own translations and revisions, when applicable. The interviews, lasting on average 54 minutes, were audio-recorded, transcribed, and translated.

Students' learning journals served as the third data source. A total of 209 entries were collected. Journal entries written in Chinese were selectively translated into English to prepare for analysis.

For data analysis, the scaled items in the questionnaire were analyzed with descriptive analysis. Then, qualitative data elicited from interviews, learning journals, and student responses to the open questions in the questionnaire were subject to thematic analysis. They were read and reread to identify initial themes or codes. Themes were then grouped and emerging patterns were classified into categories.

Results and Discussion

Focuses of Revision

Table 2 presents students' reported focuses in revising their translation. Overall, the students placed the most importance on accuracy (*M* = 3.44, *SD* = 0.70) and tailoring (*M* = 3.28, *SD* = 0.57), followed by smoothness (*M* = 3.17, *SD* = 0.86) and mechanics (*M* = 3.17, *SD* = 0.86). In contrast, they paid less attention to facts (*M* = 2.39, *SD* = 0.85) and sub-language (*M* = 2.33, *SD* = 0.84) when revising draft translations. These findings, particularly the revision focuses that the participants gave more weight on, can be substantiated by the qualitative data obtained from interviews and learning journals, as described below.

Table 2

Focuses of Revision

Item	*Mean*	*SD*	Not at all	A little	Somewhat	A lot
1. Accuracy	3.44	0.70	0	2 (11%)	6 (33%)	10 (56%)
2. Completeness	2.67	0.91	1 (6%)	8 (44%)	5 (28%)	4 (22%)
3. Logic	3.06	1.00	2 (11%)	2 (11%)	7 (39%)	7 (39%)
4. Facts	2.39	0.85	1 (6%)	12 (67%)	2 (11%)	3 (17%)
5. Smoothness	3.17	0.86	1 (6%)	2 (11%)	8 (44%)	7 (39%)
6. Tailoring	3.28	0.57	0	1 (6%)	11 (61%)	6 (33%)
7. Sub-language	2.33	0.84	3 (17%)	7 (39%)	7 (39%)	1 (6%)
8. Idiom	2.94	0.73	0	5 (28%)	9 (50%)	4 (22%)
9. Mechanics	3.17	0.86	0	5 (28%)	5 (28%)	8 (44%)

Note. Percentages may not add up to 100% due to rounding.

First, students' tendency to pay attention to the accuracy issue can be evidenced in the interviewees' accounts. For example, S3 reported that accuracy was a problem he felt he had to keep in mind constantly because he tended to overinterpret and stretch the meaning of some words and expressions of the source text. Similarly, S2 emphasized that to her, accuracy was the most important among all these different aspects of revision.

Their emphasis on tailoring, whether the language is suited to the users of the translation, was manifested in two students' reflections in the final journal entry: "The most important thing [I learned in this course] was when I was translating, I kept reminding myself of the target readers. Are they foreigners or are they Chinese? I would revise my language to suit the target readership [my translation from Chinese]" (Journal #11, S6). And "[T]o think of your target readers is the most central thing I have learned in the class. If the readers are not familiar with the context, to add the information in order to help the readers is essential" (Journal #11, S8).

Both interviews and learning journals suggested that these students were mindful of the smoothness issue when revising. In the interview, S3 argued that the criterion of smoothness was important because good translation should "read like works written by professional Chinese writers" and "give readers the impression that they were reading original works, instead of translated works." The analysis of the learning journals also revealed students' attempts to improve the flow between sentences and enhance the smoothness of the target text. This is reflected particularly well in the following description, where S10 reported her efforts to strengthen text cohesion through techniques such as insertion, division, and expansion:

> In this Chinese-English translation assignment, I inserted quite a few connectors to strengthen the connection between sentences and the logic of

> the text. Also, I divided sentences so that they would not become too lengthy. Moreover, I used the expansion procedure by adding nouns and enhancing sentence connections. But, after these procedures were applied, the number of words in my translation increased. This is the biggest concern I have about this assignment [my translation from Chinese]. (Journal #9, S10)

Finally, the interviewees argued that the mechanics aspect was "the most fundamental element of a text" (Interview, S2) and making mistakes in this aspect would "create a bad impression" (Interview, S3) and might be "unacceptable to the reader" (Interview, S2).

Scaffolding Activities

Table 3, which conflates points 1 and 2 (*strongly disagree* and *disagree*) and 4 and 5 (*agree* and *strongly agree*) on the scale, presents the findings on how students perceived the usefulness of various activities designed to provide input from three sources: peers, self, and teacher. Results suggested that input from peers was the most well-received. All the questionnaire respondents agreed that listening to group presentations contributed to the quality of their revision, while more than four-fifths of them (83%) found peer review useful.

Table 3

Student Perception of Scaffolding Activities

Item	*Mean*	*SD*	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Keeping a learning journal	3.56	1.04	2 (11%)	6 (33%)	10 (56%)
Listening to group presentations	4.78	0.43	0	0	18 (100%)
In-class peer review/discussion	4.39	0.78	0	3 (17%)	15 (83%)
Teacher feedback/input	4.17	0.86	1 (6%)	2 (11%)	15 (83%)

Teacher feedback was rated by 83% of the respondents as useful. As described earlier, the teacher deliberately kept short the feedback and refrained from giving direct correction until the students submitted revised translations. However, perhaps due to the expert status of the teacher (Nelson & Carson, 1998; Zhang, 1995), input from this source still earned favorable evaluation from a majority of the participants.

Finally, keeping a learning journal, deemed as a form of self-feedback, received the least appreciation from participants although there were still over half of them (56%) who indicated their positive attitudes towards the activity. Because this study is particularly interested in studying the effect of collaborative learning on students' perceptions of revision, students' attitudes towards group presentations and peer review are further explored using qualitative data from interviews and learning journals.

Analysis of the interviewees' accounts identified two possible reasons why listening to group presentations was favored the most among the four scaffolding activities. First, the students apparently had high trust in the works done by the presenting groups, believing that the presenters must have worked hard on the task (S1) and thoroughly "digested the text to be translated" (S3). In addition, these presentations were found to be beneficial in aiding the revision process because they "gave a comprehensive view of the translation task including how the ideas in the passage were sequenced, how a certain word was chosen, why expansion or omission strategies were used in the translation, etc." (Interview, S3).

Analysis of the learning journals also suggested that the students' revisions were often inspired by the presentations, whether they were previously aware of a problem in their drafts or not. Several instances in the journal entries showed that the students sometimes encountered translation problems when working on the draft. Bearing the difficulty in mind, when attending the presentation, they would closely observe how their peers tackled the problem, as exemplified by the following extract:

> Another difficulty I encountered [in my first draft] was the translation of the phrase “a questing literary figure.” I checked out the meaning of “questing” and got no further than equivalents like searching, exploring, or pursuing. I applied the meaning to translate the sentence, and it turned out to mean “searching for a literary figure.” It’s awkward and incomprehensible. However, the group did a wonderful job. They expanded the meaning of questing and interpreted it as “going on an adventure,” which apparently makes more sense [my translation from Chinese]. (Journal #6, S5)

As shown in the extract, S5 was acutely troubled by a translation problem when working on the draft and felt dissatisfied with her own solution even after expending much effort on it. Then at the presentation, she recognized that the presenting group had discovered a reasonable solution and gladly adopted the group’s translation in her revision.

In some other instances, the students reported how they noticed a different solution in the presenting group’s translation and recognized it as a better alternative. They were thus prompted to incorporate input from the presentation into their own revisions, as suggested in the following extract:

> I really think the group did a very good job. I learned a lot from them and adopted some of their translation in my revision. For example, I translated “hero” invariably to *yingxiong* 英雄 , but they varied between *wuxia renwu* 武俠人物 and *daxia* 大俠 , which were more befitting words to describe the character referred to. It never occurred to me to use those words. They also chose a wonderful word to translate “soldier” in the first sentence. So, in this revision, I adopted a number of their words to replace mine [my translation from Chinese]. (Journal #6, S14)

Furthermore, the students referred to input from group presentations not only when they explained the reasons for their revisions (as shown in the above two extracts), but also when they justified their decision of not revising. In the following extract, S8 justified a decision to retain her own translation after she was made aware of a difference between her own and the presenting group's translations:

> In my A5, I added the extra explanation of *Humanities and Social Sciences Newsletter Quarterly.* In the beginning, I could not decide whether using [the expansion procedure] here was adequate. However, I still decided to remain it after the presentation of group 5 because I thought most of readers hadn't heard of this journal before. It is important to think of the target readers and provide them with the information which helps them realize better. (Journal #10, S8)

The other form of peer collaboration, peer review, also received favorable views from the students. In particular, S3 noted in the interview that peer review provided personalized feedback, and he particularly appreciated his review partner reading his draft and telling him directly, "hey, I don't understand what this means here" (Interview, S3). S1 made a similar observation and said, "peer review allows the opportunity for more detailed discussion. Also, I can ask my review partner questions not covered in the group presentation" (Interview, S1).

An additional source of input not captured in the questionnaire but brought up by the interviewees was the group presentation that they were directly involved in. The interviewees reported that although they were required to give presentations in groups only once during the semester, they found the experience hugely beneficial for their revision. In preparing for presentations, they spent an enormous amount of time comparing group members' translations and discussing problems and solutions, as recalled by one of the interviewees: "After putting together all our translations, we realized that they were all different. Even the title was translated differently. So we discussed the translation sentence by sentence, each member explaining their reasons and justifying their translation" (Interview, S1). The same interviewee claimed further that such active and intense discussion engaged her even more than attending other groups' presentations. At the same time, it presented a valuable learning opportunity where she developed abilities to evaluate different renditions of the same text and identify errors that needed to be fixed.

Attitudes Towards Translation Revision

Finally, the questionnaire sought to determine students' attitudes towards revision in translation. As shown in Table 4, which also conflates points 1 and 2 (*strongly disagree* and *disagree*) and 4 and 5 (*agree* and *strongly agree*) on the scale, students strongly believed in the positive role of revision in the improvement of translation quality. They also tended to think that revision was a worthwhile effort and more revision would lead to better quality.

Table 4

Attitudes Towards Translation Revision

Item	*Mean*	*SD*	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Revision improved the quality of my translation.	4.72	0.46	0	0	18 (100%)
Revision in translation is a waste of time.	1.39	0.61	17 (95%)	1 (6%)	0
The more times I revise, the better translation I will produce.	3.94	0.80	1 (6%)	3 (17%)	14 (78%)

In contrast to the overall positive attitudes found in the questionnaire responses, however, one interviewee, S2, was rather reserved about the relationship between revision and quality improvement. She gave an example from her final assignment. In the revised draft, she changed her translation of a passage from the passive to the active voice, believing that using the active voice and highlighting the agents of the actions would be better writing. However, she received feedback from the teacher suggesting that the actions, instead of the agents, appeared to be the focus of the passage and therefore the passive voice should be a more effective choice to translate the particular sentence. She commented ruefully, "This proves that revision does not necessarily result in improved translation" (Interview, S2).

Another interesting finding from the interview data analysis was that to some students preparing a revised translation may present a more demanding task than working on the first draft. This perception was exemplified by S3's narrative in which he compared his attitudes towards draft translations and revisions. When working on the first draft, S3 commented, he felt free and unrestrained because he was able to experiment with various translation strategies without worrying much about making mistakes. In contrast:

> working on a revised version could be a painful process. You need to spend lots of time to—. A revised version cannot look as if it were produced by uneducated people or novice translators. So, it takes time. Also, you have to consider the information given in group presentations, consider the input provided by your peer, consider your own ideas and your own interpretation. (Interview, S3)

The student's account suggested that the self-revision task, together with the input provided in multiple ways, can help heighten learners' expectations of quality in their translation and raise awareness of the important role of revision in enhancing translation quality.

Discussion

This study examined translation students' revision practice and attitudes and contributes to our understanding of how students approach revision and how they perceive its role in the quality check of a translation product. Regarding students' revision practice, it is interesting to note that their preferred focuses of revision corresponded broadly to those revealed in studies of professional translators. For example, the students in this study reported paying much attention to accuracy and smoothness; similarly, professional translators in Shih's (2006) study referred to accuracy and fluency (deemed comparable to smoothness in the model of revision parameters proposed in Mossop, 2010) when asked to name problems they checked for during revision. Furthermore, a majority of the students in this study gave a little or no attention to the facts parameter, which is a content-related problem type, while Rasmussen and Schjoldager (2011) specially noted that content-related problems were not included in the revision checklist used by a Danish translation agency in their study, suggesting that the content parameter may receive little attention in the agency's revision work. These findings indicate that both novice and professional translators are likely to place more emphasis on transfer and linguistic errors than on content-related problems when revising other people's or their own translations. However, it should be noted that in the case of translation students, the content parameter may be even more easily overlooked for two reasons. First, because of their relative lack of experience and proficiency, students may tend to focus on decoding the source text at the level of words, phrases, and sentences, thereby spending less time and energy for content editing, i.e., "checking and correcting a text for its ideas" (Mossop, 2010, p. 80). Second, students may be inclined to believe that the source text, usually provided by the instructor, should contain no errors and therefore need no checking for factual, logical, or mathematical errors.

As to the activities designed and implemented to scaffold students' revision process, the analysis suggested that students strongly favored activities that involved peer collaboration such as peer review and group work. This finding is consistent with that of previous research on the use of peer review and group work in the translation classroom (Chien, 2015; Romney, 1997; Tsai, 2020; Wang & Han, 2013; Yeh, 2011). In particular, the finding corroborates that of Tsai (2020), a recent study that also adopted activities such as group presentations and peer review to facilitate students' revision process. Participants in the current research and Tsai (2020) expressed similarly favorable opinions including learning from their peers and appreciating the presentations given by their peers. Furthermore, students' preference for giving group presentations may also be explained in light of collaborative learning theories discussed above. It is possible that the interaction and discussion in the process of preparing for the presentation provide not only comprehensible input but also ample opportunities for meaning negotiation and knowledge construction (Long, 1983, 1985). Furthermore, in order to produce a joint presentation where the group members have to explain and justify their translation decisions to peer audience, students are inclined to help and learn from each other in order to reach a mutual goal. Such collective scaffolding (Donato, 1994) may thus render the activity both meaningful and enjoyable.

In terms of general attitudes, although questionnaire results indicated a clear recognition of the role of revision in enhancing translation quality, interview accounts revealed that the students were not oblivious to its potential negative outcomes. As observed by Künzli (2007), "quality takes time" (p. 121), but the amount of time spent on revision does not always correlate positively with quality in revision. Chodkiewicz's (2018) study on translation students' revision found that roughly a third of changes made in response to teacher marking were unsuccessful. Professional revisers were also found to make unnecessary revision (i.e., revision that does not affect the quality of revision) or even introduce new errors (Arthern, 1983, 1987; Künzli, 2007) and deteriorate the quality of the original translation.

Conclusion

Using data collected from a questionnaire, interviews, and learning journals, this study examined how students approach and perceive revision in translation. Certain limitations of the study should be acknowledged. They include a relatively small sample in a particular context and a reliance on participants' self-reports. Another limitation is that the study did not examine whether students encountered varying degrees of difficulty in addressing the investigated error types or whether students' translation competence affected the quality of the revision. It also did not consider the impact of directionality (i.e., from English into Chinese vs. from Chinese into English) on students' perception and prioritized revision focuses. These limitations should be addressed in future research in order to advance our understanding of translation pedagogy.

Despite the limitations, the study sheds light on how translation students perceive revision and the provision of scaffolding in the revision process. Several pedagogical implications can be drawn from this study. First, not only revision but also scaffolding activities providing input from multiple sources, should be integrated into the translation learning process. The combination of these pedagogical activities can push students to invest more time and effort in improving their translation output as well as cultivate a stronger sense of responsibility towards the quality of the translation.

Second, given students' preference for group work, collaborative learning activities should be incorporated into the learning process so as to engage students and provide opportunities for mutual scaffolding. In addition to collaborative activities described in this study, collaborative revision and project-based group work can also be implemented to boost the effect of translation training (Lai, 2002; Scocchera, 2020; Yeh, 2011).

Third, dedicated workshops can be held at different stages of revision learning. For example, prior to the first revision assignment, a workshop can be given to familiarize students with various revision approaches such as unilingual reading and comparative checking. Students can also be introduced to Mossop's (2010) revision parameters, which they may use to monitor translation output. After students gain some experience in revision, a workshop enabling students to share and compare their revision strategies can be set up to facilitate their learning from peers. Such a systematic introduction of revision knowledge and skills can be expected to contribute to the improvement of translation competence and outcome.

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Appendix

Questionnaire on Revision Behavior and Perceptions

Part A. Basic Information

1. What is your gender? ☐ Male ☐ Female
2. Is this your first translation course?

   ☐ Yes

   ☐ No. Please give the what, when, and where of the prior translation courses:

   ____
3. Before taking this course, did you have experience in professional translation (paid translation work)?

   ☐ Yes. Please give information: ______________________________

   ☐ No.
4. How do you rate your English reading ability, as compared with students in this class?

   ☐ Very good ☐ Fairly good ☐ Poor ☐ Very poor
5. How do you rate your English writing ability, as compared with students in this class?

   ☐ Very good ☐ Fairly good ☐ Poor ☐ Very poor

Part B. Focus of Revision

When revising your translation, how much attention did you give to the following problems/errors?

Item	Not at all	A little	Somewhat	A lot
1. **Accuracy:** Does the translation reflect the message of the source text?				
2. **Completeness:** Have any elements of the message been left out?				
3. **Logic:** Does the sequence of ideas make sense? Is there any nonsense or contradiction?				
4. **Facts:** Are there any factual, conceptual or mathematical errors?				
5. **Smoothness:** Does the wording flow? Are the connections between sentences clear? Are the relationships among the parts of each sentence clear? Are there any awkward, hard-to-read sentences?				
6. **Tailoring:** Is the language suited to the users of the translation and the use they will make of it?				
7. **Sub-language:** Is the style suited to the genre? Has correct terminology been used?				
8. **Idiom:** Are all the word combinations idiomatic?				
9. **Mechanics:** Have the rules of grammar, spelling, punctuation and correct usage been observed?				

Additional comments about problems/errors you checked for in revision:

____

____

____

____

Part C. Useful Activities and General Perceptions

Please indicate (✓) whether you agree or disagree with the following statements.

Item	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1. Keeping a learning journal contributes to my revision.					
2. Listening to group presentations on assignments contributes to my revision.					
3. In-class peer review/discussion contributes to my revision.					
4. Teacher feedback/input contributes to my revision.					
5. Revision improved the quality of my translation.					
6. Revision in translation is a waste of time.					
7. The more times I revise, the better translation I will produce.					

Additional comments about the revision assignments in the course:

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____

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Re-Looking Into Machine Translation Errors and Post-Editing Strategies in a Changing High-Tech Context

Chung-ling Shih

This article re-looks into machine translation (MT) errors and proposes a function-oriented MT post-editing (MTPE) typology in a new technological context. Driven by the technological advances of the neural machine translation (NMT) system over the past several years, the author thinks that we should re-examine MT errors created by NMT systems, and understand whether the NMT system can resolve the issues the rule-based MT (RBMT) and statistical MT (SMT) systems have encountered. A mixed-methods approach is used to complete this study, and technical texts, journalistic texts and web-based company texts are chosen as analytical materials. The three-phased procedure consists of (1) cross-checking the differences between source texts (STs), MT outputs and corresponding human translations (HTs) to identify MT errors, (2) proposing a three-tier MTPE typology to supplement the current binary MTPE typology and (3) exploring empirical and theoretical implications of this research. The findings differ from previous MTPE studies in three aspects: (1) amending linguistic, pragmatic and affective MT errors with the strategies of "accurate-enough editing," "clear-enough editing" and "attractive-enough editing," not the strategies of light editing and full editing; (2) replacing the existing editor-driven MTPE typology with a function-driven MTPE typology; and (3) using a progressive, flexible MTPE typology to meet the textual functions of different types of MT texts. Overall, this article re-examines MT errors and MTPE strategies, and raises an alternative MTPE typology from the perspective of textual functions in the framework of the NMT scenario. It expects to add some novel insights to contemporary MT studies.

