

國立政治大學語言學研究所碩士論文

National Chengchi University

Graduate Institute of Linguistics

Master Thesis

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中文主題串英譯之研究

A Study on the English Translation of Chinese Topic Chains

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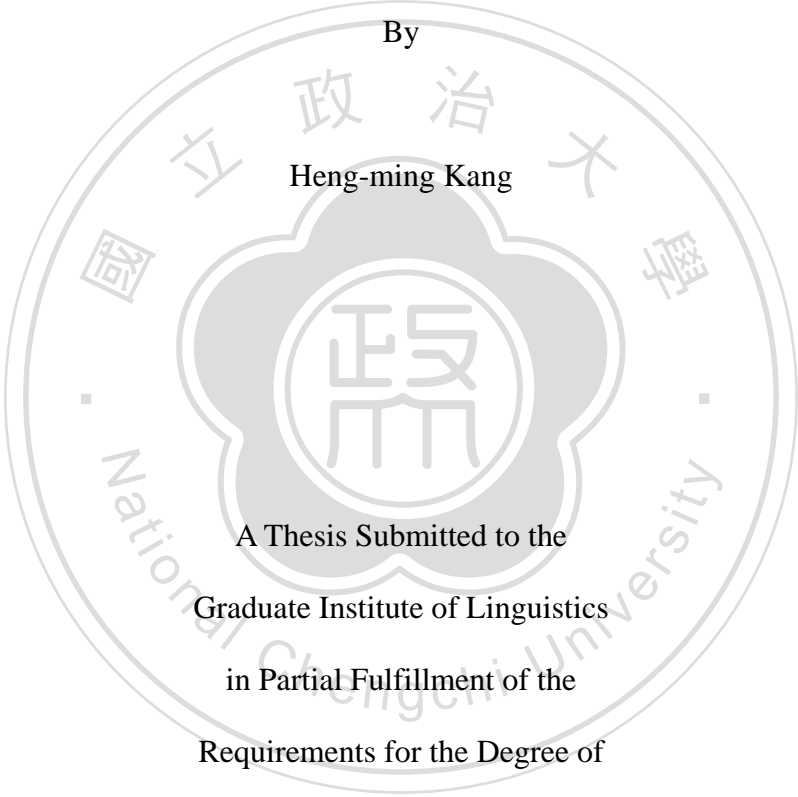
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January, 2015

A Study on the English Translation of Chinese Topic Chains

By

Heng-ming Kang

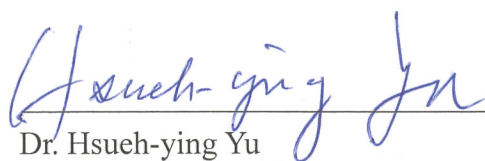
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A Thesis Submitted to the
Graduate Institute of Linguistics
in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of

Master of Arts

January 2015

The members of the Committee approve the thesis of
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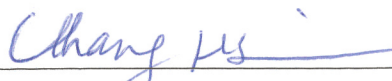
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To my mother

獻給我的母親



謝詞

辛苦了這麼久，总算把這本論文生出來了。能夠有今天的成就，要感謝的人很多。

首先，要感謝我的語言學啟蒙老師，李櫻老師。相當年在師大求學時，還對自己的英文文法觀念相當自負。一直到大三修習李櫻老師的「英語功能語法」後，對英語語法，甚至是對「語言」的理解，整個改觀。李櫻老師帶領我們分析坊間參考書的文法，鼓勵我們思考文法背後的道理。感謝李櫻老師讓我看見自身對英語了解的不足，將我對語法的理解從句子帶到篇章層次，讓我對功能語言學產生興趣，因而進入政大語言所求知。

接著要感謝我的指導教授尤雪瑛老師。進入政大之前，其實我早就打定主意要跟尤老師做研究，因為尤老師是台灣少數研究篇章語法的學者。進入研究所後，我一路跟著尤老師上課，到最後做論文研究。尤老師除了強調理論外，更重視應用，讓我將學到的知識化為可利用的工具。從一開始思考論文題目，到討論研究方法，感謝尤老師總是能夠一針見血，突破我的盲點，給予我不同的思考面向。除了研究之外，尤老師對寫作的高標準也讓我重新省視自己的寫作風格，並且更加精進。另外，感謝我的論文口試委員：李櫻老師及賴惠玲老師。兩位老師願意抽空閱讀我的論文，並給予我寶貴的建議，真是我的一大榮幸！

在政大語言所的求學過程中，相當豐富精彩。感謝所上每位老師帶我認識語言的各個面向：蕭宇超老師、何萬順老師、黃瓊之老師、徐嘉慧老師、張郇慧老師、萬依萍老師、莫建清老師。另外感謝所上惠玲助教總是在我慌張無措時給我適時的幫助。感謝一起在季陶樓奮鬥過的研究所同學，每天五點下課後可以一起去吃晚餐繼續討論語言學，真是人生難得的經驗。感謝客家庄的詩敏和秋杏學姐，在我感到困惑時總能給我一些建議。

另外要感謝在我寫論文時一路陪伴我的 K。寫論文時壓力很大，你總是能夠體諒，給我許多鼓勵。有時候怠惰下來，你也會不斷鞭策我。儘管學科不同，你也很樂意幫我整理語料和檔案，非常感謝你的付出。

最後，感謝我的父親康振義與母親李滿菊。感謝你們的養育與照顧，雖然你們對我所學只有一點模糊的概念，但仍然默默的支持。未能讓母親來得及看見我拿到畢業證書，是我一生的遺憾。這本論文完成，希望能慰藉母親在天之靈。