Keywords: MT errors, MT post-editing (MTPE) strategies, a cross-checking method, a three-tier MTPE typology, textual functions

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高科技變動情境下的再出發——重新審視機器翻譯錯誤和後編輯策略

史宗玲

本論文重新審視新型神經機器翻譯系統產生的翻譯錯誤，並提出功能導向的機譯後編輯類型學。由於近幾年來神經機器翻譯系統的技術大幅進步，作者認為有必要重新檢視神經機譯系統產生的翻譯錯誤類型，以了解是否有所突破與改進。本論文採用混成研究方法，並選擇技術文本、新聞文本及公司網頁為分析樣本。研究過程包含：（1）交叉分析比對原文、機器翻譯及人工譯文之差異，以辨識及歸納神經機譯錯誤類型；（2）提出「三層級的機譯後編輯類型學」，以補充目前二元對立局部與全部機譯後編輯類型學；（3）探討本研究在實證及理論層面所透露的意涵。最終分析結果證實本研究與過去機譯後編研究有三處差異：（1）本論文採用足夠正確、足夠清晰、足夠吸引的三層級機譯後編輯策略，來修正語言、語用及情感的機器翻譯錯誤；（2）本論文提出功能導向的機譯後編輯類型學，不是依照編輯的程度而定；（3）建議採用彈性、漸進式後編輯，俾各種文類的機器翻譯可達成不同的文本功能。簡言之，本研究在神經機譯科技的框架下，從文本功能視角來探究機譯的錯誤類型、後編輯策略，並提出三層級功能導向的機譯後編輯類型學，期能為當代翻譯研究提供一些嶄新的洞見。

關鍵詞：機器翻譯錯誤、機器翻譯後編輯策略、交叉分析方法、三層級後編輯類型學、文本功能

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Introduction

Driven by the technological advances of the neural machine translation (NMT) system[1] over the past several years, web audiences have increasingly used online machine translation (MT) systems and web-based MT Apps to help reduce cross-border and inter-lingual communication barriers. This promising hope and optimistic wish is, however, damaged after the unsatisfying quality of MT outputs is shortly found. MT errors remain discovered, varying with different text types and different language pairs. However, according to the diagram of multi-lingual translations in an online report (TechOrange, 2016), Google NMT's English (En)-Chinese (Ch) translation quality has improved about 58% and English-Spanish translation quality has improved about 87% when compared to Google's phrase-based MT (PBMT).[2] In a joint study, Brussel et al. (2018) investigated some English-Dutch MT errors, including mistranslation, omissions, untranslated words, addition, omission and mechanical errors. Their findings showed that rule-based MT (RBMT)[3] produced 1,309 errors; Google's PBMT, 741 errors, and Google's NMT, 472 errors. Thus, NMT performs better than RBMT and PBMT.

The above information triggered the author's curiosity, so she conducted a small-scale research by comparing the MT outputs produced by RBMT, statistical

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1 The online NMT systems have improved their translation quality over time using the techniques of artificial intelligence.

2 The PBMT system finds the matched phrases of the highest probability from the corpus that saves millions of bilingual phrase-pairs (Cheng, 2008). The statistical MT (SMT) system finds the match of the segments of the highest probability from bilingual translation corpuses and combines the extracted target-language fragments into a translation sentence (Cheng, 2008).

3 The RBMT system builds a parallel corpus of dictionary and grammatical rules to generate translations. Later, knowledge of neither grammar nor syntax is required, and statistical techniques to measure the highest probabilities for target language (TL) strings or phrases are used to develop the SMT system (Koehn, 2009; Stix, 2006).

MT (SMT) and NMT systems. One English sentence, "We welcome the new year with a renewed spirit and enthusiasm," was translated by the RBMT system (TransWhiz) as "*Women huanying xin de yi nian yi xin de jingshen he reqing* 我們歡迎新的一年以新的精神和熱情" (Shih, 2006, p. 112). The MT error is the use of incorrect word order. In Luo's (2014) article, "The AFS ECU receives signals indicating the height of the vehicle from the rear height control sensor" was translated by the SMT system (*Huajian* 華建) as "*AFS ECU shoudao xinhao cong hou gaodu kongzhi ganceqi zhuming cheliang de gaodu* AFS ECU 收到信號從後高度控制感測器注明車輛的高度" (p. 116). The error of incorrect word order remained detected in the SMT output. However, when the two sentences were translated using Google's NMT system, their automated translations were correct: "*Women yi xin de jingshen he reqing huanying xin de yinian* 我們以新的精神和熱情歡迎新的一年" and "*AFS ECU cong hou gaodu kongzhi chuanganqi jieshou zhishi cheliang gaodu de xinhao* AFS ECU 從後高度控制傳感器接收指示車輛高度的信號." The above comparison illustrates that the NMT output has improved much in the aspect of word order, but other linguistic aspects need to be explored. The above two sentences are short, so it remains a question whether long sentences can be handled accurately by the NMT system. The author also wonders if the NMT system can resolve some issues that cannot be resolved by RBMT and SMT systems. To find answers to above questions, the author conducted the present research and investigated NMT errors through the analysis of the En-Ch and Ch-En MT outputs of technical, instructional, journalistic and web-based company texts. Some MT post-editing (MTPE) strategies are also proposed to amend the NMT errors.

Much literature has been devoted to MT errors. It mainly features: (a) analysis of the machine-produced translations from English into other Indo-European or Romance languages, not En-into/from-Ch MT outputs, (b) use of MT outputs produced by RBMT or SMT systems, not by the NMT system, and (c) analysis of MT samples of technical and informative texts, not non-technical, evocative and hybrid types of texts. Depraetere's (2010) MT study used English-to-French MT texts; Belam's (2003) MT study used German-to-English MT texts. Regarding the MT systems used to handle En-Ch translations, Shih's (2006) MT examples were produced by TransWhiz, an RBMT system, developed by OTek company in Taiwan. Luo's (2014) MT examples were produced by an SMT system, developed by Huajian company in China. As to the text types of En-Ch translations, Yang's (2018) study used user's manuals for 3C devices; Zhang and Zhang (2018) used a book of biological science; Shih (2006) used product instructions and user's manuals. All the analytical MT errors were collected from a single type of MT texts produced by RBMT or SMT systems.

On the other hand, much attention has been dedicated to MTPE study. MTPE strategies are discussed in a binary form—light editing and full editing (Flanagan & Christensen, 2014; Massardo et al., 2016). Much-discussed literature puts its focus on the editor's effort to achieve the binary function of translation products—to publish or not to publish. The binary typology revolves around two MTPE types: light editing for inbound translation and heavy editing for outbound translation. However, MT accuracy produced by the NMT system has improved and the NMT system can be used to handle the translations of non-technical texts, such as journalistic texts and company web texts, so we may start to explore the variation in MTPE strategies across text types in terms of different textual functions. We can explore how MTPE strategies are used to achieve the textual functions of different types of MT texts.

Moving towards a new direction, this research analyzes En-into/from-Ch MT errors that are produced by Google NMT (GNMT) system. It also explores to what extent Ch-En GNMT errors differentiate from En-Ch GNMT errors across different types of texts. The author also proposed a host of MTPE strategies and remodeled the existing binary MTPE typology using a more flexible model to meet desirable purposes of different types of MT texts. Thus, this research unfolds on three thematic routes: re-identifying MT errors produced by the GNMT system and proposing corresponding MTPE strategies, remodeling the current MTPE typology, and exploring empirical and academic significance of this research.

To guide the investigation, three research questions are raised:

1. What are common MT errors produced by the GNMT system and what MTPE strategies can be used to amend the errors?
2. How can the existent MTPE typology be modified from the perspective of textual functions?
3. What are practical and theoretical implications of this research?

Analyzing En-Ch MT outputs of various text types produced by Google Translate allows us to identify whether MT errors produced by the NMT system are different from those found in RBMT or SMT outputs and understand whether the NMT system can resolve the issues SMT and RBMT systems have encountered. Re-looking into MT errors and re-modeling MTPE typology aims to relax the binarism of the existing MTPE typology and invests it with more flexible and progressive features.

Literature Review

Since this research addresses MT errors and MTPE strategies, some relevant literature will be reviewed. Notably, some articles on MTPE deal with the benefits of translation productivity and efficiency (Arenas, 2009; Carl et al., 2011; Koehn, 2012; Zhechev, 2012), but this research focuses on the literature addressing MTPE types and strategies (Belam, 2003; Depraetere, 2010; Doherty & Gaspari, 2013). More details are provided as follows.

MT Errors

In Kliffer's (2008) survey, the criteria for analyzing MT errors include: (a) agreement (e.g., incorrect morphological concord between subject and verb), (b) anaphora (e.g., lack of object pronoun), (c) article (e.g., use of definite article when not necessary), (d) literal (word-for-word translation), (e) mistranslation (e.g., carless translation), (f) omission (e.g., missing content words/noun, verb, adjective, adverb), (g) preposition (e.g., incorrect or missing preposition), (h) punctuation (e.g., lack of a comma), (i) spelling (a typo error), (j) structure (syntactic errors), (k) tense (incorrect verb tense or mood), (l) word choice (e.g., error in polysemy or homonymy), and (m) words order (e.g., failure to invert subject and communication verb). The findings show that ambiguous and synonymous words are most common English-French MT errors produced by the Power Translator Pro (PTP) system. Niño's (2008) study probes four domains of MT errors: vocabulary, grammar, discourse and spelling. He provides a number of assessment items for each domain. For example, vocabulary errors include "mistranslated proper noun, different meanings, nonsense, wrong sense, false friend, collocation/idiom, words not interchangeable in context, and incorrect cultural equivalent" (p. 48).

Luo (2014) analyzes En-Ch MT errors, covering noun phrases, verb phrases, prepositional phrases, infinitive phrases, and participle phrases. Her findings show that MT error of prepositional phrases account for the highest percentage (13.3%) with noun phrase (6.95%) as the second highest, and infinitive phrase (1.45%) as the lowest. In her study of En-Ch MT errors, Shih (2006) analyzes MT outputs of technical texts and has identified some common MT errors in the lexical-semantic aspect: (a) mistranslated homonyms (multi-meaning words; e.g., the word "charge") and homographs (words whose spellings are the same but whose pronunciations and meanings are different; e.g., the word "live"), (b) mistranslated subject-specific lexical items, (c) mistranslated proper nouns (e.g., the names of companies), (d) mistranslated idioms, metaphors and colloquial expressions. In the syntactic/grammatical aspect, Shih (2006) also identifies some frequently occurring MT errors, including (a) mistranslated long compound nouns, noun groups or compound subjects (e.g., "Use of controls, adjustments and performance of procedures other than specified herein"), (b) mistranslated "that"/"which"-led relative clauses, (c) incorrect word order resulting from mistranslation of prepositional phrases, (d) mistranslated passive voices, (e) mistranslated articles, (f) mistranslated past participles, (g) mistranslated infinitive-led phrases, (h) mistranslated negative auxiliaries and (i) mistranslated verb phrases.

In their error analysis of English-Spanish and En-Ch MTs of the source texts (STs) collected from European Parliament Sessions corpora and broadcast news corpora, Vilar et al. (2006) find that common MT errors included missing words, incorrect word order, incorrect-meaning words, unknown words, and incorrect punctuation marks. The preceding error analyses use the MT outputs of technical texts produced by the RBMT systems or/and SMT systems. In a different manner, this research reinvestigates MT errors using the MT outputs of technical, journalistic and web-based company texts produced by the GNMT system.

Literature on MTPE Strategies

MT errors need to be fixed following some MTPE guidelines or/and using appropriate MTPE strategies. Before we review some articles that address MTPE strategies, we can look at how MTPE is defined. According to Melby (1987), MTPE means "the process of revising a translation after the draft translation has been completed" (p. 146). It is also defined as "the adaptation and revision of a machine translation either to eliminate errors which impede comprehension or to make the output like a natural language" (Sager, 1994, p. 327). For some scholars

(Allen, 2003; Veale & Way, 1997), MTPE refers to human linguist/editor's correction of MT or the use of minimal labor to improve MT process (Translation Automation User Society [TAUS], 2010).

Our primary concern with MTPE strategies can be a set of guidelines developed by the TAUS in collaboration with the Centre for Global Intelligent Content (CNGL). Their guidelines for creating good-quality post-editing include the use of semantically correct translation, no need of omitting or adding some information, use of culturally acceptable content, correct spelling, no need to deal with stylistic problems, and no need to restructure sentences for natural flow (TAUS, 2016). When the post-edited output expects to be like human translation, the guidelines involve the use of semantically, syntactically and grammatically correct translations, correct punctuation, correct key terminology, addition or omission of any information, use of culturally acceptable content, correct formatting and a fine style (TAUS, 2016). Loffler-Laurian divides MTPE into fast and conventional types. Fast MTPE requires quick correction of basic MT errors, but conventional MTPE offers slower turnaround with elaborate correction or fine-tuning (Loffler-Laurian, 1994, as cited in Doherty & Gaspari, 2013). Fast MTPE is often used for audiences to get main ideas of the translation, but conventional MTPE is used to publish the translation. Svěrák (2014) claims that the above classification fails to cover all possible MTPE types, so he proposes no MTPE for inbound translation (for personal reference), and uses minimal and full MTPE for outbound translation (for public release and publication).

As aforementioned, many articles address light and full MTPE. The article published by United Language Group (Shofner, 2021) indicates that light MTPE needs to be good enough in accordance with its intended purposes of information scanning or getting the gist of the text (TAUS, 2016). In contrast, full MTPE must be error-free with the human-translation quality (TAUS, 2016). The fully-edited translation also needs to notice consistency in style and terminology (Shofner, 2021). In Depalma's (2013) report, the Common Sense Advisory Inc. has proposed light and full MTPE guidelines using the metrics of the Localization Industry Standards Association (LISA) quality assurance (QA) model. The principles for light MTPE include the amendment of mistranslations, lexical omission, lexical addition, and adherence to domain-specific terminology glossary, use of correct spelling, and terminological consistency. For full MTPE, in addition to meeting the above guidelines, accurate cross-references, correct headers and footers, accurate grammar, semantics, punctuation, spelling, and a register-specific good style need to be used. Furthermore, the post-edited text needs to be in compliance with country-wide wording standards, company standards, and local terms.

Densmer's MTPE guidelines are also divided into light and full types with the former emphasizing accurate facts, terminological consistency, correct grammar, correct semantics, rewriting of confusing sentences, and correction of other MT errors (such as machine-generated unnecessary or extra words) (Densmer, 2014, as cited in Hu & Cadwell, 2016), and the latter, focusing on accurate messages, terminological consistency, appropriate terminology, correct grammar, semantics, punctuation, spelling, modification of incorrect syntactic structure, correct formatting and correction of other MT errors (such as machine-generated unnecessary or extra words). This type of post-edited output assures human translation quality. Furthermore, in a joint study (Massardo et al., 2016), MTPE guidelines are similarly recommended for creating good-enough quality (i.e., light post-MT editing) and human translation quality (i.e., full post-MT editing). These guidelines are the same as those recommended by TAUS (2016).

The preceding literature shows that MTPE strategies recommended for professional translators generally follow the framework of binary division, comprising light MTPE and full MTPE. This division considers the editor's efforts and the degree of editing, but does not attend to the textual functions of different types of MT texts. In addition, existing research on MTPE strategies does not have a classification of mandatory and optional strategies based on their practice. To make up for the shortcomings, this research proposes a "function/audience-oriented MTPE typology" that presents a more flexible MTPE model in the function-driven direction.

Methodology

Collected Data and Development of a Small Parallel Corpus

This research develops one parallel En-to-Ch-translation corpus and one parallel Ch-to-En-translation corpuses to analyze, identify MT errors and infer corresponding MTPE strategies. Each parallel corpus comprises three sub-corpuses with one sub-corpus, containing 45 news reports, 45 web-based company texts and 45 technical texts, and the other two, containing the corresponding MTs (a total of 211,232 words) and corresponding human translations (HTs). The web-based journalistic texts are retrieved from the websites of *NOW News* (https://www.nownews.com/news), *Taipei Times* (https://www.taipeitimes.com/News/lang/archives), *Taiwan News* (https://www.ttv.com.tw/news), *Liberty Times Net* (https://news.ltn.com.tw/news/life/breakingnews), *FTV News* (https://www.ftvnews.com.tw/news) and others; company texts, from the websites of famous companies in Taiwan, including ASUS Company (https://www.asus.com/tw/About-ASUS-History), TSMC Company (https://investor.tsmc.com/chinese/fundamentals), H2O Hotel (http://www.h2ohotel.com.tw/en/about), Trend Micro Company (https://www.trendmicro.com/en_us/business.html), HTC company (https://www.htc.com/tw/about) and others. Technical texts cover a wider range of topics, such as iPhone's user manual, China airline's instructions and others. Notably, some Chinese news texts are pretty short and their average word count reaches 657. Most of technical, instructional texts and web company texts are longer with the average word count of 840. Thus, the total word counts of 45 journalistic texts and their MTs are lower than those of other two text types. Since this article only measures type/token ratios of MT errors, the size difference among various sets of data would not affect the results. All collected texts are randomly chosen, not targeting at the company web and journalist texts that contain many metaphors and cultural references. The time span for collecting the texts ranges from 2018 to 2021. One important point is that the ratios of MT errors would change when the contents of the collected texts of the same text-type have changed.

The scope of MT data for present analysis has been expanded when compared to the data used in Shih's (2006) study of Chinese MT errors. The data include MTs of texts translated not only from Chinese into English but also from English into Chinese. Furthermore, the data cover not only technical MT texts but also journalistic MT texts and web-based company MT texts. All these MT outputs are produced by online neural Google Translate from 2019 to 2020 because their semantic and grammatical accuracy is better than the MT outputs of online Baidu Translate.

It is difficult to cover all key words and specific grammatical types for inquiries using the concordance function supported by a translation memory tool. Thus, the author did not develop parallel translation memories using Trados or other translation memory tools. All data are saved in digital files using the Microsoft Word system and so it is convenient to cross-check STs, MTs and their corresponding HTs one sentence after another. This way of cross-checking is safer and will not overlook some MT errors though the process is time/energy-consuming. In the process of error analysis, the author worked together with her research assistants. Joint assessment through discussion and views exchange is expected to enhance the validity of evaluation.

Research Methods

A mixed-methods approach is adopted to conduct this investigation throughout three phases. In the initial phase, the author and her three research assistants cross-checked STs, MTs and HTs, and identified MT errors. The cross-checking used semantic, grammatical accuracy as basic-level criteria, target language conventions as middle-level criteria, and emotional touch as advanced-level criteria. If the MT does not meet any of the above criteria, it is identified as an MT error. The type/token ratio is measured to indicate variation of errors in Ch-En and En-Ch MT outputs across three types of texts. Type means the number of each type of MT error; token means the total word count of each MT text. The same word that is mistranslated by Google Translate is only calculated one time no matter how many times it is shown in the entire MT text. After the identification of MT errors, corresponding MTPE strategies are proposed to amend the errors.

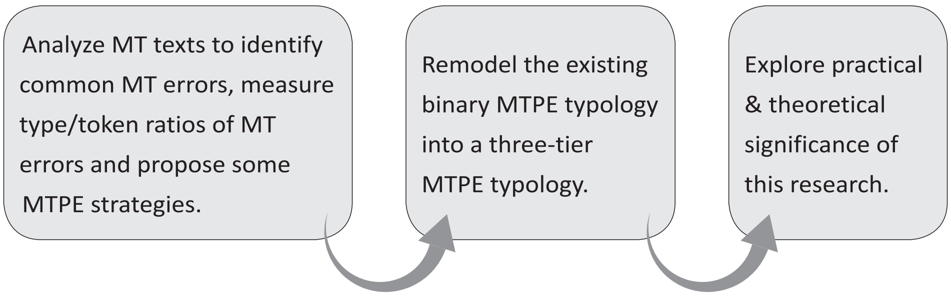
In the second phase, a new MTPE model is proposed to supplement the existing one from the perspective of textual functions of various types of MT texts. The textual functions of technical texts, journalistic texts and company texts are defined based on Reiss's (1971/2000) text typology theory. Reiss proposes the classification of texts into "informative texts which convey information, expressive texts which communicate thoughts in a creative way and operative texts which persuade" (Reiss, 1976, as cited in Hatim, 2001, p. 77). In addition, Reiss (1976) emphasizes that there is a hybrid text that combines the features of two or three text types. Defined from Reiss's (1976, 1971/2000) views, technical, instructional texts are informative texts that aim to inform users of the procedures of operating a device, performing a function, applying for subsidies and relevant others.

Journalistic texts and company texts belong to hybrid texts because they not only report news and introduce company products, but try to catch audiences' attention.

The third phase conducts a probe into the practical and theoretical implications of this research. Figure 1 shows how this research proceeds using the mixed-methods approach:

Figure 1

A Mixed-Methods Approach Adopted to Complete This Research



As demonstrated above, the present research proceeds from an empirical study of identifying NMT errors and proposing MTPE strategies to a theoretical study of exploring empirical and theoretical implications.

Findings and Discussions

This section reports the findings of common types of MT errors through the analysis of MT outputs of technical, instructional, journalistic and company web texts. Subsequent to it is a proposal of corresponding MTPE strategies to amend the NMT errors and the recommendation of an audience-oriented three-tier MTPT typology that serves as an add-on to the existing binary MTPE typology. Finally, the significant implications of this research are discussed.