國立政治大學研究所碩士論文提要

研究所別：語言學研究所

論文名稱：中文主題串英譯之研究

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論文提要內容：(共一冊，23,943字，分五章)

中文可說是個篇章導向的語言(discourse-oriented language)，以篇章為其基本單位，數個中文子句不藉連接詞即可連結成主題串(topic chain)。當如此龐大的篇章單位翻譯成主語顯著的英文時，譯者會面臨的困難是，如何將主題串切割成數個英文句子。然而，此議題卻鮮少前人研究。因此，本論文試圖探討中文主題串英譯時的翻譯策略，並著重於斷句的影響因素。分析的語料來自漢英對照版的台灣光華雜誌以及翻譯教科書。為了瞭解翻譯策略，本研究分析中文的語意分段標記與資訊順序，並與譯文比較。分析結果顯示譯者在翻譯時會採用三種策略：反映段落標記(Reflecting the Markers)、建立語句關係(Establishing Textuality)、重整資訊(Rearranging Information)。第一個策略是將中文段落標記作為英譯斷句的依據。段落標記包括三類：主題的形式、連接詞、標點符號。第二個策略，建立語句關係，表示英譯斷句依據中文主題串各句子之間的篇章關係。第三個策略，重整資訊，表示透過增加、刪除、調換順序等方式調整原文的資訊。

關鍵詞：翻譯、中譯英、翻譯策略、篇章分析、主題串、篇章標記、篇章關係

Abstract

Chinese is considered a discourse-oriented language. The basic unit of the Chinese language is discourse-based. Several Chinese clauses can be linked together without any connectives to form a topic chain. When such a large discourse is translated into English, a subject-prominent language, translators may have difficulty deciding how to segment a Chinese topic chain into English sentences. However, little research has been done on this topic. The present study aims to explore translation strategies used in translating Chinese topic chains into English. In particular, the demarcation mechanism will be the focus. Chinese-to-English translation data from *Taiwan Panorama*, a Chinese-English bilingual magazine, and from translation textbooks are collected for analysis. The demarcation markers and information flow in Chinese are analyzed and compared to understand how they are treated in the English translation. Three strategies have been found: Reflecting the Markers, Establishing Textuality, and Rearranging Information. Reflecting the Markers is to reflect the Chinese boundary markers as English demarcation points. Boundary markers contain nominal references of topic, connectives, and punctuation marks. Establishing Textuality is to organize the Chinese topic chain based on the internal textual relationships. Rearranging Information is to add, delete, or reorder the information.

Keywords: translation, C-E translation, translation strategy, discourse analysis, topic chain, discourse marker, textual relationship

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Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 Background and Motivation

With the development of technology, international communication has become easier than ever. The needs for translation and interpretation have been increasing, either for the purpose of business, travel, politics, or academy.

Translation studies is a new academic discipline, formally established after the Third International Congress of Applied Linguistics in Copenhagen in 1972 (Liao, 2011), but it has received great attention since then. In Taiwan, since 1988, eight graduate institutes of translation and interpretation studies, two undergraduate departments, and much more non-degree programs have been established. Translation as a profession is also emphasized in the field of teaching English as a second/foreign language. Some scholars include translation into the basic skills for English and propose five skills—listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation (Naimushin, 2002; Newmark, 1991). The largest-scale English proficiency test in Taiwan, the General English Proficiency Test, even includes Chinese-to-English passage translation into the writing test at Intermediate and at High-Intermediate level.

Despite the emphasis received in translation education and test, the studies on teaching translation and translation theory are still insufficient (Liao, 2011). Most

translation teachers could not provide a specific guideline for students to follow.

When it comes to the standard of good translation, most translation teachers would probably still refer to the three-word maxim: *xin* (信) ‘faithfulness,’ *da* (達) ‘expressiveness,’ and *ya* (雅) ‘elegance.’ The three words, first proposed by Yan Fu in his preface of the translation of Thomas Henry Huxley’s *Evolution and Ethics* in 1898, are still regarded as golden rules today. According to Shen’s (2000) interpretation, *xin* (信) means the translation is faithful to the source text, not twisting the original meaning. *Da* (達) indicates that the translation is fluent and coherent. *Ya* (雅) requires the language in translation to be artistic or literary. However, the three words are still too abstract for students to follow. More specific guidelines are needed for students to follow during the process of translation. The lack of specific teaching guidelines is probably due to the lack of research focusing on translation strategies. Most master and doctoral theses from institutes of translation and interpretation so far have focused on aspects of translation criticism, influence of culture in translation works, translation techniques (e.g. note-taking skills, making use of translation tools), or the role of the translator in translation. Their focuses are more of the translator’s internal reflection. Very few of them draw linguistic findings to study the translation strategies of a certain linguistic structure, such as cohesive devices or discourse structure.

In fact, linguistic findings of contrastive rhetoric can provide some insight into

translation studies. Linguists have demonstrated that Chinese and English are quite different languages in terms of syntactic and discourse structure. Language typologists Li & Thompson (1976) categorize English as a subject-prominent language while Chinese as a topic-prominent language. *Subject* is a syntactic notion while *topic* is a discourse notion (Li & Thompson, 1976; Tsao 1979, 1990; Chu, 1998).

A topic in Chinese can link several clauses¹ together, with or without other conjunctions, to form a “topic chain,” which is a structure that does not exist in English. An example of Chinese topic chain is given in (1):

- (1) (a) 這個 英文 句子_i 真 難，
Zhe-ge Yingwen juzi_i zhen nan
 this-CLASS English sentence really difficult
 (b) 我 不 懂 0_i，
wo bu dong 0_i
 I not understand
 (c) 他 也 不 懂 0_i。
ta ye bu dong 0_i
 he also not understand.