Re-Identification of MT Errors and MTPE Strategies

Linguistic MT Errors and MTPE Strategies

In reply to RQ1, the findings of cross-checking STs, MTs and HTs show that there are three major types of MT errors produced by Google Translate: linguistic errors, pragmatic errors and affective errors. Notably, the NMT errors that are singled out in the present research are the common ones shown in both Ch-En and En-Ch NMT outputs. The errors of punctuations and quantifiers are not discussed because they are only seen in En-Ch NMT outputs, and orthographic and morphological errors are mostly found in Ch-En NMT outputs.

Linguistic errors mean the language-specific inaccurate translations, including the words without correct meanings, metaphorical expressions without accurate meanings, cultural references without accurate meanings, incorrect grammar and incorrect word order. The list of linguistic NMT errors in the present research are identical with Densmer's (2014) SMT errors of incorrect semantics, inaccurate facts, inaccurate cultural references, incorrect grammar, and incorrect word order. However, they do not include the mistranslations of infinitive, prepositional and noun phrases, as shown in Luo's (2014) study of En-Ch SMT errors. It is a breakthrough for the NMT system to be able to handle the translations of many noun phrases, infinitive-led phrases and prepositional phrases accurately. Additionally, the present research does not find the errors of mistranslated articles, mistranslated past participles, mistranslated infinitive-led phrases and incorrect "wh"/"that"-led phrases in En-Ch MT outputs, but these errors are found in the translations produced by the RBMT system (Shih, 2006). Thus, the NMT system outperforms the RBMT and SMT systems when dealing with the above linguistic features.

To amend the linguistic MT errors, the author proposes some MTPE strategies including: (a) use of words with correct meanings based on the context, (b) adaptation of metaphorical expressions, (c) adaptation of cultural references, (d) use of correct grammar, and (e) use of correct word order. The proposed MTPE strategies are partially identical with Densmer's (2014) full MTPE guidelines of the use of correct semantics, accurate facts, adaptation of all cultural references, correct grammar, and rewriting of confusing sentences with the correct word order. They are also identical with Shih's (2006) MTPE strategies of change of words, change of word order, and Depalma's (2013) MTPE strategies of amending mistranslations, accurate grammar, and accurate semantics. Thus, we know that the current NMT system still cannot translate all words accurately based on the context and produce the correct word order. Nor can it handle the translation of metaphorical and idiomatic expressions accurately without semantic and grammatical errors. Some issues RBMT and SMT systems cannot resolve are still found in the NMT outputs. To illustrate the linguistic MT errors and their MTPE strategies, some examples are provided as Table 1 shows.

Table 1

Examples of Linguistic MT Errors and MTPE

Error/MTPE	Source texts	MT errors	Post-editing
(1) Incorrect words/ (a) Use of accurate words	To find out which features are supported in your area, see	*Yao liaojie nin suozai diqu zhichi naxie gongneng, qing canyue* 要了解您所在地區支持哪些功能，請參閱 (lit: To know the functions supported in your area, please see)	*Ruoyao chakan nin de suozai diqu zhiyuan naxie gongneng, qing canyue* 若要查看您的所在地區支援哪些功能，請參閱 (lit: If you want to check out the functions achievable in your region, please see)

(continued)

Table 1

Examples of Linguistic MT Errors and MTPE (continued)

Error/MTPE	Source texts	MT errors	Post-editing
(2) Incorrect metaphorical expressions/ (b) Adaptation of metaphors	*Ge guo shanggu, zhengyao mingliu, duo ru guojiangzhiji*. 各國商賈、政要名流，多如過江之鯽。(lit: As much as the fish crossing the river.)	The merchants and political figures from all over the world, like the rivers and rivers.	Numerous merchants and political figures from all over the world.
(3) Incorrect cultural references/ (c) Adaptation of cultural references	*Xinbeishi Jiufen laojie jinqi chuxian "jibao" huamian, kan zai luyou renci "xuebeng" de Kending diqu yezhe yan li wuxian xixu*. 新北市九份老街近期出現「擠爆」畫面，看在旅遊人次「雪崩」的墾丁地區業者眼裡無限唏噓。(lit: Visitors flux into Jiufen old street of New Taipei city, but the number of visitor in Kenting drops like an avalanche. This contrast makes the tourism operators feel much distress.)	The recent "extrusion" scene in Jiufen Old Street, New Taipei City infinitely flawed in the eyes of the tourists in the Kenting area of the tourist avalanche.	The recent tourist "explosion" in Jiufen Old Street, New Taipei City, adds much sorrow to Kenting tourism operators who see the number of tourist visitors to Kenting is plummeting like an avalanche.
(4) Incorrect grammar/ (d) Use of correct grammar	*Dui nan Taiwan juyou buke momie de gongxian.* 對南臺灣具有不可抹滅的貢獻。(lit: For Southern Taiwan, there is indelible contribution.)	Have an indelible contribution to South Taiwan.	Have an indelible contribution to Southern Taiwan.
(5) Incorrect word order/ (e) Use of correct word order or correct syntactic structure	Elite benefits . . . earned after completing 25 eligible stays or 50 eligible nights in a calendar year.	*Zai wancheng 25 ge fuhe tiaojian de zhusu huo zai yi ge rilinian nei wancheng 50 ge fuhe tiaojian de zhusu hou.* 在完成 25 個符合條件的住宿或在一個日曆年內完成 50 個符合條件的住宿後。(lit: After completing 25 eligible stays or in one calendar year completing 50 eligible nights.)	*Zai yi ge rilinian nei wancheng 25 ge fuhe tiaojian de zhusu huo wancheng 50 ge fuhe tiaojian de zhusu hou.* 在一個日曆年內完成 25 個符合條件的住宿或完成 50 個符合條件的住宿後。(lit: In a calendar year, if you complete 25 eligible stays or 50 eligible nights.)

In Example (1), "support" has several meanings, and Google Translate mistranslates it as *zhichi* 支持 without considering the context. This MT error, *zhichi* 支持 (lit: give support), needs to be edited as *zhiyuan* 支援 (lit: back up) and so the meaning of MT can be accurate. Example (2) shows that the metaphorical expression, *duo ru guojiangzhiji* 多如過江之鯽 (lit: as much as the fish crossing the river) is literally mistranslated as "like rivers and rivers." This MT error needs to be edited as "numerous." Example (3) shows that the idiomatic expressions, *kan zai . . . yan li wuxian xixu* 看在……眼裡無限唏噓 (lit: feel upset when looking at . . .) is literally mistranslated by Google Translate as "infinitely flawed in the eyes." This mistranslated cultural reference needs to be edited as "feel helpless and upset." Example (4) shows a grammar error because *nan Taiwan* 南臺灣 should be translated as "Southern Taiwan," not "South Taiwan." In Example (5), *zai yi ge rilinian nei* 在一個日曆年內 (lit: in a calendar year) should be put at the beginning of the sentence, not in the middle of the sentence, so it is the MT error of incorrect word order.

All above examples suggest that despite an overall upgrade in the quality of the NMT outputs, some linguistic errors that are already found in SMT outputs cannot be resolved by the NMT system. Some MTPE strategies proposed for SMT or RBMT errors are needed to edit NMT outputs. Notably, Massardo (2019) claimed that SMT errors were different from NMT ones; the former were predictable and easy to spot but the latter, hard to identify because the fluency of NMT outputs veiled their accuracy. However, the author learned from her MT error analysis that En-Ch MT errors produced either by SMT or NMT systems were similarly easy to identify. Thus, the types of MT errors differ by language pair and content type.

Pragmatic MT Errors and MTPE Strategies

The second type is pragmatic MT errors. According to online Collins Dictionaries (n.d.), the word "pragmatic" means the way of dealing with something based on actual practice, not the theory. In this article, the pragmatic MT errors refer to the incorrect expressions or presentations that do not meet the real conditions or the real circumstances in which the target language is used.[4] In many cases, word-for-word literal translations produced by the NMT system result in redundant, mechanical and incomplete translations, which do not meet the normal way the target audiences use their native languages in daily communication although some of them do not hinder the audiences' understanding of the messages. The pragmatic NMT errors identified in the present research include the use of redundant, mechanical words, inconsistent specialized terms, incomplete sentences, some expressions that do not meet the pragmatic norms of the target language and professional terms that do not meet the terminological convention of the target language. These pragmatic errors are identical with Densmer's (2014) SMT errors of inappropriate terminology, extra words, confusing sentences and Depalma's (2013) SMT errors of redundant words, incomplete information, and incorrect domain-specific terminology that do not comply with local linguistic presentations. Thus, we know that the current NMT system still cannot resolve some pragmatic issues that cannot be resolved by the SMT system. However, SMT errors analyses

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[4] Halliday (1978), and Halliday and Hasan's (1985) register theory can be used to explain why it is important to identify pragmatic MT errors. According to Halliday (1978), and Halliday and Hasan (1985), speakers need to consider three variables—tenor (audience), field (subject matter) and mode (manner of presentation) for effective communication. All thematic messages must be appropriately presented by addressors to meet the way addresses expect to get the information. Only when the content of communication is contextually relevant to the audience's cognitive assumptions, can it be easily understood by the audience. Thus, when an automated translation produced by Google Translate cannot comply with the linguistic conventions of a certain genre used by target audiences in their real communication situations, it can be identified as a pragmatic error.

conducted by some Chinese scholars (Li & Zhu, 2013; Zhao & Liu, 2014) did not discuss the pragmatic errors. One major reason is that their samples are limited to technical texts, not including company web texts and journalistic texts.

To amend the pragmatic errors, some MTPE strategies are recommended, including (f) elimination of redundant, mechanical and repetitive words, (g) use of consistent words, (h) supplementation of additional words or information, (i) rewriting or paraphrasing of the entire clause or sentence, and (j) use of well-established, register-specific terms of the target language. The recommended MTPE strategies are identical with Densmer's (2014) MTPE guidelines of terminological consistency, correction of machine-generated unnecessary or extra words, and rewriting of confusing sentences. The strategies are also similar to Depalma's (2013) MTPE strategies of lexical omission and lexical addition, and Shih's (2006) MTPE strategies of adding words, "restoring implicit information" and using "pragmatically-appropriate phrases" (pp. 121, 125). Table 2 shows some examples of pragmatic MT errors and their MTPE strategies.

Table 2

Examples of Pragmatic MT Errors and MTPE

Errors/MTPE	Source texts	MT errors	Post-editing
(6) Redundant words/ (f) Elimination of redundant words	*Women* $\boxed{\textit{buduan di}}$ *tansuo weizhi de fanchou,* $\boxed{\textit{chixu}}$ *tupo xianzhi.* 我們 $\boxed{\text{不斷地}}$ 探索未知的範疇，$\boxed{\text{持續}}$ 突破限制。 (lit: We continue exploring the unknown areas, and continuously make some breakthroughs.)	We $\boxed{\text{continue}}$ to explore the unknown, $\boxed{\text{continue}}$ to break through the limits.	We $\boxed{\text{continue}}$ to explore the unknown, break through the limits.

(continued)

Table 2

Examples of Pragmatic MT Errors and MTPE (continued)

Errors/MTPE	Source texts	MT errors	Post-editing
(7) Lexical inconsistency/ (g) Use of consistent words	Otherwise, the buttons control the volume for the ringer, alerts, and other sound effects. Lock the ringer and alert volumes.	*Fouze, anniu jiang kongzhi lingsheng, jingbao he qita yinxiao de yinliang. Suoding lingsheng he tixing yinliang.* 否則，按鈕將控制鈴聲，警報和其他音效的音量。鎖定鈴聲和提醒音量。(lit: Otherwise, buttons will control the volume of the ringer, alert and other sounds. Lock the ringer and the alert volume.)	*Fouze, anniu hui kongzhi lingsheng, tishisheng he qita yinxiao de yinliang. Suoding lingsheng he tishisheng yinliang.* 否則，按鈕會控制鈴聲、提示聲和其他音效的音量。鎖定鈴聲和提示聲音量。(lit: Otherwise, the buttons controls the volume for the ringer, alert and other sound effects. Lock the ringer and alert volumes.)
(8) Incomplete sentences/ (h) Adding words or information	From weddings to meetings to family reunions.	*Cong hunli dao huiyi zai dao jiating juhui.* 從婚禮到會議再到家庭聚會。(lit: From weddings through meetings to family reunions.)	*Bulun shi hunli, huiyi naizhiyu jiating juhui jie shiyong*. 不論是婚禮、會議乃至於家庭聚會皆適用。(lit: We meet your demands from weddings, meetings to family gatherings.)
(9) Expressions without meeting the pragmatic norms of target language/ (i) Rewriting or paraphrasing	If a standard room is available, it's yours.	*Ruguo you biaozhun fangjian, na shi ni de*. 如果有標準房間，那是你的。(lit: If there is any standard room, that is yours.)	*Ruo you biaozhun kefang, women jiu hui wei nin baoliu*. 若有標準客房，我們就會為您保留。(lit: If there is any standard room, we will reserve it for you.)
(10) Professional terms without meeting the linguistic convention of the target language/ (j) Use of well-established, register-specific terms of the target language	Please request the agency to affix the stamp on this warranty card.	*Qing yaoqiu dailishang zai ci baoxiuka shang gaizhang.* 請要求代理商在此保修卡上蓋章。(lit: Please ask the agent to put their stamp on the maintenance -repair card.)	*Qing yaoqiu jingxiaoshang zai ben baoguka gaizhang.* 請要求經銷商在本保固卡蓋章。(lit: Please ask the agent to put their stamp on the warranty card.)

Example (6) shows that "continue" is used two times in the English MT output. The correct English writing will not use that way of presentation, so the second "continue" can be omitted. In Example (7), the first "alert" is rendered as *jingbao* 警報 (lit: an alarming call) and the second "alert" as *tixing* 提醒 (lit: reminding). This terminological inconsistency might cause audiences to be disoriented and view both "alerts" as two different things. The translation of the same professional terms should be kept consistent through the entire MT output. In Example (8), the Chinese MT output, *cong hunli dao huiyi zai dao jiating juhui* 從婚禮到會議再到家庭聚會 (lit: from wedding through meeting to family gathering), cannot communicate the message clearly. The words *jie shiyong* 皆適用 (lit: fit all) should be added to make the revised MT sentence communicate clearer meanings. In Example (9), "it's yours" is literally rendered as *na shi ni de* 那是你的 (lit: that's yours) without conveying a clear message. This error can be edited as *women jiu hui wei nin baoliu* 我們就會為您保留 (lit: we will reserve it for you). Example (10) shows that "warranty card" is translated as *baoxiuka* 保修卡 (lit: the maintenance-repair card). Native speakers in mainland China are familiar with the professional term, but many Taiwanese are not. Since the automated translation does not meet the register-specific norms in Taiwan, it is identified as a pragmatic MT error and needs to be edited as *baoguka* 保固卡 (lit: the warranty card). Many native Taiwanese audiences can understand the meaning of *baoguka* 保固卡 easily.

The above examples suggest that pragmatic MT errors occur because the GNMT system cannot automatically omit repeated words, and cannot keep terminological consistency. Nor can it add words to explicate the implicit meanings of messages and cannot adapt some segments or clauses to meet the pragmatic norms of the target language. It cannot also choose right expressions to meet the linguistic conventions of a specific discipline in the target language. These issues have been discovered in the SMT outputs (Densmer, 2014; Depalma, 2013) and RBMT outputs (Shih, 2006). The advanced NMT system still cannot find good solutions. One point worth notice is that Shih's (2006) En-to-Ch RBMT samples used short sentences, so she did not propose the MTPE strategies of paraphrasing entire segment/clause and using consistent professional terms.

Affective MT Errors and MTPE Strategies

Often overlooked but notable are affective MT errors. This type of MT errors happens due to the lack of an emotional appeal. We all know that incompetent human translators have the difficulty creating an emotional touch in their translations. The author's emphasis on this type of MT errors aims to remind post-MT editors that the challenging problem that SMT cannot resolve remains unresolved by the advanced NMT system, which cannot automatically use rhetorical devices to create the aesthetic effect. Nor can it rewrite or adapt the source sentence to help achieve the marketing function. This suggests that despite a huge improvement in its accuracy and fluency, NMT outputs cannot get rid of affective errors. What cannot be done by the NMT system can only be done by human editors. Thus, the author pointed out affective MT errors and proposed some MTPE strategies. She tried to attract people's attention that only humans could edit NMT outputs to achieve the marketing function. However, compared to linguistic and pragmatic MT errors, affective ones have higher error tolerance. The marketing effect of revised MT outputs can be downplayed when the customer does not ask about it.

To fix affective MT errors, we can use some MTPE strategies: (k) rewriting the sentence with a new thematic focus, and (l) using catchy description. Table 3 shows some examples of affective MT errors and MTPE strategies.

Table 3

Examples of Affective MT Errors and MTPE

Error/MTPE	Source texts	MT errors	Post-editing
(11) Lack of emotional appeal without using literary devices/ (k) Rewriting the sentence with a new thematic focus	*HTC yi gegu dingxin de lingdao zhi zi zi zhangshangxing diannao jinru zhihuixing shouji chanye*. HTC 以革故鼎新的領導之姿自掌上型電腦進入智慧型手機產業。(lit: HTC takes the position of a leader by moving into the industry of smart phones from handheld computers.)	HTC has entered the smart phone industry from handheld computers with a new leadership position.	We act as a reformative leader by using smart phones to replace handheld computers.
(12) Inadequate marketing function without sentential rewriting/ (l) Use of catchy descriptions	*Xianzai ze xun zhe tongyang de chuangxin moshi, jinru zhihui lianjie yu xuni shijing de lingyu*. 現在則循著同樣的創新模式，進入智慧連結與虛擬實境的領域。(lit: Now, we move into the area of smart links and virtual reality following the similar innovative paradigm.)	The mobile phone industry is now following the same innovative model and entering the field of smart links and virtual reality.	Now we are moving towards the industry of smart links and virtual reality following the initial innovative model.

In Example (11), the literal MT, “with a new leadership position,” does not highlight the role of HTC as an innovative creator. The MT output cannot attract web audiences’ much attention because it does not emphasize that HTC is an innovative developer of computing technology. To create an emotional touch or/and persuasive effect, “with a new leadership position” can be paraphrased as “We act as a reformative leader,” and is put at the beginning of the sentence. In Example (12), the MT segment, “entering the field of smart links and virtual reality,” is not appellative to web audiences because it does not describe HTC as an inventor of digital/smart connections and virtual reality. To catch the audience’s attention, “entering the field of smart links and virtual reality” can be edited as “Now we are moving towards the industry of smart links and virtual reality,” so it helps promote the status of the company and achieve the marketing function.

The above affective MTPE strategies are identical with Densmer's (2014) MTPE guideline for stylistic appropriateness. This suggests that affective errors have been found in SMT errors. However, the affective MTPE strategies are not suggested by Depraetere (2010) and Belam (2003). One reason is that technical MT texts analyzed in Depraetere's (2010) and Belam's (2003) studies describe only facts and use the functional language. No appellative expressions are used to boost the marketing effect in technical texts. However, the present research investigates MT errors of web-based company texts, so some affective MTPE strategies are proposed to help achieve the marketing function.

A Comparison of MT Errors Across Text Types

Variation of Errors in Ch-En and En-Ch MTs

To show how MT errors vary across text types, type/token ratios are measured. The findings show that in the Ch-En MT outputs, the expressions that do not meet English linguistic conventions take up the highest type/token ratio, 1.26% and 1.40% respectively in technical/instructional texts and journalistic texts. In contrast, the use of incorrect words holds the highest type/token ratio, 1.30%, in web-based company texts.

Chinese instructions often use long sentences, so their English MTs produced through literal translation are odd and awkward, not meeting the conventional English presentations. The same problem about journalistic texts shows that the English MTs of many segments do not present clear meanings and thus need to be paraphrased. Regarding the highest ratio of incorrect words in the English MTs of web-based company texts, a major reason is the use of many boastful, exaggerative words, but these words refer to different things, not what their surface meanings suggest. For example, *zonghe da chang* 綜合大廠 and *qiangshi chengzhang* 強勢成長 are mistranslated by Google Translate as "integrated manufacturer" and "grow strongly." They should be edited as "leading conglomerate" and "grow rapidly."

Table 4 shows the type/token ratios of MT errors in Ch-En MT outputs. "A" stands for technical/instructional texts; "B," company web texts, and "C," journalistic texts. Type (1) represents the MT error of incorrect words; type (2), incorrect metaphors; type (3), incorrect cultural references; type (4), incorrect grammar; type (5), incorrect word order; type (6), redundant, mechanical information; type (7), terminological inconsistency; type (8), insufficient information/incomplete sentences; type (9), the expressions that do not meet the linguistic conventions of a target language; type (10), incorrect professional terms

Table 4

The Type/Token Ratios in Ch-En MTs

	Ch-En MTs					
Error Type	A		B		C	
Type (1)	460/38,060	1.2%	488/37,488	$\boxed{1.30\%}$	344/29,572	1.16%
Type (2)	3/38,060	0.00%	16/37,488	0.04%	24/29,572	0.08%
Type (3)	28/38,060	0.07%	112/37,488	0.29%	140/29,572	0.47%
Type (4)	188/38,060	0.49%	372/37,488	0.99%	248/29,572	0.83%
Type (5)	28/38,060	0.07%	32/37,488	0.08%	40/29,572	0.13%
Type (6)	116/38,060	0.30%	104/37,488	0.27%	48/29,572	0.16%
Type (7)	20/38,060	0.05%	36/37,488	0.09%	8/29,572	0.02%
Type (8)	132/38,060	0.34%	116/37,488	0.30%	104/29,572	0.35%
Type (9)	480/38,060	$\boxed{1.26\%}$	396/37,488	1.05%	416/29,572	$\boxed{1.40\%}$
Type (10)	140/38,060	0.36%	68/37,488	0.18%	68/29,572	0.22%
Type (11)	8/38,060	0.02%	28/37,488	0.07%	8/29,572	0.02%
Type (12)	1/38,060	0.00%	44/37,488	0.11%	4/29,572	0.01%
Total		4.16%		4.77%		4.85%

or the terms that do not meet the expectation of the target audience; type (11), misplaced focal points; type (12), lack of the rhetorical skills applied to achieve the marketing function.

The overall type-token ratios of Ch-En MT errors in web-based company texts and journalistic texts are similar, 4.77% and 4.85%, which are higher than 4.16% in the technical/instructional texts. The statistical result justifies that the NMT system is better used to translate technical/instructional texts than other two types of texts from Chinese to English.

The results of error analysis of En-Ch MT outputs are also reported. The findings show that the use of incorrect words takes up the highest type/token ratio, 0.95% and 0.86%, in the web-based company texts and journalistic texts. The results are attributable to the use of multi-meaning English words in the English STs. As of today, the advanced NMT system still has the difficulty of handling the translation of the words that have several different meanings. This finding does not deny that the outputs of RMT and SMT do not have the same error. Rather, it highlights that despite a huge improvement in its accuracy and fluency, the NMT system still cannot translate all words accurately based on the context.

Furthermore, the errors of professional terms take up the highest type/token ratio, 0.98%, in the En-Ch NMT outputs of technical, instructional texts. There are two reasons for the result. One is that the current size of professional terms translations is not huge; the other is that Google's translation corpora store many professional terms used in mainland China, not used in Taiwan. Taiwanese audiences are not familiar with the NMT outputs of professional terms. Table 5 shows the type-token ratios in the En-Ch MT outputs.

Since journalistic texts have an overall lower type-token ratio, 2.95%, than other two types of texts, the NMT system is better used to translate journalistic texts from English into Chinese than technical/instructional and web-based

Table 5

The Type/Token Ratios in En-Ch MTs

	En-Ch MTs					
Error Type	A		B		C	
Type (1)	292/37,916	0.77%	360/37,628	$\boxed{0.95\%}$	264/30,568	$\boxed{0.86\%}$
Type (2)	2/37,916	0.00%	12/37,628	0.03%	8/30,568	0.02%
Type (3)	8/37,916	0.02%	12/37,628	0.03%	72/30,568	0.23%
Type (4)	36/37,916	0.09%	24/37,628	0.06%	40/30,568	0.13%
Type (5)	20/37,916	0.05%	64/37,628	0.17%	64/30,568	0.20%
Type (6)	28/37,916	0.07%	72/37,628	0.19%	100/30,568	0.32%
Type (7)	12/37,916	0.03%	8/37,628	0.02%	8/30,568	0.02%
Type (8)	188/37,916	0.49%	316/37,628	0.83%	100/30,568	0.32%
Type (9)	208/37,916	0.54%	256/37,628	0.68%	216/30,568	0.70%
Type (10)	372/37,916	$\boxed{0.98\%}$	189/37,628	0.50%	36/30,568	0.11%
Type (11)	2/37,916	0.00%	3/37,628	0.00%	8/30,568	0.02%
Type (12)	1/37,916	0.00%	3/37,628	0.00%	8/30,568	0.02%
Total		3.04%		3.46%		2.95%

company texts. However, the overall type-token ratio of technical, instructional texts is similar to that of journalistic texts with the gap of 0.09, so the NMT system is also suited for translating technical texts from English into Chinese. Interestingly, in Luo's (2014) analysis of the En-Ch MT outputs of car repair texts created by the SMT system, the findings show that errors of preposition-led phrases take up the highest rate 13.3%; noun phrases, 6.95%, and infinitive-led phrases, 1.45%. The errors of the above three linguistic features are all higher than the type/token ratio of each type of MT error in the present research. This comparison suggests that no matter what types of errors are produced, the accuracy rate of En-Ch NMT outputs is higher than En-Ch SMT outputs.

To understand better the strength and weakness of NMT systems, we may compare Ch-En and En-Ch type/token ratios. In the Ch-En MT outputs, the overall (A + B + C) ratio is 13.78%, higher than 9.45% in the En-Ch MT outputs. Thus, the GNMT system performs better in the translation from English to Chinese than from Chinese to English. Table 6 shows the gap between Ch-En and En-Ch type-token ratios.

Table 6

A Comparison of Type/Token Ratio Gaps Between Ch-En and En-Ch MTs

Error Types	Ch-En MT		En-Ch MT	Gaps
	A + B + C	Comparison	A + B + C	
Type (1)	3.66%	>	2.58%	1.08%
Type (2)	0.12%	>	0.05%	0.07%
Type (3)	0.83%	>	0.28%	0.55%
Type (4)	$\boxed{2.31\%}$	>	$\boxed{0.28\%}$	$\boxed{2.03\%}$
Type (5)	0.28%	<	0.42%	-0.14%
Type (6)	0.73%	>	0.58%	0.15%
Type (7)	0.16%	>	0.07%	0.09%
Type (8)	0.99%	<	1.64%	-0.65%
Type (9)	3.71%	>	1.92%	1.79%
Type (10)	$\boxed{0.76\%}$	<	$\boxed{1.59\%}$	$\boxed{-0.83\%}$
Type (11)	0.11%	>	0.02%	0.09%
Type (12)	0.12%	>	0.02%	0.10%
Total	13.78%	>	9.45%	4.33%

When each type is assessed, type 9, type 4, and type 1 have higher type/token ratios in Ch-En MT outputs than in En-Ch MT outputs. We can infer that English sentences emphasize grammatical accuracy, but Chinese sentences do not, so the type/token ratio of type 4 is much higher in Ch-En MTs than En-Ch MTs.[5] Furthermore, the literal translations of headline, topics or headings[6] have caused Ch-En MTs to have a higher ratio of type 9. For example, two news topics, *ba da changsuo mei dai zhao zui gao fa 15,000 yuan* 八大場所沒戴罩 最高罰 1 萬 5 千元 and *"Atimisi" dengyue jihua puguang Taiyi taikongren jiang feiwang yueqiu* 「阿提米絲」登月計畫曝光 臺裔太空人將飛往月球 are literally translated by Google Translate as "Eight places without a cover, the maximum fine is 15,000 yuan" and "'Artemis' moon landing plan exposed, Taiwanese astronauts will fly to the moon." The two automated translations are not presented in the ordinary way native English speakers present the messages in their daily communication, so the two MT outputs should be edited as "Failing to wear a mask in public spaces now involves fines of NT$15,000" and "Taiwan-born astronaut chosen for Artemis lunar mission." With regard to the much higher ratio of type 1 in Ch-En MTs, its major reason is that the current NMT system still cannot translate multi-meaning words based on the context.[7]

We cannot overlook type 8 and type 10—the two higher ratios in the En-Ch NMT outputs than in the Ch-En NMT outputs. Since western writing style tends to

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5 Incorrect English grammar takes up a very high ratio in the Ch-to-En MT outputs. For example, "a" or "the" is not put before a noun accurately and a subject is missing in a clause/sentence. Also, singular or plural nouns and verb tenses are incorrect.

6 The MT system translates Chinese headlines and headings literally without paraphrasing or adapting them, so the English MT output tends to be awkward. The odd, unnatural MT outputs are also produced when NMT system translates a very long Chinese sentence and automatically split it into two or three ones.

7 For example, *jihua* 計畫 can be translated as "plan" or "project," but *hezuo jihua* 合作計畫 must be translated as "cooperative project," not "cooperative plan." However, the translation produced by Google Translate is "cooperation plan."

be concise, literal rendition from English into Chinese easily causes information inadequacy and thus type 8 shows a higher ratio in the En-Ch MT output. The reason for type 10, as aforementioned, comes to be that Google Translate's database of professional terms is built up by collecting many terms from China, not from Taiwan, and native Taiwanese and Chinese speakers use different professional terms. Additionally, the size of the database is not huge.

The above findings suggest that each text type uses specific linguistic components to achieve its textual function and tries to meet the expectations of different groups of target audiences, so its NMT output shows different type-token ratios of errors. Since different types of texts would produce different type/token ratios of MT errors, the efforts put into editing MTs would vary even though the editor's linguistic competence and experiences are the same. Furthermore, the NMT system can produce fewer errors than the SMT system, so MTPE effort for NMT output would be less than for SMT outputs. Some English-Russian professional translators had ranked NMT as more fluent after they post-edited the outputs of PBMT and NMT outputs (Castilho et al., 2017). They claimed that "NMT produced more correct sentences, contained fewer inflectional and word order errors and needed less effective post-edits" (Brussel et al., 2018, p. 3800; Castilho et al., 2017). Thus, MT error variation, which is in large part determined by text types and MT systems, would affect the editor's MTPE efforts.

Remodeling MTPE Strategies

In response to RQ2, this research recommends a function-oriented three-tier MTPE typology as an add-on to the existing MTPE typology. The preceding literature on MTPE strategies emphasizes the efforts taken by post-editors to complete light or full editing. In a different vein, this research focuses on adoption of varied MTPE strategies to help achieve the textual functions of different types of

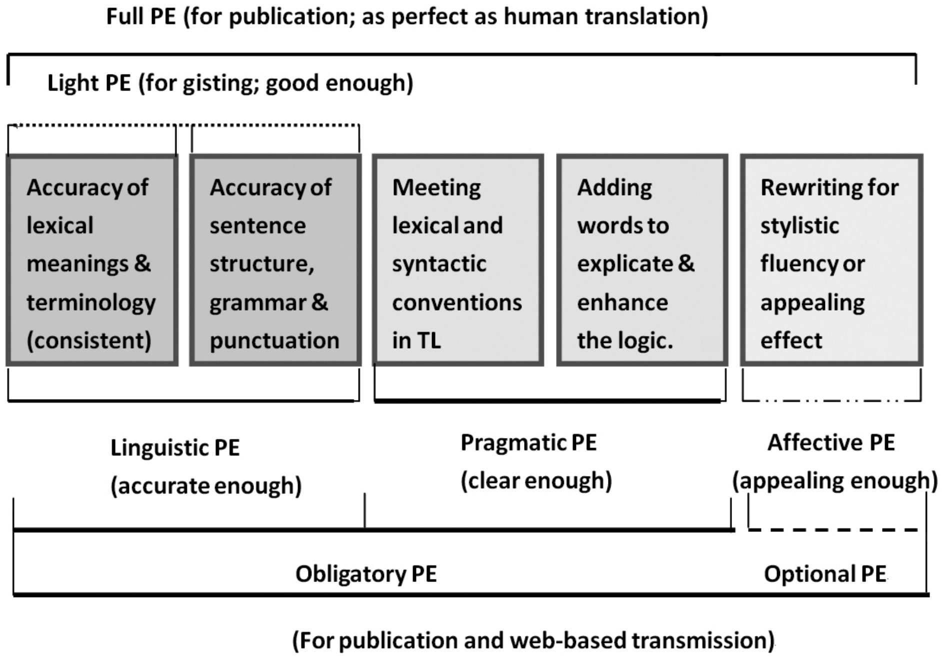
NMT texts. For the product instructions and user's manuals that aim to convey accurate information, the post-edited MT texts need to be semantically and grammatically accurate; for the journalistic texts that aim to present the clear, comprehensible content, the post-edited NMT texts need to be as clear and communicative as possible; and for web-based company texts that aim to inform and attract audiences, the post-edited NMT texts need to be as communicative and appellative as possible. Taking into consideration varied textual functions of different types of NMT texts, the author proposes using different MTPE strategies to help achieve the goal.

When previous literature on MTPE attends to the editor's efforts, the present research opens up a new path with a focus on the concern of web audiences. After re-investigating the situation where new NMT errors are produced by Google Translate, flexible, progressive MTPE strategies are raised. In practice, MTPE moves from the basic-level (essential) fixation of linguistic errors, through the intermediate-level fixation of pragmatic errors, and further to the advanced-level amendment of affective errors. This framework leads to the up-building of a function-oriented MTPE typology that starts with mandatory linguistic correction, ascends into the mandatory pragmatic modification, and finally arrives at the non-mandatory affective rewriting. The first and second types are mandatory because whatever types of NMT texts need to provide accurate and communicative information. No audiences want to read inaccurate and unclear information. However, the third type is optional, for it aims to enhance the marketing function or/and create emotional, aesthetic value. Figure 2 shows the differences between the three-tier MTPE typology and the binary MTPE typology.

Since current NMT systems have greatly improved the translation accuracy, only basic-level linguistic MTPE is needed for the publication of technical texts. However, journalist texts and company web texts require pragmatic MTPE to

Figure 2

The MTPE Typology: Then vs. Now



produce clear, communicative translations. Affective MTPE helps create an emotional appeal to achieve the marketing function, but it is optional. Due to a great improvement in the recent NMT quality, NMT application may extend to non-technical and hybrid texts. Thus, we need to consider how to edit NMT outputs of different text types to achieve their desired textual functions. A progressive, three-tier MTPE typology helps achieve the objective.

Implications of the Present Research

This article has shed new light on MT and MTPE study. The research implications can be explored from the aspects of re-identifying NMT errors and the corresponding MTPE strategies in a changing high-tech context, use of a poly-

MTPE typology to achieve diverse textual functions, and the expansion of the scope of MTPE strategies.

Re-Identifying MT Errors and MTPE Strategies in a New Context

MTPE strategies need to be re-investigated to understand how to edit the NMT errors. It has been justified that some errors identified in the present research are found in RBMT and SMT outputs, but some errors are not. There are still some issues the advanced NMT system cannot resolve. However, if we compare the automated En-Ch translations of short sentences created by RBMT, SMT and NMT systems, we can immediately find that NMT systems outperform the other two. For example, the English sentence, “Shoulder all the blame for the mistake and face it with no fear,” was translated in 2006 by TransWhiz (a RBMT system) as *Jianbang suoyou zebei wei chacuo he lian ta meiyou kongju* 肩膀所有責備為差錯和臉它沒有恐懼 (lit: Use the body shoulder to take all the blame for the mistake and use one’s face to touch it with no fear). To amend this MT error, we need to use two MTPE strategies: change of the word order and conversion of nouns into verbs. The two nouns, *jianbang* 肩膀 (lit: shoulder) and *lian* 臉 (lit: face), were edited as two verbs, *chengdan* 承擔 (lit: take the responsibility) and *miandui* 面對 (lit: confront). The original word order was revised by moving *wei chacuo* 為差錯 (lit: for mistakes) and *meiyou kongju* 沒有恐懼 (lit: without fear) to the initial positions of two clauses respectively. Thus, the post-edited sentence was *Wei chacuo chengdan suoyou zebei he meiyou kongju miandui ta* 為差錯承擔所有責備和沒有恐懼面對它 (lit: For the mistake take all the blame and have no fear to face it).

Nowadays, the translation of the same English sentence produced by Google neural MT system in 2020 is *Jianfu suoyou cuowu de zeren, bing haobu kongju di miandui ta* 肩負所有錯誤的責任，並毫不恐懼地面對它 (lit: Take the responsibility for all mistakes and face it fearlessly). This MT sentence is fully comprehensible and so we do not have to correct it. If we want to make it more communicative, we may add words “*ni bixu* 你必須” (lit: you need to) at the beginning of the entire sentence, and so the post-edited sentence is “*Ni bixu jianfu suoyou cuowu de zeren, bing haobu kongju di miandui ta* 你必須肩負所有錯誤的責任，並毫不恐懼地面對它” (lit: You need to take the responsibility for all mistakes and face it fear lessly). Overall, the NMT outputs of shorter sentences in technical texts are better than SMT and RBMT outputs. They only need light editing to achieve the publication purpose, but the SMT or RBMT outputs of technical texts need full-editing. Thus, NMT outputs need to be re-examined to help us understand how far the NMT system has improved.

A Progressive, Three-Tier MTPE Typology

Current MTPE guidelines have a clear-cut division between light and full editing, but do not define clearly what types of MT errors should be amended with what types of MTPE strategies. Depalma (2013) raised the guidelines for the register-specific good style created with language variants and slang, and compliance with country standard, company standard and legal suitability. But, MTPE beginners have difficulty guessing what the country and company standards refer to. Some other MTPE guidelines are oversimplified and inadequate. For example, Depraetere (2010) mentioned that post-editing guidelines cover a change of word order, a change of sentence structure and no waste of time for the style. These guidelines might be too brief to be abided by. In contrast, the MTPE strategies raised in the present article are mapped out step by step, moving from the basic-level fixation of linguistic MT errors to the inter-mediate level modification of pragmatic MT errors and the advance-level amendment of affective MT errors. The three-tier MTPE typology points out three types of MT errors in line with three types of MTPE strategies in a progressive, ascending order.

More Flexible Applications of MTPE Strategies

The existing MTPE typology presented in the binary form of light and full editing emphasizes the scale and efforts of editing. It lacks flexibility because not all text types need to use full MTPE for the purpose of publication. Nowadays, the translations of some technical texts created by the GNMT system have reached the high accuracy level, and only light editing is adequate for publication. Thus, it is risky to cut MTPE strategies into only two types in accordance with the objectives of either publication or non-publication. To make MTPE classification more flexible, the present research proposes the strategies based on different types of MT texts that are intended to achieve different textual functions. Some MTPE strategies can be used to fix NMT errors that mainly occur at lexical, grammatical, syntactic levels, and so the NMT output provides accurate information. Some strategies can be used to amend NMT errors that mainly occur at the pragmatic level, so the MT output presents clear and communicative information. Other strategies are used to amend MT errors that mainly occur at the affective level, so the NMT output delivers attractive, persuasive, attention-catching information. The updated MTPE strategies allow for more flexible applications to meet diverse situations, lifting the functions of NMT products beyond the clear-cut division between publication and non-publication.

Conclusion

Despite a small sample size, this research has revealed its sociological, practical and theoretical significance. The sociological contribution is justified as this research re-examines MT errors and updates corresponding MTPE strategies by using the GNMT system and using samples of technical and non-technical texts, meeting the increasing demand for using the NMT system to translate non-technical texts too in the era of global communication. Practical significance is shown as a more flexible MTPE typology provides mandatory and optional strategies for the editor's consultation when they edit different types of NMT texts. This point means that specific, updated MTPE strategies can be consulted when the NMT outputs of journalistic texts and web-based company texts are asked to be post-edited. Theoretical significance is shed on the proposal of a function-oriented three-tier MTPE typology that supplements the existing editor-oriented binary MTPE typology.

Remodeling the current MTPE typology does not criticize that the existent MTPE typology fails to live up to the function of translation products. All identified NMT errors are not exhaustive and the identification of NMT errors does not deny the absence of the errors in the SMT and RBMT outputs. Instead, it emphasizes that the advanced NMT system still cannot resolve some linguistic, pragmatic and affective issues that cannot be resolved by SMT and RBMT systems. This research simply explores whether new wine is stored in the old MT bottle. If new wine is produced by a new machine in a changing high-tech context, its ingredients should be different and need to be examined again.