‘This English sentence, (it) is really difficult. I don’t understand (it). He doesn’t understand (it), either.’ (Tsao, 1979, p. 222)

In this example, the topic is *zhe-ge Yingwen juzi* (這個英文句子) ‘this-CLASS English sentence.’ The three clauses (a), (b), and (c) are all about this topic. The topic is established in (a), and it is continued in a zero form in (b) and (c). Conjunctions are

¹ In several studies, the term *sentence* and *clause* have been used interchangeably. Li & Thompson (1976) and Tsao (1979) do not distinguish between the two terms. Chu (1998) proposes another term *link* to describe the clause/sentence in a topic chain but the three terms are still used interchangeably. He also proposes another term *SENTENCE* (all capital) to describe a Chinese sentence ending with a full stop, like a topic chain. Li (2005) adopts the term *clause* to describe a structure which is part of a larger sentence. In the present study, the term *clause* is adopted for a predicate structure and the term *sentence* is used for a string of words ending with a full stop.

not required between the three clauses.

Such a syntactic/discoursal difference between Chinese and English poses a challenge to translators. Single-clause Chinese sentences are likely to be directly translated into an English sentence. Two-clause Chinese sentences may be translated into two English clauses linked with a conjunction. However, if the translation unit is a Chinese topic chain with more than two clauses, it is more difficult to translate.

When translating such a large unit, a translator would not always use conjunctions to connect all the clauses together because it is awkward to use more than one conjunction continuously to link neighboring English clauses. It is more likely for a translator to segment a topic chain into several chunks, reorganize the structure, and then translate the ideas into English.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to explore the translation strategies that English translators would adopt when translating Chinese topic chains, a discourse unit with several clauses linked together, into English, a subject-prominent language. The present study will focus on how a translator segments the Chinese discourse into several English sentences. After reviewing the previous literature on the syntactic and discoursal differences between Chinese and English, we would like to examine the

authentic linguistic data and investigate the translation strategies applied to Chinese topic chain translation. It is expected that the findings of this study will benefit researchers, translation teachers and translation learners as well.

1.3 Organization

The study comprises five chapters. The background and the purpose of the study have been introduced in this chapter. This shall pave the way for the forthcoming Chapter Two: Literature Review. In Chapter Two, studies on the properties of subject and topic will be introduced. Examples of both typical and atypical topic chains will be provided. Following that are previous studies on topic chain translation. In addition, studies on discourse markers and referent forms involved in translation will be discussed. In Chapter Three, the researcher will define topic chain in the present study, explain the data collection method, and describe the data analysis procedure. Chapter Four will present a general description of the data, followed by discussion and examples of the strategies found in the present study. Finally, the last chapter will summarize the major findings of the present study. Pedagogical implications will also be provided.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

In this chapter, previous studies concerning Chinese topic chain and its translation will be presented. Section 2.1 will present the distinctions between *subject* and *topic*. Section 2.2 will present definitions of topic chain from previous studies. Examples of typical and atypical topic chains will be given. Section 2.3 will present previous studies on translation of Chinese topic-comment structure and topic chain. Last, in section 2.4, previous literature on discourse segmentation will be discussed.

2.1 Subject and Topic

The terms *topic* and *comment* are first proposed by Hockett (1958) as a more semantic notion than a syntactic one. They are used to characterize a predicative construction in English and European languages: “the speaker announces a topic and then says something about it” (p. 201). At that time, *topics* were considered *subjects*, while *comments* were considered *predicates*. The terms are adopted by Chao (1968) as semantic terms to describe Chinese subject-predicate structure. He does not treat *topic* differently from *subject*.

The term *topic* is not differentiated from *subject* until the 1970s. A new typology of languages is proposed by Li & Thompson (1976). World languages are classified

based on the two different grammatical relations: subject-predicate and topic-comment. Seven characteristics of topic and subject are proposed (Li & Thompson, 1976, pp. 461-465):

- (1)
- a. A topic must be definite. Proper and generic NPs are also understood as definite. A subject, on the other hand, need not be definite.
 - b. A topic need not have a selectional relation with any verb in a sentence; that is, it need not be an argument of a predicative constituent. On the other hand, a subject always has a selectional relation with some predicate in the sentence².
 - c. A topic is not determined by the verb but by discourse while a subject can be predicted by the verb.
 - d. The functional role of the topic is constant across sentences whereas the functional role of the subject can be defined only within the confines of a sentence.
 - e. A topic does not have obligatory agreement to the predicate; however, a subject has obligatory agreement to the verb.
 - f. A topic is always confined to the sentence-initial position but a subject is not.
 - g. While a subject plays a prominent role in some grammatical processes, such as reflexivization, passivization, imperativization and verb serialization, a topic is not involved in such processes.

From the characteristics proposed by Li & Thompson (1976) in (1), we can see that *topic* is recognized as a discourse notion while *subject* as a syntactic notion. A topic is not determined by the verb and can function across sentences whereas a subject bears selectional relation to the verb and its function is confined in a sentence. Based on the characteristics in (1), world languages are typologized into four: Subject-Prominent

² The surface subject of some sentences may not be selectionally related to the main surface verb. For example, *John* in *John is easy to please* is analyzed selectionally unrelated to the main predicate by some transformational linguists, according to Li & Thompson (1976).

Languages (e.g. English), Topic-Prominent Languages (e.g. Chinese), Subject-Prominent and Topic-Prominent Languages (e.g. Japanese), and Neither Subject-Prominent nor Topic-Prominent Languages (e.g. Tagalog). The four types, according to Li & Thompson, constitute a continuum. Chinese is more topic-prominent than English, but that does not mean subjects cannot be found in Chinese nor does it mean that topics do not exist in such a Subject-Prominent Language as English.