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莎士比亞研究、翻譯與改編：彭鏡禧教授訪談錄

單德興

彭鏡禧教授長年致力於莎士比亞（Shakespeare）的研究、教學、翻譯與改編，相關出版品包括著作《細說莎士比亞：論文集》（*Perusing Shakespeare: A Collection of Essays*）、《摸象：文學翻譯評論集》（*Feeling the Elephant: Essays in Literary Translation*）與《與獨白對話：莎士比亞戲劇獨白研究》（*Dialogue With Monologue: A Study in Shakespearean Soliloquy*），譯作《哈姆雷》（*Hamlet*）、《威尼斯商人》（*The Merchant of Venice*）、《量・度》（*Measure for Measure*）、《李爾王》（*King Lear*）、《暴風雨》（*The Tempest*）、《快樂的溫莎巧婦》（*The Merry Wives of Windsor*）、《皆大歡喜》（*As You Like It*）與《卡丹紐》（*Cardenio*）。此外，他與陳芳教授合作，將《威尼斯商人》、《量・度》與《李爾王》改編為豫莎劇三部曲——《約／束》（*Bond*）、《量・度》（*Measure, Measure!*）與《天問》（*Questioning Heaven*）——並且在舞臺上演出，廣獲國內外觀眾好評。有鑑於彭教授對於莎士比亞的多元呈現，以及在華文學界與戲劇界相關領域的卓越貢獻，本訪談特別聚焦於他對莎士比亞的研究、翻譯與改編，由受訪者現身說法，分享多年經驗與心得，為臺灣的莎士比亞研究、翻譯與演出留下第一手的紀錄。為精簡篇幅，訪談紀錄以「單」、「彭」簡稱訪問人及受訪人。

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單德興，中央研究院歐美研究所特聘研究員，E-mail: thshan@sinica.edu.tw。
本訪談稿經彭鏡禧教授親自修訂，謹此致謝。有關彭教授的學思歷程，可參閱 2020 年 12 月 18 日發表於《西灣評論》之〈翻譯家是如何煉成的：彭鏡禧教授訪談錄〉（https://westbay-la.nsysu.edu.tw/p/406-1303-249425,r11.php?Lang=zh-tw）（單德興，2020）。

壹、莎學研究與莎劇翻譯

單：你最早是如何與莎士比亞結緣的？

彭：其實沒有一個特別的情境。我喜歡看各種雜七雜八的東西，大概在初中時看過一本小書，談一些西洋文學裡有名的例子。我在裡面讀到莎士比亞，印象中是布魯特斯（Marcus Brutus）跟安東尼（Mark Antony）在《凱薩大將》（*The Tragedy of Julius Caesar*）裡的正、反兩面即席群眾演說，覺得修辭非常動人，以後慢慢知道有莎士比亞這個人。高中時我有空就會到南海路的藝術館（國立臺灣藝術教育館），去看文化大學（中國文化大學，以下簡稱文化大學）王生善教授導的戲，他們大概每兩年會推出一部莎士比亞劇作。當時沒有特別的想法，只覺得好看。一直到上了大學，在三、四年級有開莎士比亞課程，授課老師陶雅各神父（Fr. James Thornton）是愛爾蘭人，在四年級開課，我三年級時跑去聽，班上學生只有五、六位。記得他在講歷史劇，好像是《理查二世》（*Richard the Second*）吧，聲音很宏亮，但我真的是聽不懂，就放棄了。

單：聽不懂的原因是口音還是內容？

彭：我也不清楚，莎士比亞的英文以及節奏顯然那時候我無法掌握，所以完全聽不懂。後來大三暑假在鳳山陸軍步兵學校分科教育的時候，我除了帶哈里森（G. B. Harrison）編的《莎士比亞全集》（Shakespeare, 1591-1613/1952）之外，還帶了好幾本原文的莎士比亞口袋書，薄薄的，只有巴掌大，只要打野外的 20 分鐘休息時間一到，就會拿出來看一看。雖然還不太懂，但就是覺得這個人英文的描述很有意思。我也看了一些莎士比亞的翻譯本，以梁實秋先生的譯本居多，覺得不是太欣賞（impressed），中文不是很順。

單：有些太散文化了，尤其是抑揚格五音步（iambic pentameter）全部譯成散文。

彭：我那時候還沒意識到這個區別，是到了研究所再念，才慢慢覺得差別很大。

單：你在碩士生時上過白納德神父（Fr. Bernard）的課。[1] 之後前往美國密西根大學（University of Michigan）攻讀比較文學，有再修跟莎士比亞相關的課程嗎？

彭：有。我跟著英文系系主任弗雷澤（Russell A. Fraser）[2] 上了一門文藝復興（Renaissance）詩學，當然也會上到莎士比亞、席尼（Philip Sidney）這些重要人物。他受到新批評的影響，對字質討論得很詳細，出版過幾本莎士比亞的相關書籍。

單：後來回到臺灣，你如何跟莎士比亞再續前緣？

彭：我在臺大外文系（國立臺灣大學外國語文學系，以下簡稱臺大外文系）沒有什麼機會教比較戲劇、中國戲曲這一塊，於是想找一個領域作為我的教書專長。1980 年到 1981 年，有幸得到國科會（行政院國家科學委員會，為科技部前身，以下簡稱國科會）補助到耶魯大學（Yale University）做博士後研究，主要是跟著一位在研究所教莎士比亞的杭特（George Kirkpatrick Hunter），[3] 他是英國人。這位教授對莎士比亞的戲劇、演出這部分並未太重視，比較重視文本。有一次博士班同學上課討論《哈姆雷》（*Hamlet*）[4] 的名句，他就拿出紙來說，“To be, or not to be”，你們背背看，看能背幾行，結果沒有一個人能完整地背出來。當然，若是像

1 彭教授就讀國立臺灣大學外國語文學研究所時，所上曾聘請來自菲律賓的白納德神父擔任客座教授，開授莎士比亞研討課（seminar）。白納德為莎士比亞專家，論文曾發表於《莎士比亞評論》（*Shakespeare Survey*）等刊物。

2 弗雷澤為莎士比亞學者，相關專書與編著甚多，曾任教於美國杜克大學（Duke University）、普林斯頓大學（Princeton University）、哥倫比亞大學（Columbia University）等著名學府，並先後擔任過範德比大學（Vanderbilt University）以及密西根大學英文系系主任。

3 杭特 1976 年從英國渥瑞大學（Warwick University）轉往美國耶魯大學任教，曾任 *Modern Language Review* 主編，重要著作包括 *John Lyly: The Humanist as Courtier*（Hunter, 1962）。

4 彭教授於譯注的《哈姆雷》中提到個人針對莎劇（莎士比亞戲劇，以下簡稱莎劇）人名的翻譯策略，表示「王子 Hamlet 原無固定譯名，但前人多譯成四個字，以『特』結尾。今音譯為『哈姆雷』，非為標新立異，只因四個漢字太長，何況『特』字是第四聲，念起來特別重，跟原文輕輕點到為止的“t”極不相當」（彭鏡禧，2001a，頁 3）。因此，本訪談提到莎劇角色人名時，採用彭教授的歸化譯名，以完整呈現受訪人的翻譯理念與策略。

卜倫（Harold Bloom）[5] 那樣的人，很可能整個劇本都能背起來。這個教學的小方法讓我知道，演員在舞臺上是多麼的了不起。學生只是二、三十行就背不起來，但是演《哈姆雷》不僅要背一千多行臺詞，背的同時還要演出，而讀跟演是兩個不同的世界。這給了我很大的啟發。那時候耶魯大學沒有演出的錄影帶，只有錄音帶，我每個星期都去圖書館簽名借錄音帶來聽，可以點選只聽朗誦的部分。我記得最知名的就是由馬羅學會（The Marlowe Society）錄製發行的錄音帶，他們把莎士比亞全部的劇作都請了專業人士朗誦，聽起來像聽廣播劇。臺大也有一套，回來後我常常有機會聽這些東西。到了1980年代，才有英國廣播公司（British Broadcasting Corporation, BBC）製作的電視演出，有點像舞臺劇，但又不是真正的舞臺劇。[6]

單：記得那系列 1980 年代初在臺灣的電視臺播放過，播出前還請朱立民老師講評，我不但看過相關報導，而且每個星期特地到同學李有成的家觀看。[7]

彭：我不知道臺灣有沒有播出，因為版本太多了，光是《哈姆雷》就拍過很多版本，培養出很多代的演員。我很少在課堂上播放這些東西，可是我會留意。幾年後我又以傅爾布萊特學者（Fulbright Scholar）的身分到維吉尼亞大學（University of Virginia）擔任東方語文系和戲劇系的合聘客座教授。在戲劇系裡，我真正大量接觸到戲劇演出，因為每個星期都有學生表演，還有大型演出等等。最重要的是，我在劇場看到了舞臺監督

[5] 卜倫（Harold Bloom, 1930-2019）為美國著名文學批評家，曾任耶魯大學教授，著有超過 40 本的文學批評著作，其中以《影響的焦慮》（*The Anxiety of Influence: A Theory of Poetry*）與《西方正典》（*The Western Canon*）最為知名（Bloom, 1973, 1994）。

[6] 英國廣播公司的 *The BBC Television Shakespeare* 系列，由梅西拿（Cedric Messina）擔任製片，集結戲劇界與電視界一流人才與演員，於 1978 年 12 月 3 日至 1985 年 4 月 27 日播出，共 37 集，橫跨七季，後來分別出版美國及英國版影音光碟。

[7] 英國廣播公司製作的莎劇電視劇，自 1981 年 3 月 8 日起，每週日於中視頻道播出，《民生報》從首播當天起連續六週刊出朱立民教授對當天播放的莎劇的解說，由記者鐘麗慧筆記。參閱「看懂莎劇並不難」系列報導（鐘麗慧，1981）。

的工作，管理演出環境、演員動線等，要協調製作團隊的各個部門，讓一齣戲從醞釀、彩排、演出到落幕的流程順利。所以我再回臺大教莎士比亞時就很重視讀劇及片段演出，會讓學生感受上臺的感覺。我應該是朱老師不教莎士比亞之後接手的，大概教了也有 20 年。有一次學校評鑑，應該是張漢良當系主任的時候，曼徹斯特大學（The University of Manchester）的漢蒙德（Gerald Hammond）教授到我的班上評鑑，正好在上《哈姆雷》，我要學生做些道具，上臺讀劇，他相當欣賞，說我們的學生程度很好。以前是戲劇歸戲劇，文學歸文學，之後慢慢轉變為重視演出，這個風潮在英、美大概也是 1970 年代才開始興起。

單：除了教課外，你也申請國科會計畫做相關研究。[8] 你是什麼時候開始把莎士比亞的教學與研究正式結合的？

彭：我多半是在教了很多遍以後有些心得，就會記下來或是放在腦海裡。每年講課加上自己看戲、看劇評，累積了一定的心得之後才開始寫論文。除了談《十四行詩》（*The Sonnets*）的文章，第一篇莎劇論文是討論《仲夏夜之夢》（*A Midsummer Night's Dream*），先用英文撰寫發表（彭鏡禧，2004d；Perng, 1988）。我注意到，事實上別人也提到，莎士比亞喜歡玩戲中戲（play within the play）的遊戲，或者在戲裡談戲劇與人生的關係之類的事情，也就是後設劇場（metatheatre）的觀念。這點很吸引我，就朝這個方向去研究。

1988 年我去韓國參加世界筆會，要寫一篇論文討論翻譯與原作的關係，這篇論文的中文版〈變與常：論原作與譯作的關係〉收入《摸象：

[8] 如 *Shakespeare and the Professional Italian Theatre*《莎士比亞與文藝復興時期的義大利劇場表演》（Steele & Perng, 1993）、*Shakespeare in East Asia—A Study on Translations*《莎士比亞在東亞──翻譯研究（II）》（Perng, 2000）、《另類角色──書信在莎士比亞戲劇中的意義與功能》（彭鏡禧，1998）、《《哈姆雷》、《仲夏夜之夢》、《威尼斯商人》譯注計畫（I）》（彭鏡禧，2000）、《莎士比亞的戲劇獨白研究（I）》（彭鏡禧，2003）、《莎士比亞戲劇中的飲食場景》（彭鏡禧，2006a）、《莎士比亞戲劇《冬天的故事》中文翻譯、評述、詳注》（彭鏡禧，2014）等。

文學翻譯評論集》。[9] 我在寫這篇論文時想引用莎士比亞的作品作例子，結果找不到合適的翻譯，因為梁實秋、朱生豪，還有我的老師虞爾昌的翻譯，都沒有表達出我覺得莎士比亞想要在戲裡表達的那種感覺。例如《亨利四世上篇》（*King Henry IV, Part 1*）第二幕第四景裡，放浪不羈的哈樂王子（Prince Hal）跟福斯塔（John Falstaff）一起打家劫舍，做小流氓。有一天晚上他們在酒店作樂，國王派人來叫兒子第二天早上回去，因為要打仗了。哈樂王子將來是要做國王的，福斯塔意識到他們的關係會生變，就說：「你回去一定會挨罵，不如我們先來演一齣戲，模擬明天的情境。」（Shakespeare, 1598/1983, 2.4.368-370），於是有了戲中戲。

兩人當場演了起來，福斯塔先演國王，哈樂王子演他自己，之後互換角色。這時候福斯塔講了一長段的話，結論是說：你可以放逐所有的人，但不要放逐我，你若放逐了我，就是放逐了全世界。“Banish plump Jack, and banish all the world.”（Shakespeare, 1598/1983, 2.4.473-474），但是哈樂王子演的國王只回答四個字：「我要，我會。」“I do, I will.”（Shakespeare, 1598/1983, 2.4.475），我覺得他這個回答的戲劇性對比非常強烈。在 BBC 系列，這一幕的演出，王子的眼神冷酷極了。福斯塔在那兒求情講了一大堆話，他只回了四個字，還避開了 “banish”（放逐）這個字。我覺得莎士比亞太了不起了。對於這句話，我的解讀是：在戲中哈樂王子是演國王，所以他說 “I do [banish him]”；而回到現實，哈樂王子將來會是國王，於是他說 “I will [banish him]”。這句話前人翻譯成「我偏要把他攆走」、「我要把他趕走，我一定要把他趕走」等等，顯得比較囉嗦、拖泥帶水，而且把隱於言外的 “banish” 明講了出來。

這一段是發生在酒店裡的事，有一票狐群狗黨在旁邊圍觀，都只覺得逗趣，只有他們兩人知道對方是假戲真作。更妙的是，“I do, I will.”

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[9] “Permanency in Change: Reflections on the Original and Its Translation(s)” 宣讀於第 52 屆世界筆會，韓國漢城，1988 年 8 月 28 日至 9 月 2 日；修訂稿發表於 *The Chinese Pen*（Perng, 1989）；中文收於《摸象：文學翻譯評論集》（彭鏡禧，2009e，頁 11–22）。

已經表達出「你要小心，將來我可跟你不客氣了」的意思。這時候外面有人敲門，警長來了。這場戲中戲到此戛然而止，福斯塔還在掙扎說：「不行不行，我戲還沒演完，我還有話要替那個福斯塔說……」（Shakespeare, 1598/1983, 2.4.478-479），因為他知道，王子現在是浪子，未來歸正以後不會對他假以辭色。可是警長來了，戲就到此為止，他的命運也就注定了，終將失寵被逐。

莎士比亞的這段戲精采極了，除了語言的對比之外，他特意讓這個戲中戲卡在這裡停住，福斯塔聲嘶力竭地喊說還要演，可是已經沒有機會了。我在寫論文的時候，發現沒有一個譯本的翻譯符合我的詮釋。你也知道，翻譯和閱讀都是詮釋。其他的譯本當然也很好，但都不是我要的，所以我就決定自己翻譯（彭鏡禧，2004b）。

單：這跟卜倫的《影響的焦慮》剛好相反——他指的是在前人傑出成就的陰影下創作的焦慮，你則是看了前人的翻譯都不滿意，所以決定自己來。

彭：可能也有些陰影。基本上，抑揚格五音步的運用在無韻詩（blank verse）很重要，節奏上區分什麼樣的角色可以給詩、什麼樣的角色給散文、各種語言的層次（levels of language）等。我在博士論文裡討論過語言的層次。戲劇裡角色很多，莎士比亞就像任何一個好的劇作家，一定是什麼角色講什麼話，恰如其分。

單：後來你正式從事莎士比亞翻譯，是不是因為國科會的經典譯注計畫？

彭：這裡有我常講的「機會」。一位上過我莎士比亞比課的學生施悅文，畢業後到公視做事，負責採購西方節目。公視買了勞倫斯・奧立維（Laurence Olivier）[10] 1948 年自導自演的電影《王子復仇記》（*Hamlet*）的版權，要找人翻譯。她就來問我願不願意做，我當然很高興地接了下來。

[10] 舊譯「勞倫斯 ・ 奧立佛」，此處遵照受訪者用詞。

單：不曉得那個版本是直接根據莎士比亞的劇本，還是有所改編？

彭：你這問題問得非常好。我後來發現所有的演出很少是沒有改編的，每個導演或編劇都有不同的想法，中間就牽涉到很多改編的問題，演出的類型（genre）也有所影響，改編成電影或電視劇都會不一樣。我當初以為很簡單，電影版只有兩個多鐘頭，一定刪掉很多場景，如此而已。後來公視把劇本給我，一看不只如此，還有很多情節、架構方面的轉換（transposition），因為莎士比亞的描述語言雖然很好，但放在電影裡很多是不必要的。像《仲夏夜之夢》對森林、月亮的場景描述，這些在莎士比亞時代的舞臺上是必要的，因為演出在白天，需要製造情境，像催眠一樣帶領觀眾想像森林裡面黑暗的世界，但是在電影裡呈現出來就很清楚了，文字反倒成了多餘。

　　這部電影對很多次要情節（subplot）做了刪改。莎士比亞喜歡用次要情節與主要情節平行（parallel）放置，產生對照（contrast），這部電影裡刪掉了很多這類情節，整部電影就講王子復仇。此外，導演或者演員決定要演一部戲時要先想好：「它對我的意義如何？」"What does it mean to me?" 奧立維採用的是當時莎士比亞詮釋裡的主流論述，也就是認為哈姆雷優柔寡斷（indecisive）。我記得很清楚，電影一開始就說：「這是一個猶豫不決者的悲劇。」"This is the tragedy of a man who could not make up his mind."（Olivier, 1948），連艾略特（T. S. Eliot）那首名詩〈普魯弗洛克的情歌〉"The Love Song of J. Alfred Prufrock" 裡都寫：「我不是哈姆雷王子。」（"I am not Prince Hamlet"）（Eliot, 1963），我在臺大碩士班有位學長的論文就是講哈姆雷的優柔寡斷。[11] 總之，我花了一些時間幫公視翻譯出來，之後才是國科會的經典譯注計畫。

[11] 見張達聰的碩士論文 *Implausible and Plausible Causes of Hamlet's Delay in Exacting Revenge*（Chang, 1970）。

單：電影版比較通俗化、普及化，而經典譯注計畫的要求是要結合翻譯與學術研究，要有導論（critical introduction）和註釋（annotations）。你從事相關研究，翻譯起來應該覺得如魚得水吧？

彭：不敢這樣講。奧立維的電影當然比較通俗化、簡化，但裡面也有很有意思的鏡頭。他為了詮釋這個角色，還拜訪了佛洛伊德（Sigmund Freud）的學生瓊斯（Ernest Jones），討論母子關係。電影剛開始鏡頭一直轉，轉到哈姆雷母親的臥室裡，顯然有佛洛伊德式的詮釋（Freudian interpretation）在內。奧立維是非常棒的演員，也下了許多工夫，所以雖然這是個通俗的改編，而且已是大半個世紀以前的片子了，仍然是一部經典電影，現在還有很多人在討論。

回到經典譯注計畫。你譯注的《格理弗遊記》（*Gulliver's Travels*）是經典之作，緒論寫得長，註解那麼多（綏夫特，1726／2004）。我那時候選了三個劇本：《哈姆雷》、《仲夏夜之夢》和《威尼斯商人》，後來選擇先做《哈姆雷》，才知道這工作很困難。我決定不看前人的翻譯，因為知道沒有什麼幫助。我翻譯的時候，孫大雨的兩冊《莎士比亞戲劇八種——集注本》（莎士比亞，1595–1611／2013）還沒在臺灣出現。中間有一年，2000 年到 2001 年，我到芝加哥大學（University of Chicago）當訪問學者，那邊相關的圖書更多，我做了一些研究。在那邊也碰到余國藩教授，他把我介紹給英文系的貝文騰教授（David Bevington）。我 1996 年在洛杉磯跟貝文騰教授見過面，那時他是美國莎士比亞學會（Shakespeare Association of America）會長，我們有過短暫的交談。在芝加哥大學見了面之後，我就一星期上一次他的課，他真是一位非常、非常好的教授，人好、學問也好。他揹著一個背包，騎著腳踏車來上課，跟我騎重型機車的博士論文指導教授一樣特別。後來他寄給我一套他的著作，2004 年我也請他到臺大莎士比亞論壇（NTU Shakespeare Forum）來演講，很可惜他今年（2019）過世。我覺得這種良好的師生關係無形中讓我釋放了很大的壓力。

我的翻譯裡有一處跟別人最不一樣，就是最後雷厄提（Laertes）與哈姆雷決鬥的時候，他們不是賭說誰會贏嗎？哈姆雷贏了第一回合，國王為他斟了一杯毒酒，哈姆雷說，我現在不喝，等一下。結果第二回合他又贏了，他母后葛楚（Gertrude）替他喝了那杯毒酒。喝下酒之前，國王說：「咱們的兒子會贏。」“Our son shall win.”（Shakespeare, 1603, 1623, 1982/1986, 5.2.289），這時演葛楚的人通常會拿條手帕替哈姆雷擦擦汗，口中還講了一句 “He is fat and scant of breath”（Shakespeare, 1603, 1623, 1982/1986, 5.2.290）。哈姆雷很胖嗎？有人說，這是因為當年演哈姆雷的演員是個胖子，莎士比亞在這邊開了一個內行人的玩笑（insider’s joke）。也有人將這句話解釋為：他母親擔心兒子會輸，所以先打預防針。可是明明哈姆雷占上風，她沒有理由這麼說。

英國皇家學會（The Royal Society）有一次邀請學者丹尼爾（David Daniell）來談莎士比亞的語言，就談到這個例子。他說 “fat” 在莎士比亞時代應該是「壯」的意思，而不是「胖」，因為《聖經 · 士師記》（*Judges*）裡就有用 “fat” 來形容摩押人（Moabite）的魁武強壯（狄考文等，1919／2018；*King James Bible*, 1769/2021）。至於 “scant of breath”，一般人會譯成「喘不過氣來」，但哈姆雷明明占上風，連一口酒也不喝，這麼說並不合理。第一幕第三景，父親波龍尼（Polonius）對女兒娥菲麗（Ophelia）說，不要常常露臉給別人看，要溫婉貞潔一點，那裡也用上 “scant”。[12] 因此，“scant of breath” 不是說「氣不足，需要很多的氣」，反而是「不需要」。“He is fat and scant of breath” 就是「他很壯，連氣都不喘」。這兩個字義都可以找到證據。

單：這就跟學術研究密切結合。

[12] 原文為 “From this time / Be somewhat scanter of your maiden presence.”（Shakespeare, 1603, 1623/1982, 1.3.121）。

彭：非常密切。我翻譯完《哈姆雷》後常說（也寫在〈緒論〉裡面），以前的種種閱讀與翻譯，似乎都是為了要翻譯莎士比亞、翻譯這齣戲所做的準備，但還是很不足。那篇〈緒論〉寫得比較長，大概有八、九十頁，以後幾本經典譯注的緒論就短多了，因為許多對莎士比亞的主要看法都已經在《哈姆雷》譯注本裡說過了。[13]

單：你除了參與國科會的經典譯注計畫，也應邀為中國大陸辜正坤編的那套英漢雙語本翻譯了其中四本，那個系列跟經典譯注版呈現的方式很不一樣。[14]

彭：完全不同。我跟辜先生於 1996 年在美國洛杉磯的莎士比亞學會見過面，那時候還不太熟。後來他給我一本他翻譯的《莎士比亞十四行詩集》，我一看他翻譯的方法，就寫了一篇〈新聲與新貌：序辜正坤譯《莎士比亞十四行詩集》〉推薦（彭鏡禧，2009b）。我覺得莎士比亞十四行詩的翻譯技法已經走到死胡同，很難再創新。十四行詩就是十四行詩，該有怎樣的節奏、怎樣的韻就得照著來，但不是每個人都能把七個韻都譯出來。我覺得歷來翻譯得最好的可能是梁宗岱，施穎洲、屠岸的翻譯也很好，但不會特別推薦梁實秋，雖然說他譯得也很正確（莎士比亞，1609／1967，1609／1973，1609／1981，1609／1992）。

施穎洲每一行都是十個字，也用韻。我曾特別寫了一篇文章討論《十四行詩》的中譯（彭鏡禧，2004c，2009c）。老實說，莎士比亞詩歌的特色就是很自然流暢，包括迴行、行中頓等等，如果譯成豆腐塊那樣僵硬，就可惜了。施穎洲翻譯過上千首西洋詩，很了不起，但我覺得

13 參閱彭鏡禧（2001b，2005，2006b，2012）。

14 《莎士比亞全集 • 英漢雙語本》，辜正坤主編，共 39 冊（莎士比亞，1623 ／ 2015b，1623 ／ 2016），係由英國皇家莎士比亞劇團（Royal Shakespeare Company）和外語教學與研究出版社合作推出，以皇家版《莎士比亞全集》（*William Shakespeare: Complete Works*）（Bate & Rasmussen, 1591-1613/2007）為翻譯藍本。彭鏡禧參與翻譯《李爾王》（*King Lear*，2015 年）、《暴風雨》（*The Tempest*，2016 年）、《快樂的溫莎巧婦》（*The Merry Wives of Windsor*，2016 年）與《皆大歡喜》（*As You Like It*，2016 年）。

他在《十四行詩》這裡有點畫地自限，不活潑、不靈動，失去了莎士比亞的風味。

辜正坤的譯本比較不限制每一行的字數，押韻也很自由，並且盡量用相同的韻。因為他教書的時候問過中國學生，喜歡經常換韻，還是一韻到底的詩？學生都喜歡後者。然而要一韻到底也很困難，所以變成少用幾個韻。他的文字古意較濃，類似詩詞歌賦，比較精簡。我原來的作法是朝向所謂的忠實，而他的方法使得譯作本身的特點反而蓋過原作。這邊還牽涉到翻譯是不是原作附屬品的問題。我一直堅持，翻譯策略、原創性都可以討論，但翻譯出來一定要是可讀、好的文學作品。同樣地，不能以忠實為藉口替不好的翻譯辯護，把優秀的原作譯得難讀、文學性盡失。翻譯可以視為一個創作，不再是附屬品，改寫、改編都可以，前提是本身必須是好的文學作品。

2007 年皇家莎士比亞劇團出了一個新版的《莎士比亞全集》（簡稱皇家版《莎士比亞全集》），跟其他的版本不一樣，選擇以第一對開本（1623 First Folio）為主，也就是莎士比亞過世後七年他在國王劇團（The King's Men）的兩位演員同事整理出來的版本，重新修訂。他們的理由是：莎士比亞劇團自己做出來的版本理當最接近原文（Book Depository, n.d.）。

我們現在看的很多版本，包括我翻譯的《哈姆雷》，根據的都是參照各版本編成的綜合本（conflated version）。因為莎士比亞的劇作經過各式的演出，流傳下來很多版本，有對開本、第一四開本（First Quarto）、糟糕的四開本（bad quarto）等等，有時候這本有的那本沒有，那本有的這本沒有，後代的學者或編者不忍割捨，乾脆併在一起，變成一個非常龐大的綜合本。有幾個劇作特別如此，例如最長的《哈姆雷》和《李爾王》，但並非全部如此。

Arden 版註解最為詳盡。我用的是詹金斯（Harold Jenkins）編的 Arden II（Shakespeare, 1603, 1623/1982），那位編者的方式跟你的譯注計畫一樣，

除了每頁有詳細的腳註之外，前面有一篇很長的導論（introduction），後面還有長註（longer notes）。他講得很有意思，例如討論 “to be, or not to be”，就仔細分析其中的結構、意義，對我很有幫助。他一輩子在學術界就寫了這麼一部重要的作品，很受推崇。

這也牽涉到版本學。1980 年代牛津大學（University of Oxford）出版《哈姆雷》時，選了最接近莎士比亞演出時期的那個版本，認為這才是演出版，而且開始重視演出，此後大家通常就根據這個版本（Shakespeare, 1623/1987）。《諾頓版莎士比亞》（*The Norton Shakespeare*）的編輯葛林布萊（Stephen Greenblatt）也是根據這個版本來做註解（Shakespeare, 1623/1997）。綜合本因為不符合演出實情，慢慢遭到淘汰。新劍橋版《李爾王》就是把四開本和對開本（the 1608 Quarto and the 1623 Folio）這兩個出入很大、差異多達幾百行的版本分別出版（Shakespeare, 1623/1992, 1608/1994）。因此，我翻譯的《哈姆雷》修訂再版時，就以一個版本為底，另一個版本已經翻譯好的就加上灰底（shade），讀者要看哪個版本就可以看哪個版本（莎士比亞，1603、1604、1623／2001a，1603、1604、1623／2014）。學術研究風向現在很注重演出，參考的不只是學術的註解，還包括演出用的版本，像是在這時候舞臺上會發生什麼樣的事。我雖然不是劇場人，可是會稍微注意這個面向。

前面提到，皇家莎士比亞劇團出了一套根據對開本修訂的《莎士比亞全集》。2014 年是莎士比亞誕辰 450 週年，2016 年是莎士比亞逝世 400 週年，全世界都在紀念。北京外語教研社（外語教學與研究出版社）決定翻譯這套書。主編辜正坤教授寫信給我，說是看過我的一些翻譯，覺得「有超越前人之處」，希望我翻《李爾王》，許淵冲翻《奧瑟羅》（*Othello*），他自己翻《哈姆雷》和《馬克白》（*Macbeth*）。[15] 可能是

[15] 辜正坤的譯本出版時分別名為《哈姆萊特》、《麥克白》，請參考莎士比亞（1623／2015a，1623／2015c）。

先測試一下市場反應，於 2015 年先出版這四大悲劇。後來他說要出版全集，當時大陸那邊的譯者已經挑完了，剩下的《皆大歡喜》、《快樂的溫莎巧婦》、《暴風雨》就由我接了下來。

《暴風雨》是莎士比亞後期的代表作，等於是總結他的戲劇生涯。我認為《皆大歡喜》是莎士比亞喜劇的顛峰之作，其中的英文讀起來實在過癮。而《快樂的溫莎巧婦》雖然比較不受重視，可是有兩個特點：第一，它是以倫敦生活為背景，其他莎劇都不是；第二，它幾乎完全用散文寫成。而且我很喜歡法斯塔夫（「福斯塔」的大陸譯名）這個角色。辜正坤在〈莎士比亞詩體重譯集序〉裡討論到翻譯的方式，舉了我翻譯的《李爾王》作為「無韻體白話詩譯法」的範例（莎士比亞，1623／2015b，1623／2016）。後來出版社請我到那邊去座談，第二年莎士比亞紀念日也請他們電臺朗誦一些片段。

單：順著你的話題，詩歌翻譯中長久存在著一種說法：「唯有詩人方可譯詩」，但實際情況未必如此，余光中老師就抱持懷疑的態度。你則主張，「理想的譯者知道如何收放自己的才情，在運用個人自由的時候，允執厥中。」不曉得你寫不寫詩？對於「唯有詩人方可譯詩」之說有何看法？

彭：談到詩歌的創作，我寫過一些打油詩，但覺得自己不是詩人。我很早就喜歡翻譯，喜歡翻譯之後，看到別人寫得那麼好，自然就更斷了寫詩的念頭。「唯有詩人方可譯詩」的說法，我也不認同。以我自己為例，我不是詩人，但翻譯了《十四行詩》及兩本詩集。當初有這種說法或許是覺得翻譯是創作，可以有很大的自由，例如龐德（Ezra Pound）翻譯中國詩。簡單而言，翻譯就是閱讀加寫作。作為學者，閱讀功夫應該比別人好，至於寫作，不一定會寫詩，但知道詩是怎麼構成的？材料在哪裡？如何組織？傳統詩、新詩有哪些成規？因此，不一定要詩人才能譯詩。詩人才情過高不願意受約束，或者太博學，都會壓倒原作，變成再創作（彭鏡禧，2009d）。

單：你研究莎士比亞這麼多年，如何在翻譯時不但不受研究的影響，或者炫學，反而能將研究的精華化入自己的譯文？

彭：首先，再三精讀要翻譯的劇本。其次，牽涉到翻譯的對象，例如從事經典譯注，一定要有自己的見解，而辜正坤主編的系列把原文的註解翻譯出來即可，當然自己要加註也可以，但要註明為譯者註。此外，我會在每個譯本之後寫一些自己的想法，包括你剛剛提的《暴風雨》，我也寫過文章討論角色如何自我打岔（self-interruption）（彭鏡禧，2004a），這個見解我老早以前上課時就提過，但我知道大陸那邊還沒什麼人討論。《暴風雨》的主角博思波（Prospero）在跟女兒講述自己遭到放逐的經過時，因為故事很長，有一百三十幾行，所以常常講了一陣子就會岔一句，「你有沒有在聽？」問了很多次，其實是在提醒觀眾。如果拿這個後期劇作跟早期的《錯誤的喜劇》（*The Comedy of Errors*）來對照，《錯誤的喜劇》一開頭就是商人伊吉恩（Egeon）自述冗長的身世遭遇，也有一百多行，但只中斷了兩次，幾乎沒有自我打岔。可見莎士比亞身為劇作家，劇場經驗告訴他，一個人物的講話不能落落長，冗長的敘述容易令觀眾厭倦，需要適時運用打岔來避免枯燥、無聊。

單：辜正坤編的全集方式是中文在前，英文在後，前面有他所寫的很長的總序，接著是中譯的原書導讀與劇本，但你的譯後記都很短，大概只有三、四頁。是他們有字數限制，還是你覺得該講的東西都已經在其他地方講了？

彭：並沒有什麼限制，不過當然不能太長。其實那個系列沒有要求一定要寫譯後記，大部分譯者都沒有寫。至於寫得比較短，應該是我自己有時間上的考量。*The Merry Wives of Windsor* 的譯名我至今還在考慮，前人的譯名《溫莎的風流娘兒們》不是很好，「娘兒們」有貶低的意味，但是劇中這兩個女人可真了不起，智取（outwit）法斯塔夫。法斯塔夫是莎士比亞作品裡極聰明機智的人物（one of the wittiest），結果被兩個女人耍

了。而且中文的文意一直在變動，「風流」已經不是以前的名士「風流」，加上「娘兒們」更容易誤導，所以我後來改為《快樂的溫莎巧婦》。我想將來有機會再跟他們談談，也許改為《溫莎俏婦》。

單：用「俏」字把 “merry” 的意涵也納進去。

彭：是啊。英國有一對父子檔語言學家，專門研究莎士比亞時代的語言（Shakespeare language）。[16] 我特別去查 “merry” 這個字有幾層意思？在哪個劇作分別是什麼意思？莎士比亞的很多劇名好似信手拈來，其實有些另有深意。像是 *Measure for Measure*，歷來至少有七、八種不同的中文譯名，大陸推崇的朱生豪原先譯為《量罪記》，後來的修訂者改為《一報還一報》，其他還有《惡有惡報》、《以牙還牙》之類，我覺得都不太周全，所以譯為《量・度》。我在《量・度》的〈緒論〉中曾說明《惡有惡報》這些譯名可能有點問題（彭鏡禧，2012）。

貳、莎劇改編與演出

單：提到《量・度》，就得提到豫莎劇。我們先前談到翻譯與改編之間的關係，你本身也從事一些莎劇改編，先與陳芳教授合作豫莎劇三部曲，之後又有客莎劇的改編。[17] 當初雙方是如何起心動念，決定合作進行這些跨文化的演出？

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[16] 大衛．克里斯托（David Crystal）為英國語言學家，其子班．克里斯托（Ben Crystal）大學時研習英文與語言學，畢業後成為作家、演員與製作人。兩人致力於研究與重現莎劇中的語言，共同編撰 *Shakespeare's Words: A Glossary and Language Companion*（Crystal & Crystal, 2002），雖然該書近 700 頁，但所能容納的內容依然有限，於是創立 ShakespearesWords 網站（https://www.shakespeareswords.com/），2008 年對外開放，分享相關資訊。

[17] 臺灣豫劇團的「豫莎劇」首部曲《約／束》（*Bond*）改編自《威尼斯商人》，於 2009 年演出；二部曲《量・度》（*Measure, Measure!*）改編自《量・度》，於 2012 年演出；三部曲《天問》（*Questioning Heaven*）改編自《李爾王》，於 2015 年演出。榮興客家採茶劇團的客莎劇第一部《背叛》於 2014 年演出，改編自葛林布萊和查爾斯．密（Charles Mee）的美國現代話劇《卡丹紐》（*Cardenio*），後者是根據想像中的「失傳」莎劇《卡丹紐》新創；第二部《可待》於 2019 年演出，改編自《皆大歡喜》。這些改編都是根據彭鏡禧的中文譯本。

彭：說來話長。我在芝加哥大學翻譯《哈姆雷》，大概三、四月間，在做最後整理的時候，接到臺大的電話，要我回去以後接戲劇系的系主任。我當時一口回絕，因為我不是戲劇專業人士，雖然大概知道戲劇是怎麼一回事，但沒受過這方面的訓練。我覺得擔任行政職務是義務，因為我們受過栽培，但是我已經做了三年外文系的系主任，加上健康的緣故，所以想說夠了。況且我深深記得朱立民老師的話，他有行政長才，學問也很好，但覺得行政耽誤了自己的研究，所以著作不多。他那本《美國文學》（朱立民，1963）當然是經典，不過他應該可以寫出更多的學術著作。他覺得這是一個遺憾。我當然不能跟朱老師比，但也不希望有這種遺憾。我回絕之後過一陣子，又有人來遊說。找我的原因是創系的系主任胡耀恆老師要退休，系裡其他成員都是副教授以下，比較年輕，而且藝術家往往有各自的想法，有時候溝通不是那麼好，所以想找資深一點的人來當系主任。

那時候我還沒受洗，燕生[18]則是虔誠的基督徒，我們每天讀《荒漠甘泉》（*Streams in the Desert*）（考門夫人，1920／2006）。《荒漠甘泉》總共 366 篇，每篇都有一句經文引言，是作者考門夫人（Lettie Burd Cowman）靈修的心得和感悟，不時會引用一些詩。我們每天看一篇，四月間有一天讀到一句經文：「臨到我們的時候，就是神對我們的旨意了。」（考門夫人，1920／2006，頁 584–585），燕生就想到：「他們找你當系主任，這是不是神的旨意？」那天電話又來了。之後第二天、第三天、第四天，連續六天，讀到的引言都跟這件事有關，包括：要往哪裡去，他自己不知道，可是祂知道；嚮導知道怎樣引領你前進，祂將領你走一條你所夢想不到的路徑……。連續六天看下來，都可以作這種解讀（interpretation），於是我就回覆說，好，我願意考慮，等我回來看看這個系的情況。我跟這個系有點淵源，當年要設系時我是課程設計的

[18] 彭教授的夫人夏燕生多年任教於國立政治大學西洋語文學系（今英國語文學系），講授英詩等課程。

諮詢委員之一，但跟系上的老師沒有交集，所以就說回來看看，他們也答應了。

我介紹方平的《新莎士比亞全集》來臺灣出版（莎士比亞，1591–1613／2000，1591–1613／2001b，1591–1613／2002，1591–1613／2003），有一個發表會，就趁機回臺灣。見了臺大的校長、教務長，也跟戲劇系的每位老師、大學生代表、研究生仔細談了以後，決定接下系主任的職位。正好就有這麼巧妙的安排，我有一位外文系畢業的學生林逸是教育部駐美國代表處教育組的祕書，在華府（Washington, D.C.）工作。我就請他協助，說自己回去後要擔任戲劇系系主任，但對於戲劇方面什麼都不懂，希望他幫忙找跟臺大相稱的大學讓我去交流。於是他安排我去了馬里蘭大學（University of Maryland）參訪他們的戲劇系，回國之後我就從外文系轉到戲劇系。當然外文系研究戲劇的老師也很多，但是我到了戲劇系，可以有機會真正觀察到一齣戲是怎麼做起來的，因此認識了戲劇界的人士，也加入了中華戲劇協會。過沒多久，我當了會長，需要找一位祕書長。我懂一點西洋戲劇，但不懂當代臺灣戲劇和傳統戲曲，於是找到陳芳，她是師大（國立臺灣師範大學）國文系教授，我和燕生到雲南開會時認識了她。

單：她在訪談裡提到聽了你四年的課（陳芳、梁文菁，2016）。

彭：對，不過這是後來的事。我請她擔任祕書長，她很夠意思，願意幫忙。她了解戲劇界的情形，在戲劇協會我們共同做了一些事，後來她就來上我的課。有些老師會跑來聽個幾次或一學期的課，但她每學期只要我開莎士比亞的課都來上，這需要很大的毅力，這是我跟她結緣的經過。陳芳在戲曲界作過很多貢獻，是臺灣豫劇團（前「國立國光劇團豫劇隊」）的顧問。2000 年臺灣豫劇團做了一個《中國公主杜蘭朵》的戲曲作品，是根據魏明倫改編自普契尼（Giacomo Puccini）歌劇《杜蘭朵》（*Turandot*）的川劇版本再改編，還有一些大陸編的劇碼也都做過。他們覺得傳統劇目不夠，也不一定適合這個時代的品味。但是該怎麼寫新的劇本？陳老

師那時候已經在上我的課了，因此她想，要不就改編莎士比亞？我跟豫劇團並不認識，他們就託她來找我。我想，要做也可以，可是我不會寫豫劇，但她會寫，於是敲定兩人合作，我來幫她改編，先從《威尼斯商人》開始。