In fact, topic and subject³ are not mutually exclusive in Chinese (Chu, 1998; Tsao, 1979; Li & Thompson, 1981). Chinese sentences can have both a topic and a subject as in text (2). Chinese sentences can also have a nominal form serving as topic and subject at the same time as in text (3). In addition, Chinese sentences may have only a topic without a subject as in (4). What is more, both the topic and the subject can be omitted in a Chinese sentence as in (5).

(2) 那隻 狗 我已經 看過 了。

Na-zhi gou wo yijing kan-guo le

that-CLASS dog I already see-ASP PAR

‘That dog I have already seen.’ (Li & Thompson, 1981, p. 88)

(3) 我 喜歡 吃 蘋果。

Wo xihuan chi pinguo

I like eat apple

‘I like to eat apples.’ (Li & Thompson, 1981, p. 88)

³ The properties of Chinese subject and topic are still at debate. We do not want to go into the debate about the properties of the two terms. For a more detailed discussion, please see Tsao, F.-F. (1979). *A functional study of topic in Chinese: The first step towards discourse analysis*.

- (4) 那本 書 出版了。
Na-ben shu chuban-le
 that-CLASS book publish-ASP
 ‘That book, (someone) has published it.’ (Li & Thompson, 1981, p. 88)
- (5) A: 橘子 壞了 嗎? B: 壞了。
 A: *Juzi huai-le ma* B: *Huai-le.*
 orange spoil-ASP Q spoil-ASP
 ‘Are the oranges spoiled?’ ‘(They) are spoiled’
 (Li & Thompson, 1981, p. 90)

In example (2), *na-zhi gou* (那隻狗) ‘that dog,’ which appears at the beginning of the sentence, is the topic. The pronoun *wo* (我) ‘I’ is the subject because it has selectional relation with the verb *kan* (看) ‘see.’ This sentence has both the topic and the subject. In example (3), the topic is also the subject. *Wo* (我) ‘I’ in this example is both the topic and the subject. In example (4), the topic is *na-ben shu* (那本書) ‘that-CLASS book,’ and the subject is omitted from the sentence. In example (5), B’s answer does not contain the topic/subject *juzi* (橘子) ‘orange’ because it can be understood from the context.

Elaborating on Li & Thompson’s (1976) “topic-prominent language,” Tsao (1979) proposes that Chinese is a “discourse-oriented language.” According to Tsao (1979), subject and topic belong to different levels of grammatical organization. He explicitly states that “[t]opic is a discourse notion” and that “it may, and often does, extend its semantic domain to more than one sentence” (Tsao, 1979, p. 88). “[A] topic can be regarded as a topic only at the discourse level; at the sentence level it may be regarded

as several different things” (Tsao, 1979, p. 92).

A topic has various syntactic and semantic relations to the sentences under its domain. Syntactically, a topic can be the subject, the direct object, or the indirect object.

- (6) (a) 那棵 樹_i 花_j 小_’
Nei-ke shu_i hua_j xiao
 that-CLASS tree flower small
- (b) 0_i 葉子_k 大_’
0_i yezi_k da
 leaf big
- (c) 0_i 很 難看_’
0_i hen nankan
 very ugly
- (d) 所以 0_i 我₁ 沒買_。
suoyi 0_i wo₁ mei mai
 so I not buy
 ‘That tree, its flowers were small. Its leaves were big. It was ugly so I didn’t buy it.’ (Tsao, 1979, pp. 92-93)

In (6), the topic *neike shu* (那棵樹) ‘that tree’ is established in (a). Following the topic, *hua* (花) ‘flower’ in (a) is the subject. In (b), the topic is in the zero form, followed by the subject *yezi* (葉子) ‘leaf.’ In (c), the topic and the subject are identical. In (d), the topic is also the direct object of the verb *mai* (買) ‘buy.’

On the other hand, a topic can take a non-nucleus syntactic position and bear an adverbial relation of either time or place to the verb. In (7), the topic *zuotian* (昨天) ‘yesterday’ is time while in (8), the topic *Beijing-chen li* (北京城裡) ‘inside Beijing city’ is a place.

- (7) 昨天 (啊), 張三 來 看我。
Zuotian (a), Zhang San lai kan wo
 Yesterday (PART) *Zhang San* come see me
 ‘Yesterday, *Zhang San* came to see me.’ (Tsao, 1979, p. 104)
- (8) 北京 城 裡 (啊), 有 個 故宮。
Beijing-cheng li (a), you ge Gu-gong
 Beijing-city inside (PART), exist a Old-Palace
 ‘Inside Beijing city, (there) exists a palace called Old Palace.’ (Tsao, 1979, p. 104)

Semantically, Tsao mentions four relations between the topic and the clause(s) of

its domain:

- (9) The possessor and the possessed
 這 個 人 (啊), 頭 腦 簡 單, 四 肢 發 達。
Zhe-ge ren (a), tounao jiandan, si-zhi fada.
 this-CLASS man (PART), mind simple four-limbs well-developed
 ‘This man, (his) mind is simple; (his) body well-developed.’ (Tsao, 1979, p. 105)
- (10) Whole and part
 三 十 六 計 (啊), 走 為 上 策。
Sanshiliu ji (a), zou wei shang ce.
 thirty-six alternative (PART) running-away is best alternative
 ‘Among the thirty-six alternatives, running away is the best.’ (Tsao, 1979, p. 105)
- (11) Class and member
 魚 (啊), 鮪 魚 現 在 最 貴。
Yu (a), weiyu xianzai zui gui.
 fish (PART), tuna now most expensive
 ‘Fish, tuna is now the most expensive.’ (Tsao, 1979, p. 105)
- (12) Relevance
 這 件 事 (啊), 我 的 經 驗 太 多 了。
Zhe-jian shi (a), wode jingyan tai duo-le.
 This-Class matter, my experience too many-Asp
 ‘With regard to this matter, I have had a great deal of experience.’ (Tsao, 1979, p. 129)

The four examples above are known as “double subject” or “double nominative”

constructions.⁴ The former three relations (9), (10), (11) can be paraphrased with a possessive construction. In (9), the topic *this man* and the following sentences bear a possessor-possessed relationship. In (10), the topic *the thirty-six alternatives* is whole while the following *running* is part of the *the thirty-six alternatives*. In (11), the topic *fish* is a class and the following *tuna* is a member of the class. In (12), however, the semantic relation is merely relevance and cannot be paraphrased with a possessive structure.

2.2 Topic Chain

The term “topic chain” is introduced to describe a stretch of Chinese discourse. Typical topic chains are defined by Tsao (1979) and later revised by Chu (1998). The definitions capture major features of topic chains. However, there are topic chains with elements not perfectly matching the definition. These structures are termed atypical topic chains in the present study. In this section, we will review the definition of both typical and atypical chains.

Tsao defines a topic chain as “a stretch of discourse composed of one, and often more than one, clause, headed by a topic which serves as a common link among all the clauses” (Tsao, 1979, p. vii). A topic is characterized as having a chaining function

⁴ Following Tsao (1979), we will call it double nominative construction in the present study. For a detailed argumentation, please see Tsao (1979: 132-149).

and “often extends its semantic domain over several sentences. The sentences under the domain of a topic form a topic chain” (Tsao, 1979, p. 221). Example (6) on page 10 is repeated below as (13) for illustration:

(13) (a) 那棵 樹_i 花_j 小_’
Nei-ke shu_i hua_j xiao
 that-CLASS tree flower small

(b) 0_i 葉子_k 大_’
0_i yezi_k da
 leaf big

(c) 0_i 很 難看_’
0_i hen nankan
 very ugly

(d) 所以 0_i 我_i 沒買_。
suoyi 0_i wo_i mei mai
 so I not buy

‘That tree, its flowers were small. Its leaves were big. It was ugly so I didn’t buy it.’ (Tsao, 1979, pp. 92-93)

In (13), clauses (a)-(d) form a topic chain. According to Li & Thompson (1976) and Tsao (1979), the topic invariably occupies the S-initial position, like *neike shu* (那棵樹) ‘that tree’ in clause (a). Then, its semantic domain is extended/shared to the following clauses (b), (c) and (d). The topic does not need to be stated explicitly in those clauses. The clauses are linked by the zero-form topic.

However, Chinese topic chains are not always represented by the neat structure. For example, a topic may not always occupy the S-initial position. Below (14) is an example from Tsao (1979) for illustration.

- (14) (a) 這 件 衣 裳 髒 了 一 塊_i
Zhe-jian yishang zang-le yi kuai_i
 this-CLASS clothes dirty-ASP a spot
- (b) **O_i** 洗 了 半 天 沒 洗 掉
O_i xi-le ban-tian mei xi-diao
 wash-ASP half-day not wash-off

‘This dress had a dirty spot on it. (I) washed it for a long time and didn’t get it off.’ (Tsao, 1979, p. 210)

In example (14), Tsao recognizes clause (b) as a one-clause topic chain. He does not consider (a)-(b) to be a topic chain because *yi kuai* (一塊) ‘a spot’ does not occupy the S-initial position and is thus not considered a topic. According to Tsao’s (1979) definition, *yi kuai* (一塊) ‘a spot’ becomes a topic in clause (b) when it occupies the S-initial position. Clause (b) forms a one-clause topic chain. However, Chu (1998) does not think that a single clause forms a topic chain. He treats (a)-(b) in (14) as a topic chain. To explain (14), Chu (1998) proposes another definition of topic chain: “A topic chain is a set of clauses linked by a topic in the form of ZA (Zero Anaphora)” (p. 338). According to Chu (1998), a topic does not necessarily occupy the S-initial position. Following his revised definition, clauses (a) and (b) in (14) form a topic chain.

Although Chu’s revision of the definition of topic chain is more flexible and thus accommodates more topic chain structures, there are several topic chains that still do not fit the definition. First, a topic chain with an embedded structure is pointed out by Chu (1998), in which a main topic chain may contain an embedded sub-topic-chain

(or sub-chain). Chu (1998, p. 330) cited an example (15) from Shi (1989, p. 232) to explain:

(15) (a) 李四 這個 傢伙_i，

Lisi zhe-ge jiahuo_i

Lisi this-CLASS dude

(b) 我_j 因為 救 他_i，

wo_j yinwei jiu ta_i

I because save him

(c) 0_j 受了 傷，

0_j shou-le shang

receive-ASP wound

(d) 0_i 居然 不 來 看 我_j，

0_i juran bu lai kan wo_j

even not come see me

(e) 0_i 跑到 紐約 度假 去了。

0_i pao-dao Niuyue dujia qu-le.

run-to New-York have-vacation go-ASP

‘Lisi that dude, I was wounded for saving him. (He) didn’t even come to see me but went to New York for vacation.’

In (15), portion (a) is not a clause but just a referent mentioned for later pick-up. It is picked up in (b) but not as a topic. It does not become a topic until (d) and continues to (e). The relationship between the main chain and the sub chain can be sketched below in (16).