單：她在訪談中特別提到劇本是你挑的（陳芳、梁文菁，2016）。

彭：對。我記得在2008年，北京奧運（2008年夏季奧林匹克運動會）那一年，大陸請了很多劇團去表演，包括李國修導演的屏風表演班的《莎姆雷特》，國修邀請我一起去北京，[19] 我利用在旅館空閒的時間開始改編。莎劇改編成傳統戲曲必須簡化，刪掉很多劇情。《威尼斯商人》這部戲最重要的是什麼？我覺得是「約」與「束」。我在劇前有解釋，「約」與「束」之間有條斜槓，「約」帶來「束」，是為《約／束》（彭鏡禧，2009a，頁ix）。基本上，我把「約」與「束」分開來看。你簽了一個約，以為自己占了便宜；當你占便宜時，一定就有人吃虧。吃虧的人為什麼要跟你訂約，一定也是他覺得占了便宜。這關係是互相的，一定會造成束縛。這齣戲裡的幾個情節都可以從有約／束的觀點來看，因此我就把「約」跟「束」的關係作為改編的主軸。

西洋歌劇的重點在於歌唱，豫劇基本上也講究唱功、身段，可是還要有一個故事。我從美國回來以後，覺得我們的傳統戲通常只演折子戲，例如〈六月雪〉很動人，可是基本上要假設觀眾已經知道《竇娥冤》的故事，但是現在已經不能對觀眾作這種假設，加上能夠欣賞劇目、唱腔的人愈來愈少，因此我覺得新戲曲應該有一個完整的故事，具有戲劇性。於是我就把第幾幕第幾景、哪裡到哪裡發生什麼事都安排好，請陳芳老師編，初稿編完之後再請專家給意見。他們說有點像「話劇加唱」，沒

[19] 《莎姆雷特》是屏風表演班經典的定目劇，也是臺灣現代劇場最具代表性的喜劇作品之一，在臺灣曾三度搬上舞臺（1992、1995、2000年），並於2006年和2008年分別於北京解放軍歌劇院和北京國家大劇院上演。

有融合得很好。陳老師就繼續改，呂柏伸導演也給了建議，《約／束》就是這樣慢慢磨出來的。

這齣戲在排練的時候，英國倫敦大學國王學院（King's College London）的馬莎（Sonia Massai）教授來臺大訪問，知道我們在做這個，就說她第二年（2009 年）9 月在英國倫敦舉辦莎士比亞雙年會，邀請我們去表演。因為雙方都有經費限制，所以決定只演法庭的《折辯 ‧ 判決》兩折。同時我們也組一個團，到那邊參加研討會，發表論文。結果演出的效果相當好，王海玲的表演非常精采。2009 年回來臺灣後，11 月起正式全本演出。2011 年美國莎士比亞學會邀請我們去他們的年會表演，[20] 顯然是英國方面提供他們訊息。接著我們又到斯克蘭頓大學（The University of Scranton）、密西根大學巡演，中間王海玲跑到哈佛大學（Harvard University）去做講座、示範。

其實這齣戲剛出來的時候，豫劇團說他們不會演，因為傳統上都是由老師帶領、教導怎麼演，而這齣戲完全是新的，要怎麼表演？特別是王海玲反串商人夏洛（Shylock）這個角色，行當很多，要有花臉、老生、丑角的身段與唱腔，對她的要求很高。她自己也寫過文章，表示這齣戲對他們是很大的挑戰（王海玲，2009，頁 21）。

第一次的改編相當成功，換句話說，這個實驗是成功的。其實當初就是希望作三部曲，所以接著作第二部。我們在美國華盛頓州貝爾維（Bellevue）城裡，華盛頓大學（University of Washington）附近一間大旅館的表演廳演出《約／束》時，當時的美國莎士比亞學會會長就問，你們下一齣戲是什麼？一般演完之後，觀眾都喜歡問這個問題。那時我正在翻譯《量 ‧ 度》。關於選擇翻譯成《量 ‧ 度》的原因，我之前提到，舊有的諸多中譯名自有道理，可是我進入戲劇系之後，對閱讀和翻譯都

[20] 臺灣豫劇團應邀於 2011 年 4 月 7 日與 8 日於西雅圖美國莎士比亞學會年會演出豫莎劇《約／束》與豫劇折子精選劇碼。

有了新的詮釋。“measure for measure” 是從聖經來的：「你們用什麼標準衡量人，也必定照樣被衡量」“what measure ye mete, it shall be measured to you again”（狄考文等，1919／2018；*King James Bible*, 1769/2021）。我覺得莎士比亞取這個名字，一個 “measure” 是「量」，另一個 “measure” 是量完以後，想想怎麼處理，也就是「度」。《量 ・ 度》裡面討論的就是：量了以後，你可以說「你對他如此，所以我就對你如此」。可是戲裡的這個「壞人」已經跟另一個女人結婚，你若把他殺了，那寡婦怎麼辦？於是需要「度」，要考慮一下，結果沒有把他殺掉。所以我把題目訂為《量 ・ 度》，也請陳芳老師改編，效果我覺得也不錯。

第三部是《天問》，改編自《李爾王》。豫莎劇三部曲，前兩齣請大陸河南國家一級作曲家耿玉卿編腔，第三齣由他的學生來做。我們的演員沒有河南人，都是臺灣人，所以請他們指導。《天問》曾經到河南演出，最近取了片段到鄭州演出，去年也在北京演出。

這中間還有葛林布萊一個叫「卡丹紐」的計畫。葛林布萊申請到經費，要考據莎士比亞的佚失劇本（Shakespeare’s lost play），既然已經佚失，當然就沒有劇本。皇家莎士比亞劇團演過《卡丹紐》，成了「莎士比亞佚失劇本的再想像」（Shakespeare’s lost play re-imagined）。他們雖然是自己揣摩，但不是憑空而來，還是有參考一些文本，也跑到西班牙去找專家，根據《唐吉訶德》（*Don Quijote de la Mancha*）研究哪幾章大概怎麼呈現。[21] 還有人專門依照無韻詩的格式寫了劇本演出，也舉辦國際研討會，引起了很多人的興趣。

葛林布萊也進行一個叫「文化流動」（cultural mobility）的劇場實驗，基本上是觀察一個故事從一個文化轉換到另一個文化時，會產生什麼樣的改變。葛林布萊找來百老匯（Broadway theatre）劇作家查爾斯・密合

21 卡丹紐故事最早出現於西班牙作家塞萬提斯（Miguel de Cervantes Saavedra）的小說《唐吉訶德》，是其中一段插曲。莎士比亞曾與人合作，將這故事改編為《卡丹紐》演出，後來劇本佚失。參閱陳芳（2014）。

寫《卡丹紐》的劇本。他們的作法不是回到莎士比亞的時代，而是變成現代美國版的話劇。美國版《卡丹紐》已經在日本、印度、埃及、克羅埃西亞、西班牙、巴西、土耳其、波蘭、南非、塞爾維亞等國演出（陳芳，2014，頁 19），但不是直接照搬，而是改編為符合各自語言與文化的形式。這種改編還不能算是翻譯，因為翻譯最接近原作，而改編則是必須呈現這個故事在當地的文化裡會怎麼搬演。

葛林布萊的這個計畫快結束時，陳芳正好在史丹福大學（Stanford University）當訪問學者，應邀到哈佛大學演講，她談到了《約／束》。聽眾中有個研究生是葛林布萊的助理，陳老師就給他《約／束》的錄影帶，助理告訴了葛林布萊，他很感興趣，就來信問我們願不願意也做這樣的改編。我們認為很好，就接了下來，由哈佛大學提供經費補助。《卡丹紐》改編以後，正好文化大學中國戲劇學系要畢業公演，採用了我們的劇本，由李寶春導演，用傳統戲曲的方式改編成舞臺劇，劇名《背叛》（*Betrayal*），是「類京劇」版（中國文化大學中國戲劇學系，2013）。雖然是學生演戲，但主角都由京劇專業演員扮演。公演時葛林布萊親自飛到臺灣看，也來臺大演講，表示很滿意，因為他在美國不能表達的元素，像是父權，在中國戲曲裡就看得出來。他第二天就飛回美國了。

文化大學的公演只能算半業餘演出，後來專業版是與榮興客家採茶劇團合作，改編成客莎劇《背叛》。因為是客家戲，變動比較大，2014 年《背叛》由陳樂導演在臺大劇場演出，隨後移到城市舞臺（臺北市社教館）演出，贏得該年度一些傳統戲曲類獎項。[22] 今年（2019 年）10 月推出第二部戲《可待》。

單：有豫莎劇的經驗在前，改編客莎劇有些什麼特別的挑戰？

彭：豫莎劇是跟臺灣豫劇團合作，講好做三部曲，寫出來的劇本也可以演京戲，但是改編成客莎劇時就需要做許多修改，因為語言不一樣。豫劇或

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[22] 客家大戲《背叛》DVD 榮獲第 26 屆傳藝金曲獎「最佳傳統表演藝術影音出版獎」、「最佳年度演出獎」；女主角陳芝后入圍該屆傳藝金曲獎「最佳表演新秀獎」。

京戲的唱腔用字比較一貫，是依照中國傳統的平仄押韻方式，可是改編成客家山歌或歌仔戲，用字方面完全不一樣，句子長短與唱腔配合也都要做比較大的變動。我們很高興客家劇團要演，我雖然是客家人，可是不會寫客家話的文字，陳芳當然也不會。

單：所以不管是用客家話或閩南話，改寫的幅度都很大。

彭：只要語言變了，這些變動就大。

單：你在改編豫莎劇時，與編劇、導演、演員的互動如何？

彭：剛開始他們都不太能接受，不知道要怎麼演，於是邀我和陳芳到高雄跟演員們講戲。我就出題目給他們，比如你要演這個角色，請告訴我，你這個角色是做什麼的？這齣戲是講什麼？先讓演員自己去想，然後根據他們寫出來的東西，一個個指導，針對他們提出的想法給予回饋，讓他們比較了解這齣戲。莎士比亞的戲劇在人性描寫上比較複雜，要怎麼去傳達各種幽微之處，考驗演員的功力和理解。

單：你剛剛提到陳芳的角色、大陸的編腔，那導演的部分呢？

彭：豫劇三部曲都是請呂柏伸導演，他有很多創意。其實在寫劇本的過程中，我們都請他看過初稿，他也提供了一些意見。我的作法是尊重——也就是放任。他是藝術家，看中這個劇本，一定要尊重他的想法，就像我有自己的想法一樣，我很放心地交給他。

單：他在英國念書時也是研究莎士比亞，會不會顧慮忠不忠實於莎士比亞原作？

彭：他沒有跟我談這些。我們交情很好，只要我翻譯的東西他都願意演，包括話劇。臺大戲劇系 2011 年演出的《量 • 度》是因為我要退休，他正好要導戲，他說你翻個戲給我，為退休作紀念。後來《皆大歡喜》他也做了一齣話劇演出。[23] 這方面我是很幸運的，我翻譯的劇本大部分都有

[23] 臺大戲劇系 2011 學期製作《量 • 度》，呂柏伸導演，2011 年 5 月 20 日至 22 日於臺大劇場演出；2016 學期製作《皆大歡喜》，呂柏伸導演，2016 年 6 月 3 日至 5 日於南海劇場演出。

演出。臺南人劇團也演過《哈姆雷》（2014 年）。《皆大歡喜》與《量‧度》是話劇演出，其他是委任／承包（commission），當然就不一樣了。另外五個改成新編的戲曲，也都有演出，這是很幸運的。

單：提到文化流動，一方面是全球化，另一方面是文化移動到不同地方就會出現在地化。葛林布萊的《卡丹紐》計畫，甚至更早的莎士比亞，是不是可以視為一種文化翻譯的現象？

彭：翻譯擴大來講就是轉移。從時間或地理上來看是最清楚的。前幾天我到輔仁大學碰到康士林（Nicholas Koss）教授，他給我印度改編版的《哈姆雷》DVD，封面上的情節簡介（plot summary）跟莎士比亞的劇本相似，就是留學生回來，後來報仇，可是中間有很多地方不一樣。我最近在想改編和原創的問題，事實上從翻譯到改編，這中間一直都有原創的成分，像辜正坤的《十四行詩》中譯的變化就稍微大一點。

當然也有比較保守、亦步亦趨的方式，衍創的成分稍微少一點，主要是原作的轉換。梁欣榮的《魯拜新詮》（費茲傑羅，1889／2013）、《魯拜拾遺》（薩伊迪，1991／2015），或更早的黃克孫的《魯拜集》（費茲傑羅，1889／1989），他們說自己是「衍譯」，「衍」就是繁衍出來新的東西，都是創作。[24] 一般翻譯給我們的印象就是要忠實，譯者自己加上的限制。衍譯則等於是小腳放開了。看不懂海亞姆《魯拜集》的某些中譯內容，可以去看費茲傑羅的英譯本，兩者的內容可能不大一樣，但一樣都是四行。所以從最嚴格的翻譯，慢慢開放一點成為衍創，再到改編，轉化的幅度就更大一點。

比如艾略特的詩集《老負鼠的貓經》（*Old Possum's Book of Practical Cats*），被作曲家韋伯（Andrew Lloyd Webber）改編成音樂劇《貓》

[24] 梁欣榮為前臺大外文系主任，以七言絕句衍譯費茲傑羅（Edward FitzGerald, 1809-1883）英譯的《魯拜集》（*The Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyám*）以及薩伊迪（Ahmad Saidi, 1904-1994）英譯奧瑪珈音（Omar Khayyám，又譯海亞姆）其他 79 首為人淡忘的四行詩。黃克孫為詩人、物理學家，曾任麻州理工學院（Massachusetts Institute of Technology）物理系教授，當研究生時以七言絕句衍譯費茲傑羅英譯的《魯拜集》，獲錢鍾書稱許。該書絕版多年後，由臺北書林書店再度印行。

（*Cats*），一定幾乎是原創，因為類型已經變了，原詩只作為舞臺指示（stage directions）。你說它不忠實？可是就觀眾來講，哪裡在乎這是艾略特的詩？音樂劇只要有趣就夠了。今天演豫莎劇或客莎劇也是一樣，《可待》演完以後舉辦了《可待》論壇，找戲劇專家學者來談改編和原作的關係。但是去看《可待》的觀眾有幾人關心這個？雖然簡介上寫說是根據莎士比亞的《皆大歡喜》改編，其實是利用莎士比亞的名義吸引人來觀賞。就算這人從來沒看過莎士比亞任何一個劇作，看了戲覺得喜歡，那就夠了。

單：可以說是「借殼上市」嗎？

彭：上市是要有真材實料、可以賺錢，人家才會買你這支股票。所以我強調，不能找藉口說：譯文文字不通，是因為翻譯。同理，你改編出來的一定要是好東西，人家看了喜歡，才是成功。至於跟原著的關係，就留給蛋頭學者去研究吧。

英國劇作家史托柏（Tom Stoppard）著名的《伴君成伴虎》（*Rosencrantz and Guildenstern Are Dead*）到底是不是《哈姆雷》的改編？那裡面有莎士比亞的臺詞和角色，可是根本是另一個故事。把莎士比亞劇作裡不受重視的邊緣人物羅森況（Rosencrantz）和紀思騰（Guildenstern）變成主角，是史托柏的慧眼創作。同樣地，他也做了電影劇本《莎翁情史》（*Shakespeare in Love*）。莎翁哪有情史？他是把《羅蜜歐與朱麗葉》（*Romeo and Juliet*）和自編的莎翁情史放在一起，形成互文，這已經是創作了。英國詩人芬頓（James Fenton）的 *The Orphan of Zhao* 也不是什麼《趙氏孤兒》的改編，它就是創作。以前有人說翻譯是一種創作，我還不太相信。現在我的想法是：從翻譯到衍創的光譜（spectrum）裡，可以說每一樣都是創作，只是創新的程度有別。

我在翻譯《威尼斯商人》的過程中有一個想法：所謂跨文化不一定是跨越一個地域或語言；英國莎士比亞時代的劇作放到現代的英國演出，本身就是文化上的跨越，當然術語上不能叫「跨」文化。其實看戲時，

看到的都是自己。現代人跟莎士比亞那個時代的人不同，所以 20 世紀 90 年代左右以後演出的《威尼斯商人》常常強調同性戀。雖然在學術界討論莎士比亞的十四行詩老早就有這種說法，但以前不敢公開談的話題，現在不只公開談，甚至只要找到一點蛛絲馬跡就可以放大，這會影響演出。

我在《威尼斯商人》的〈緒論〉裡提到，影響我最大的是導演農恩（Trevor Nunn）的版本（彭鏡禧，2006b，頁 24–27），法庭上夏洛要刺安東尼（Antonio）的那一幕（兩人是有借貸關係的仇人，約定若無法償還則以一磅肉抵債）。以前的詮釋很簡單，刀子正要刺下去的時候，假扮法學博士的波黠（Portia）就喊停，之後夏洛大敗潰，波黠回去再和丈夫巴薩紐（Bassanio，安東尼好友）鬧一鬧，嘻嘻哈哈結束。直到 1980 年代 BBC 都還是這麼演。可是現在不同了，在農恩的版本裡，夏洛提刀欲刺，第一次波黠沒有阻止，是夏洛自己縮手；第二次波黠眨一個眼，再叫他停。這中間角色的詮釋大不相同。以前的版本太簡單了，眼都不眨就要刺下去，而農恩的版本展現出夏洛的人性：他再奸詐使壞、再想要復仇，也還是個人，對於殺人會猶豫。農恩又暗示，波黠一開始是準備讓安東尼死的，並不是突然靈機一動想出解套的方法，而是老早就想好了。她說，法律是這樣寫的嗎？拿出厚厚的法律條文，冷眼旁觀，直到聽了她丈夫講的話之後，才動念借刀殺人。每個導演有新的想法，就對劇本有新的認識、新的詮釋，而這些詮釋之所以可用各種方式演出來，都因為莎士比亞劇本裡允許這樣的詮釋空間。

單：你難得既為翻譯者又為改編者，兩者的滿足有什麼不同？

彭：翻譯者的滿足多半是在文字上，有些自己很難表達的東西，找到一個表達的機會。而看到戲劇作品在舞臺上實際演出，這個滿足更大。隨著時代的學術潮流，劇本是需要演出的，如果把《莎士比亞全集》翻完卻沒有人演，也就沒什麼意思，等於是違背初衷。莎士比亞的劇本當然是很好的文學作品，有些人可以藉由閱讀欣賞，但是如果可以在舞臺上演出，

讓更多人看到，當然更好，特別是現代人不太看書，看個戲還可以。如果你看到導演、演員的詮釋跟你原本的想法不同，而你也同意這個新詮釋，那就更好了，因為你在那裡看到了創意。

單：你翻譯的劇本在劇場演出時，自己會受現場的氣氛跟觀眾的反應影響嗎？或者說，你會不會特別在意觀眾的反應？

彭：我想每個觀眾都會受到氣氛的影響，這些和演員的表演、導演的手法、音樂、燈光都有關係。坦白講，看自己的戲不如看別人的戲。看自己的戲，有時候因為太熟了，或是已經料到有什麼把戲要出來，反而失去趣味，變成不是普通觀眾或普通讀者。演出結束後，學者批評這、批評那，也是意料中事。我請一些朋友看戲，他們回來讚不絕口，也許是討好，可是我相信他們是真的喜歡。戲一定要吸引觀眾，其中一個方法就是：觀察觀眾在戲裡看到了「怎麼會這樣演？」的時候，有何反應？如果你聽到很多觀眾在這時鼓掌，那顯然得到了滿足與快慰。我覺得歸根究底，做出來的東西必須是好東西，這是最重要的。

單：豫莎劇本身的整個過程有些複雜：最早是你把英文莎劇翻成中文，改編，由陳芳寫出劇本，你又把這劇本翻成英文，出了中英對照版，在不同環境演出時還有中英文字幕。你有什麼要特別說明的嗎？

彭：我覺得這是一個自然的現象。第一，要改編莎劇，其實陳芳自己就可以做。現在的改編版都說明係根據彭鏡禧翻譯，就是說我的翻譯跟別人的有點不同。因為我研究過，而且陳芳可以跟我討論，那就比找梁實秋等沒什麼好討論的譯本有幫助。為什麼要再翻譯成英文，這純屬巧合。第一部作品因為要去英國演出，需要英文字幕，我乾脆自己動手。之後在臺北國家戲劇院演出，有些洋人來看這齣戲，也需要英文字幕。需要英文字幕的也不只是外國人，有些華人去國多年，中文已經不行了，陳芳的詞很典雅，他們不懂，就看英文翻譯。當然這之間又有其他問題，劇本的翻譯和傳統戲曲演出字幕的翻譯又不一樣，後者必須簡化。要有英文字幕才有國際觀眾來看，以後就變成了習慣。整個過程是自然而然發生的。

單：這很可能是原先執行經典譯注計畫時沒有想到的副產品，經典譯注結合了翻譯與研究的成果，所以讀者，尤其學者，在看的時候會比較安心，也可以據此加以發揮。

彭：是的，要作新的詮釋，得先打基礎。像你做的經典譯注這麼厚實，讓人一看就很放心。

單：謝謝美言。很高興有這個機會，請你就學者、譯者與改編者的角度來談論莎劇，分享多年的心得。

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國家教育研究院編譯論叢徵稿辦法

100 年 1 月 17 日第 1 次編輯委員會議修正
100 年 5 月 9 日第 1 次諮詢委員與編輯委員聯席會議修正
101 年 7 月 3 日第 1 次諮詢委員與編輯委員聯席會議修正
103 年 6 月 13 日諮詢委員與編輯委員聯席會議修正
104 年 5 月 18 日諮詢委員與編輯委員聯席會議修正
105 年 5 月 26 日諮詢委員與編輯委員聯席會議修正
107 年 5 月 18 日諮詢委員與編輯委員聯席會議修正
108 年 5 月 22 日諮詢委員與編輯委員聯席會議修正
109 年 7 月 3 日 109 年第 2 次編輯會修正
110 年 6 月 24 日 110 年第 1 次編輯會修正

一、本刊為一結合理論與實務之學術性半年刊，以促進國內編譯研究之發展為宗旨，於每年三月、九月中旬出刊，隨到隨審，歡迎各界賜稿。

二、本刊接受中文及英文稿件，主要收稿範圍如下：

<table>
<tr><th>稿件類別</th><th>文章性質</th><th>主題</th><th>建議字數（註1）</th></tr>
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中文摘要字數以 500 字為限，英文摘要則以 300 字為限。關鍵詞皆為三－五組、中英關鍵詞互相對應。

二、正文文字

（一）中文使用 Word「新細明體」12 號字體，英文則使用 Times New Roman 12 號字體。中文之括號、引號等標點符號須以全形呈現， 英文則以半形的格式為之，如下：

	中文稿件	英文稿件
括號	（）	( )
引號	「」	“ ”
刪節號	……	. . .
破折號	——	—

中文稿件範例：

……老人打算以租賃的方式，於是說：「我亦不欲買此童子，請定每年十圓之契約，賃我可耳……（頁 40），……

英文稿件範例：

. . . This subtle shift is evident in the broadening scope of reference of the word “we”: In the sentence that begins “In China, we bribe . . .,” the pronoun “we” plainly refers only to Chinese people.