(16) (a) *Lisi zhe-ge jiahuo_i*

(b) *wo_j.....ta_i*

(c) *0_j.....*

(d) *0_i.....wo_j*

(e) *0_i.....*

In (16), it can be clearly seen that (a) and (d)-(e) form a main topic chain under the domain of *Lisi zhe-ge jiahuo* and that clauses (b)-(c), under the domain of *wo*, form

another topic chain (called a sub-topic-chain), which is embedded in the main topic chain. Based on this example, Chu makes a point that “not all clauses are equal in their status in relation to the chain” (p. 332).

In addition to the embedded sub-chain, another less typical topic chain structure, called the telescopic chain is also observed by Chu (1998). In a telescopic chain, “two topic chains merge into each other at the end of one and the beginning of the other” (Chu, 1998, p. 332). According to Chu, the telescopic chain is more common than the embedding within a topic chain. Below is an example that Chu cited from Ho (1993, p. 207):

- (17) (a) 0_i 到了 臥室 裡面 呢，
 0_i *Dao-le* *woshi* *limian ne*,
 arrive-ASP bedroom inside PART
- (b) 她_i 就 覺得 受不了，
 ta_i *jiu* *juede shoubule*,
 she at-once feel can't-bear
- (c) 0_i 馬上 就 現出了 原形_j，
 0_i *mashang* *jiu* *xianchu-le* *yuan-xing_j*
 immediately at-once betray-ASP original-form
- (d) 0_j 是 一條 巨大的 白 蛇_k
 0_j *shi yi-tiao* *judade bai* *she_k*
 be a-CLASS huge white snake
- (e) 0_k 盤 在 床 上。
 0_k *pan zai chuang shang*
 coil at bed on
- ‘Entering the bedroom, she felt she couldn’t take it anymore. In no time (she) was transformed back into her original form, (which) was a huge white snake, (that) coiled on her bed.’

This example has three short topic chains. The first one consists of (a)-(c) under the

domain of *ta* (她) ‘she;’ the second one consists of (c)-(d) under the domain of *yuanxing* (原形) ‘original form;’ the last one includes (d)-(e) under the domain of *judade bai she* (巨大的白蛇) ‘huge white snake.’ Clause (c) as well as clause (d) is termed *the pivot*, the former linking the first and the second chain while the latter linking the second and the third chain. Chu notes that the telescopic chain, though common, presents a problem to analysts because there is no natural break between clauses. This structure is why Chinese sentences are sometimes regarded as *liushuiju* (流水句) ‘water-flowing sentence,’ meaning it is like non-stop flowing water.

The third atypical topic chain is topic chain with zero cataphora observed by Li (2005). She observes two atypical topic chain structures when analyzing topic chains for the purpose of teaching Chinese as a foreign language. She adopts Chu’s (1998) definition that a topic chain consists of at least two clauses which are linked by a coreferential relation between an overt NP topic and its zero form. However, against Tsao’s (1979) and Chu’s (1998) definition, she observes that a topic chain does not necessarily require an overt topic in the initial clause of a chain. Zero cataphora can occur in the first clause of a topic chain. Take (18) as an example. What is atypical about this topic chain (a)-(c) is that the clauses are linked by zero cataphora in (a) and (b). The zero forms in (a) and (b) cannot find their antecedent in the previous discourse, so they are interpreted cataphorically. The topic is not overtly mentioned

until (c), the third clause in this topic chain.

(18)

(a) **0_i** 扎了 兩針，

0_i Zha-le liang-zhen,

get-ASP two-shot

(b) **0_i** 服了 劑 藥，

0_i fu-le ji yao,

take-ASP a (dose of) medicine

(c) **他_i** 清醒 過來。

ta_i qingxing guolai.

he wake up

‘After he had an injection of camphor and a dose of medicine, he opened his eyes again.’ (Li, 2005, p. 57)

The fourth atypical topic chain, the topic chain without any overt topic, is also observed by Li (2005). This type of topic chain can be established without any overt topic in the chain. Please see the following example.

(19) (a) **他_i** 是如此的年輕，

Ta_i shi rucide nianqing,

he be so young,

(b) **0_i** 軀幹 挺直，

0_i qugan tingzhi,

stature straight,

(c) **0_i** 唇角 永遠 浮著 含情的 微笑。

0_i chun-jiao yongyuan fu-zhe hanqingde weixiao.

lip-corner forever wear-ASP loving smile.

(d) **0_i** 每 星期日 自 講壇上 下來，

0_i Mei xingqiri zi jiangtan-shang xialai,

every Sunday from platform-on come-down,

(e) **0_i** 一定是 挾著 聖經，

0_i yidingshi jia-zhe Shengjing,

must tuck-ASP Bible,

- (f) 0_i 站 在 琴 旁 ，
0_i zhan zai qin-pang,
stand at piano-side,
- (g) 0_i 等 著 施 女 士 出 去 。
0_i deng-zhe Shi Nushi chuqu.
 wait-ASP Mrs. Shi go-out.

‘He was a well-built and handsome young man, and forever wearing the blissful smile of one in love. Every Sunday after his sermon, the pastor would tuck his Bible under his arm and step down to the piano to escort Mrs. Shi out of the church.’ (Li, 2005, p. 73)

If the punctuation is neglected, this example contains one topic chain (a)-(g).

However, the author marks the boundary between (c) and (d) with a full stop. It is widely acknowledged that a Chinese full stop marks a major discourse break. In addition, it is clear that (a)-(c) and (d)-(g) are not continuous in terms of semantics. Clauses (a)-(c) are about the pastor’s appearance while clauses (d)-(g) are about what he does every Sunday after the sermon. Clauses (a)-(c) and (d)-(g) each form a topic chain with the full stop as a boundary marker. Topic chain (a)-(c) is linked by *ta* (他) ‘he’ in (a). However, topic chain (d)-(g) is merely linked by zero anaphora, without any overt topic. This kind of topic chain does not match Tsao’s (1979) and Chu’s (1998) definition that a topic chain requires an overt topic.

In one of the recent studies on the Chinese topic continuation, a less restrictive definition of topic chain is proposed to include both typical and atypical topic chains. A topic chain in Wang’s (2013) study is defined as: a series of clauses led by the same

topic⁵ (p. 109). According to Wang's interpretation, the topic does not have to be overt as long as the clauses are under the domain of the same topic. In addition, a topic chain can have more than one covert topic, either in the form of full NP or pronoun. That is, a topic can appear first in a full NP and show up again in the same chain in the form of either a full NP or a pronoun.

So far, in this section, we have reviewed the definition of typical topic chains by Tsao (1979) and Chu (1998). We have also reviewed four examples of atypical topic chains: topic chain with an embedded structure, telescopic chain, topic chain with zero cataphora, and topic chain without any overt topic. In order to incorporate both typical and atypical topic chains in our analysis, the present study adopts the more flexible definition of topic chain by Wang (2013).

2.3 Translation Studies

This section has three parts. Translation strategies discussed in translation textbooks is presented in 2.3.1. Previous studies on Chinese/English contrastive rhetoric will be briefly reviewed in 2.3.2. Translation studies on the topic-comment structure and on Chinese topic chains will be discussed in 2.3.3.

⁵ Wang's original words are 由同一话题引导的系列语句.

2.3.1 Translation strategies

A number of translation textbooks have provided plentiful strategies in dealing with translation from source language (SL) to target language (TL). Based on different goals of the translation, translators can choose from the rigid word-for-word translation to the flexible free translation, which includes approaches of addition, deletion or summarizing⁶ (Liu, 1993; Zhou, 1996). Adjustment is inevitable in translation. Adjustment strategies commonly discussed in translation textbooks (Liao et al., 2003; Liu, 1993; Si, 1982; Zhang, 1979; Zhang, Yu, Li & Pong, 1993; Zhou, 1996) can be categorized into three levels: semantic level, syntactic level and discourse level (Table 1).

Table 1
Strategies Discussed in Translation Textbooks

Strategies	Description (E.g. SL → TL)
Semantic Level	
Substitution	A complicated cultural term such as an idiom or metaphor is replaced by similar ideas in the TL culture. E.g. <i>mao ku haozi</i> (貓哭耗子) ‘cat cry-for mouse’ → shed crocodile tears
Transliteration	A word of the SL is presented in the sound system in the TL. E.g. <i>ma jiang</i> (麻將) ‘a Chinese game played with tiles’ → ma jiang
Syntactic Level	
Synchronization	A TL sentence is translated in the same sequence as that in the SL, sometimes word-by-word. E.g. <i>Zheng-Da zai Taipei.</i> (政大在台北。) ‘NCCU in Taipei’ → NCCU is in Taipei.

⁶ Summarizing is often applied in newspaper articles or press releases.

Conversion	The part of speech of a certain word in the SL is converted to another part of speech in the TL. E.g. <i>Zhe jian shi hen chengong.</i> (這件事很成功。) ‘this CLASS thing <u>very successful</u> ’ → This is a <u>big success</u> .
Amplification	Words are added in the TL without adding meaning. E.g. <i>Ta dang nian ershi you ba.</i> (他當年二十又八。) ‘He that year twenty and eight’ → He was twenty eight <u>years old</u> that year.
Omission	Words are omitted in the TL without omitting meaning. E.g. <i>Touyizao jie-qian, xiayizao jiu tao-fa.</i> (頭一遭借錢，下一遭就討飯。) ‘first borrow-money, next will beg-food’ → First you <u>borrow</u> , then you <u>beg</u> .
Repetition	Words are repeated in the TL, usually for emphasis. E.g. <i>Wo xi-le, ye shai-le yifu.</i> (我洗了，也曬了衣服。) ‘I wash-ASP, and dry-ASP clothes’ → ‘I washed <u>the clothes</u> and dried them.’
Negation	An affirmative sentence is translated into a negative one, and vice versa. E.g. <i>Jixu gongzuo.</i> (繼續工作。) ‘Continue working’ → Don’t stop working.
Discourse Level	
Cutting	A sentence in the SL is divided into several sentences in the TL. E.g. <i>Ta saodi tuodi hou cai xiyi.</i> (他掃地拖地後才洗衣。) ‘he sweep mop after then laundry’ → He swept and mopped first. Then he did the laundry.
Combining	Several sentences in the SL are combined into one sentence in the TL. E.g. <i>Na tian shi 2014 nian 2 yue 26 ri, wo yongyuan buhui wangji na tian</i> (那天是 2014 年 2 月 26 日。我永遠不會忘記那天。) ‘that day is 2014 year 2 month 26 day. I forever not forget that day’ → I will never forget that day, February 26, 2014.
Reordering	The sequence of sentences in the SL is reordered in the TL. E.g. <i>Ta sanyue qu Meiguo na-shi cai xue Yingyu</i> (他三月去美國。那時才學英語。) ‘He March go USA. That-time start learn English’ → He started learning English in March. It was after he arrived in the US.

From Table 1, we can see that translators enjoy freedom to a certain degree whether at semantic level, at syntactic level or at discourse level. In addition, most translation strategies discussed in translation textbooks are at syntactic level. Very little is said about discourse level strategies. Moreover, how and when to apply the strategies of *cutting*, *combining* and *reordering* is not discussed in the textbooks.