（二）字詞的使用一律依據「教育部頒布之《國字標準字體》」之規定為之。如公「布」（非「佈」）、「教」師（非「老」師，除非冠上姓氏）、「占」20%（非「佔」）、「了」解（非「瞭」解）以及「臺」灣（非「台」灣）。

（三）正文文字出現數目時，十以下使用國字（一、二、三、……十），英文使用文字（one, two, three, . . . ten），數目超過十（ten）則使用阿拉伯數字， 特殊情形則視情況處理。圖、表的編號都使用阿拉伯數字。如以下範例：

……有效問卷 16 份（全班 20 位同學）。表 7、8、9 乃是該三個領域之意見統計。……毫無疑問的是多數學生（87.5%）皆同意翻譯語料庫可提供一個反思及認知學習的平臺。……

（四）英文稿件中出現中文時，原則如下：字、詞需以先漢語拼音（需斜體）後中文呈現，必要時再以括弧解釋；句子或段落則視情況處理。

三、文中段落標號格式

壹、（置中，不用空位元，粗體，前後行距一行）

一、　（置左，不用空位元，前後行距為 0.5 行）

（一）（置左，不用空位元）

1.　（置左，不用空位元）
（1）（置左，不用空位元）

四、文中使用之表、圖

表、圖之標號及標題須置於上方且靠左對齊。表、圖與正文前後各空一行，如為引用須於下方註明如參考文獻般詳細的資料來源（含篇名、作者、年代、書名、頁碼等）。表格若跨頁須在跨頁前註明「續下頁」，跨頁表標題需再註明「表標題（續）」。中英文表、圖之格式如下：

	表	圖
中文稿件	• 表標號及標題之中文文字使用標楷體10號字、粗體；表標題另起一行。 • 表標號及標題之英文文字及數字使用Calibri、粗體。 • 表內中文文字使用標楷體；表內英文文字及數字用Calibri。	• 圖標號及標題之中文文字使用標楷體11號字、粗體；圖標題另起一行。 • 圖標號及標題之英文文字及數字使用Calibri、粗體。 • 圖內中文文字用標楷體；圖內英文文字及數字使用Calibri。
英文稿件	• 表標號用Calibri 10號字、粗體；表標題另起一行，Calibri 10號字且須斜體。 • 表內文字用Calibri。表下方若有說明文字用Calibri 10號字。	• 圖標號用Calibri 11號字、粗體；圖標題另起一行，Calibri 11號字且須斜體。 • 圖內文字用Calibri。圖下方若有說明文字用Calibri 10號字。

中文稿件範例：

<u>表範例</u>

表 1

日治初期出版的臺語教本

編著者	書名	發行或經銷所	發行日期
1 俣野保和	《臺灣語集》或 《臺灣日用土語集》	民友社	1895年7月18日
2 岩永六一	《臺灣言語集》	中村鍾美堂	1895年8月29日

（續下頁）

表 1

日治初期出版的臺語教本（續）

	編著者	書名	發行或經銷所	發行日期
3	坂井釟五郎	《臺灣會話編》	嵩山房	1895年9月15日
4	加藤由太郎	《大日本新領地臺灣語學案內》	東洋堂書店	1895年9月22日
5	田內八百久萬	《臺灣語》	太田組事務所	1895年12月5日
6	佐野直記	《臺灣土語》	中西虎彥	1895年12月28日
7	水上梅彥	《日臺會話大全》	民友社	1896年2月17日
8	木原千楯	《獨習自在臺灣語全集》	松村九兵衛	1896年3月2日
9	辻清藏、三矢重松	《臺灣會話篇》	明法堂	1896年3月15日
10	御幡雅文	《警務必攜臺灣散語集》	總督府民政局警保課	1896年3月下旬

圖範例

圖 2

學術名詞審譯委員會加開之作法

英文稿件範例：

表範例

Table 4

Summary of the Participants' Listening Difficulties

Statements	Yes (%)	No (%)
(1) I feel very nervous.	42.86	57.14
(2) I am not familiar with grammar.	54.29	45.71
(3) I have insufficient vocabulary.	97.14	2.86

(continued)

Table 4

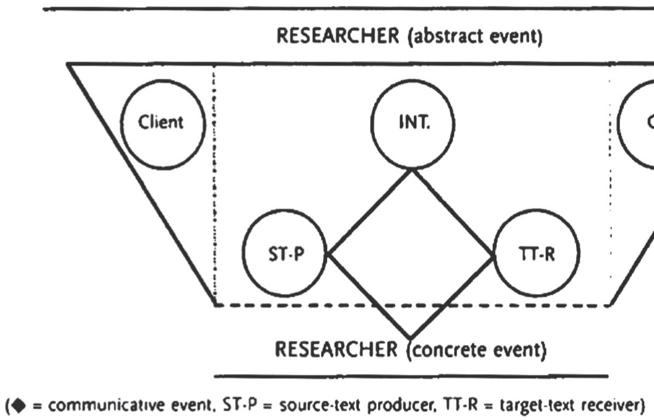
Summary of the Participants' Listening Difficulties (continued)

Statements	Yes (%)	No (%)
(4) I cannot make a distinction between words.	14.29	85.71
(5) I cannot recognize the stress of words.	31.43	68.57
(6) I can make a distinction between words, but fail to chunk them meaningfully.	60.00	40.00
(7) I am familiar with the words, but fail to recall them.	94.29	5.71
(8) I have difficulty concentrating.	35.71	64.29
(9) I have difficulty concentrating at first, so I miss the first listening section.	51.43	48.57
(10) I concentrate too much on the first listening section, so I miss the listening later.	55.71	44.29
(11) I cannot understand the first section, so I miss the listening later.	41.43	58.57
(12) I cannot keep in mind what I have just heard.	30.00	70.00
(13) I feel that the listening text is too long.	74.29	25.71
(14) I feel that the listening text has no sufficient pause.	72.86	27.14
(15) I feel that the listening text is too short to develop main ideas.	28.57	71.43
(16) I am not familiar with the listening subject.	78.57	21.43
(17) I am not interested in the listening subject.	45.71	54.29
(18) I fail to keep up with the speech rate.	70.00	30.00
(19) I am not used to the speaker's enunciation.	62.86	37.14
(20) I am not used to the speaker's intonation.	30.00	70.00
(21) I am not used to the speaker's accent.	62.86	
(22) I have no chance to listen again.	42.86	57.14
(23) I count on listening only, without any visual aids.	41.43	58.57
(24) I have limited exposure to English listening.	68.57	31.43

圖範例

Figure 11

Perspectives on Quality Assessment in Interpretation



Note. From "Quality Assessment in Conference and Community Interpreting," by F. Pöchhacker, 2001, *Meta*, *46*(2), p. 412 (https://doi.org/10.7202/003847ar).

五、文中引用其他說明

佐證或直接引用超過 40 字時，均須將引文內縮六個位元，中文以「標楷體」11 號字體呈現。中文年代後用逗號「，」，以「頁」帶出頁碼；英文年分後用逗點「,」，以「p.」帶出頁碼。年分一律統一以西元呈現。

中文稿件範例：

……《紅樓夢大辭典》詞條：

> 抱廈廳：在房屋正面或背面接出有獨立屋頂的建築稱抱廈。廳是指用於居住以外的接待、集會或是其他公共活動的房屋。抱廈廳即為用作廳房的抱廈。（馮其庸、李希凡，1990，頁 190）

英文稿件範例：

. . . Vermeer states:

> Any form of translational action, including therefore translation itself, may be conceived as an action, as the name implies. Any action has an aim, a purpose. ... The word skopos, then, is a technical term to represent the aim or purpose of a translation. (Nord, 1997, p. 12)

六、附註

需於標點之後，並以上標為之；附註之說明請於同一頁下方區隔線下說明，說明文字第二行起應和第一行的文字對齊。簡而言之，附註應以「當頁註」之方式呈現，亦即 Word 中「插入註腳」之功能。註腳第二行以下文字須縮排，註腳所使用之中文字體為標楷體。

七、正文引註

（一）正文引註之作者為一個人時，格式為：

中文	作者（年代）或（作者，年代） 範例 謝天振（2002）或（謝天振，2002）
英文	Author (Year) 或 (Author, Year) 範例 Chern (2002) 或 (Chern, 2002)

（二）正文引註之作者為兩個人時，作者的姓名（中文）或姓氏（英文）於文中以「與」（中文）和「and」（英文）連接，括弧中則以「、」（中文）和「&」（英文）連接：

中文	作者一與作者二（年代）或（作者一、作者二，年代） 範例一 莫言與王堯（2003）或（莫言、王堯，2003） 範例二（中文論文引用英文文獻） Wassertein 與 Rosen（1994）或（Wassertein & Rosen, 1994）
英文	Author 1 and Author 2 (Year) 或 (Author 1 & Author 2, Year) 範例 Hayati and Jalilifar (2009) 或 (Hayati & Jalilifar, 2009)

（三）正文引註之作者為三人以上時，寫出第一位作者並加「等」（中文）和「et al.」（英文）即可。

中文	作者一等（年代）或（作者一等，年代） 範例 謝文全等（1985）或（謝文全等，1985）
英文	Author 1 et al. (Year) 或 (Author 1 et al., Year) 範例 Piolat et al. (2005) 或 (Piolat et al., 2005)

（四）括弧內同時包含多筆文獻時，依筆畫（中文）／姓氏字母（英文）及年代優先順序排列，不同作者間以分號分開，相同作者不同年代之文獻則以逗號分開。

中文	（吳清山、林天祐，1994，1995a，1995b；劉春榮，1995）
英文	(Pautler, 1992; Razik & Swanson, 1993a, 1993b)

（五）部分引用文獻時，要逐一標明特定出處，若引用原文獻語句40字以內，所引用文字需加雙引號（「」或 “” ）並加註頁碼。

中文	1.（陳明終，1994，第八章） 2.「……」（徐鑄成，2009，頁302）
英文	1. (Shujaa, 1992, chap. 8) 2. “. . .” (Bourdieu, 1990, p. 54)

（六）正文引註翻譯書，年代請列明：原著出版年／譯本出版年。

八、參考文獻

「參考文獻」之括號，中文以全形（ ）、英文以半形 ( ) 為之：第二行起縮排四個半形位元。此外，中文文獻應與外文文獻分開，中文文獻在前，外文文獻在後。不同類型文獻之所求格式如下：

（一）期刊類格式包括作者、出版年、文章名稱、期刊名稱、卷期數、起迄頁碼、DOI 或 URL（非紙本資料）等均須齊全。中文文章名稱加〈 〉，中文期刊名稱加《》；英文期刊名稱及卷號為斜體。僅有期數者則僅列明期數，無須加括號，並自第二行起空四個字元。亦即：

中文期刊格式：

作者一、作者二、作者三（年）。〈文章名稱〉。《期刊名稱》，卷別（期別），頁碼。DOI 或 URL

範例

林慶隆、劉欣宜、吳培若、丁彥平（2011）。〈臺灣翻譯發展相關議題之探討〉。《編譯論叢》，4（2），181–200。https://doi.org/10.29912/CTR.201109.0007

英文期刊格式：

Author, A. A., Author, B. B., & Author, C. C. (Year). Title of article. *Title of Periodical*, *xx*(xx), xx-xx. DOI or URL

<u>範例</u>

Aspy, D. J., & Proeve, M. (2017). Mindfulness and loving-kindness meditation: Effects on connectedness to humanity and to the natural world. *Psychological Reports*, *120*(1), 102-117. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033294116685867

（二）書籍類格式包括作者、出版年、書名（第二版以上須註明版別）、出版單位等均須齊全，且中文書名加《》，英文書名為斜體，並自第二行起空四個位元。

中文書籍格式：

作者（年代）。《書名》（版別）。出版單位。

<u>範例</u>

宋新娟（2005）。《書籍裝幀設計》（第二版）。武漢大學。

英文書籍格式：

Author, A. A. (Year). *Book title.* Publisher.

<u>範例</u>

Jauss, H. R. (1982). *Toward an aesthetic of reception*. University of Minnesota Press.

（三）書籍篇章格式包括篇章作者、出版年、篇章名、編者、書名（第二版以上須註明版別）、起迄頁碼、出版單位等均須齊全，且中文篇章名前後加〈 〉，中文書名前後加《》，英文書名為斜體，並自第二行起空四個位元。

中文書籍篇章格式：

作者（年代）。〈章名〉。載於編者（主編），《書名》（版別，頁碼）。出版單位。

範例

單德興（2019）。〈冷戰時代的美國文學中譯：今日世界出版社之文學翻譯與文化政治〉。載於賴慈芸（主編），《臺灣翻譯史：殖民、國族與認同》（頁 467–514）。聯經。

英文書籍篇章格式：

Author, A. A. (Year). Chapter title. In B. B. Author & C. C. Author (Eds.), *Book title* (x ed., pp. xx-xx). Publisher.

範例

Weinstock, R., Leong, G. B., & Silva, J. A. (2003). Defining forensic psychiatry: Roles and responsibilities. In R. Rosner (Ed.), *Principles and practice of forensic psychiatry* (2nd ed., pp. 7-13). CRC Press.

（四）翻譯書籍格式包括原作者中文譯名、原作者原文名、譯本出版年、翻譯書名、譯者、版別（第二版以上須註明版別）、譯本出版單位、原著出版年等均須齊全，且中文書名加《》，英文書名為斜體，並自第二行起空四個位元。

中文翻譯書格式：

原作者中文譯名（原作者原文名）（譯本出版年）。《翻譯書名》（譯者譯；版別）。譯本出版單位。（原著出版年）

範例

喬伊斯（Joyce, J.）（1995）。《尤利西斯》（蕭乾、文潔若譯）。時報文化。（原著出版年：1984）

英文翻譯書格式：

Author, A. A. (Year). *Book title* (B. Author, Trans.; x ed.). Publisher. (Original work published year)

範例

Piaget, J., & Inhelder, B. (1969). *The psychology of the child* (H. Weaver, Trans.; 2nd ed.). Basic Books. (Original work published 1966)

（五）國內、外會議之研討會發表／論文發表皆須列出作者、會議舉辦日期、發表題目／文章篇名、發表類型、會議名稱及會議地點、DOI 或 URL（網路資料需列）等，且中文發表題目／文章篇名加〈 〉、英文發表題目／文章篇名為斜體，自第二行起空四個位元。

中文研討會發表／論文發表格式：

作者（年月日）。〈發表題目／文章篇名〉（類型）。研討會名稱，舉行地點。DOI 或 URL

範例

劉康怡（2019 年 9 月 27 日）。〈經典俄國文學作品翻譯中譯注之探討——以《地下室手記》之中譯本為例〉（論文發表）。2019 臺灣翻譯研討會——語文教育與翻譯，臺北市，中華民國（臺灣）。

英文研討會發表／論文發表格式：

Author, A. A., & Author, B. B. (Date). *Title of contribution* [Type of contribution]. Conference Name, Location. DOI or URL

範例

Fistek, A., Jester, E., & Sonnenberg, K. (2017, July 12-15). *Everybody's got a little music in them: Using music therapy to connect, engage, and motivate*

[Conference session]. Autism Society National Conference, Milwaukee, WI, United States. https://asa.confex.com/asa/2017/webpro gramarchives/Session 9517.html

（六）網路訊息格式包括作者、發表日期（若有顯示）、訊息標題、網站名稱、URL 等均須齊全，且中文訊息標題前後加〈 〉、英文訊息標題為斜體。第二行起空四個位元。（會持續更新且無保存變更紀錄的網頁／網站訊息才須註明擷取日期）

中文網路訊息格式：

作者（年月日）。〈訊息標題〉。網站名稱。URL

範例

潘乃欣（2020 年 6 月 10 日）。〈名字沒有龜也值得去！教部鼓勵登龜山島認識海洋〉。聯合新聞網。https://udn.com/news/story/6885/4625731?from=udn-catebreaknews_ch2

英文網路訊息格式：

Author, A. A. (Date). *Title of work*. Site Name. URL

範例

Peterson, S. M. (2017, October 27). *Why aromatherapy is showing up in hospital surgical units*. Mayo Clinic. https://www.mayoclinic.org/healthy-lifestyle/stress-management/in-depth/why-aromatherapy-is-showing-up-in-hospital-surgical-units/art-20342126

（七）學位論文格式包括作者、年分、論文標題、出版狀況與學位類型、學校名稱、資料庫／檔案庫名稱及 URL 等均須齊全，中文論文標題加《》，英文論文標題為斜體，自第二行起空四個位元。

中文學位論文格式：

博士／碩士論文：

作者（年）。《論文標題》（博／碩士論文）。校名。

範例

白立平（2004）。《詩學、意識形態及贊助人與翻譯：梁實秋翻譯研究》（博士論文）。香港中文大學。

英文學位論文格式：

1. 未出版學位論文：

Author, A. A. (Year). *Title of dissertation or thesis* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation or master's thesis]. Name of Institution.

範例

Wilfley, D. E. (1989). *Interpersonal analyses of bulimia: Normal weight and obese* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. University of Missouri.

2. 已出版學位論文：

Author, A. A. (Year). *Title of dissertation or thesis* [Doctoral dissertation or Master's thesis, Name of Institution]. Database or Archive Name. URL

範例

Lui, T. T. F. (2013). *Experiences in the bubble: Assimilation and acculturative stress of Chinese heritage students in Silicon Valley* [Master's thesis, Stanford University]. Graduate School of Education International Comparative Education Master's Monographs Digital Collection. https://searchworks.stanford.edu/view/10325276

中文參考文獻英譯說明

中文稿件經初審後請作者修改時，作者須加列中文參考文獻之英譯。相關說明如下：

1. 每一筆英譯請置於【】內，並各自列於該筆中文參考文獻下方。
2. 若中文參考文獻本身已有英譯，以該英譯為準，若本身並無英譯則以漢語拼音逐詞音譯方式處理，斷詞標準參考國教院分詞系統，網址為 https://coct.naer.edu.tw/Segmentor/。
3. 英譯之後的參考文獻格式，請參考美國心理學會（American Psychological Association, APA）之寫作格式（第七版）。

中文參考文獻英譯範例：

潘少瑜（2011）。〈想像西方：論周瘦鵑的「偽翻譯」小說〉。《編譯論叢》，4（2），1–23。https://doi.org/10.29912/CTR.201109.0001

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