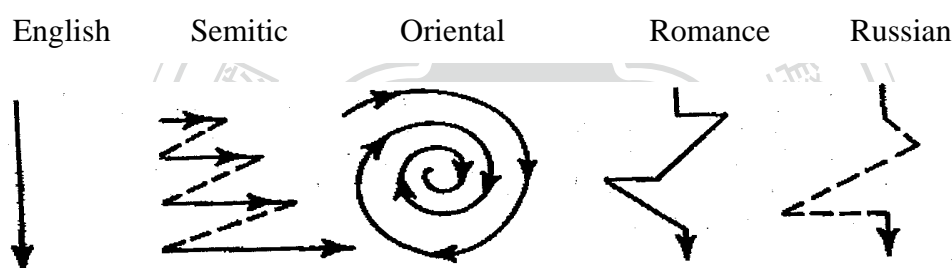
2.3.2 Contrastive analysis

The contrastive analysis between Chinese and English is the core of translation theory (Cheng, 1997). The similarities between languages make translation possible; the differences, on the other hand, result in various approaches and techniques to translation. Chinese rhetoric is often regarded as indirect while English rhetoric is often viewed as direct. Matalene (1985) analyzes her Chinese students' English writing and reports that "the connections between the sentences are not explicitly signaled but are almost all left up to the reader" (p.801). This feature is one of the major differences between Chinese and English (Cheng, 1997). Chinese sentences tend to be paratactic; the relation of sentences relies on the internal logic. However, English sentences tend to be hypotactic; the relation of sentences is overtly indicated by grammatical structures.

The rhetorical differences are existent in even larger discourse. Five different

culture-specific paragraph development patterns⁷ are identified by Kaplan (1966).

These paragraph development patterns are closely related to culture-specific thought patterns (Kaplan, 1966). Anglo-European expository essays are orderly, clear and proceed in a straight line. Semitic discourse is full of parallel constructions. Oriental essays are indirect and circular. Romance languages show digressions from the central topic. Russian essays are loosely constructed with abrupt changes. These patterns can be illustrated by the following graphs:



(Kaplan, 1966, p. 21)

Since the differences between thought patterns are reflected in paragraph structures, difficulties arise in translating one paragraph pattern into another different pattern. As the sketch suggests, Chinese paragraph pattern tends to be circular. The relation between ideas tends to be marked vaguely or indirectly and parallel structures are preferred. On the other hand, English paragraph pattern is more straightforward. The textual relations are marked in a clear way. When translating Chinese paragraphs into English, translators cannot simply translate sentence by sentence accordingly.

⁷ These patterns are rather sketchy. Discourse patterns in fact are subject to a number of different factors, including genre, formality, theme, purpose, audience, etc (Xu, 2010).

Reorganization for appropriate paragraph pattern might be necessary from time to time. This textual difference between Chinese and English thus causes difficulty in translation.

2.3.3 Translation studies of Chinese topic and topic chain

A number of studies have been done on the translation of Chinese topic-comment structure into English (e.g. Jiang, 2012; Wang, 1996; Zhang, 2006). Most of them focus on the description that Chinese topic is different from English subject and that a Chinese topic can/should be translated into different syntactic arguments (e.g. subject, object, or indirect object) in English. However, their discussion only focuses on the translation of single-clause sentences instead of topic chains. Since a Chinese topic chain is widely recognized as a discourse concept, a larger unit of translation must be studied.

A few translation textbooks put emphasis on the translation of topic chain structure. They give some general descriptions about the different sentence structures between English and Chinese: English sentences tend to be hierarchically structured while Chinese sentences tend to show parallel structure. The idea is realized in different sets of terms: hypotactic/paratactic (e.g. Cheng, 1997; Huang, 2007), or hierarchical level/mono level (e.g. Yang, 2006). Some scholars (e.g. Cheng, 1997;

Pang, 1997) even provide a metaphor, describing English sentences as grapes with a main stem and branches whereas Chinese sentences as straight bamboos with one section after another.

So far, only two studies have been found to discuss translation of topic chain in depth. Lin (2002) studies the preferred structures in Chinese-English translation in her master's thesis. Four structures are examined: topic chains, the passive constructions, relative clauses and connectives. She has two groups of students do a Chinese-to-English translation task of four short passages (19 sentences in total). One group is composed of 95 eleventh-grade students; the other is composed of 72 college freshmen. Their English translation data are examined to see what structures are preferred by Chinese students. Lin's results show that when students are translating topic chain structures, they tend to omit the subject in the English translation. For example, when translating the following topic chain (20), students are often not able to retrieve the deleted topic in (b) and often come up with sentences like "*So when young people is finding job, should be careful.*"

- (20) (a) 所以，青少年_i 在求職時，
suoyi, qingshaonian_i zai qiu-zhi shi,
 so, teenagers when seek-job when
 (b) 0_i 應 特別 小心 才是。
0_i ying tebie xiaoxin caishi
 should especially careful best

She also finds that, because of topic-deletion in the second clause of a Chinese topic

chain, some students have difficulty identifying the real syntactic subject. They tend to provide *it* as a subject holder, as the example: “*So when young people take the job, it should be careful.*” According to Lin, students’ English translation is largely influenced by the Chinese topic-comment structure.

In a similar vein, Kwan (1997) observes students’ translation assignment and finds that Chinese students’ translation often lacks cohesive devices, which often results in parallel structures instead of hierarchical structures. Such a lack of cohesive devices is a reflection of Chinese sentence structures. Contrary to translation textbook writers who describe Chinese sentences as paratactic, Kwan notices that the Chinese sentences are just “seemingly parallel” (p. 87), especially the topic chain structure. The lack of sentence relation markers does not entail the fact that they are coordinate. It is emphasized that translators should be careful in interpreting the unmarked (i.e. covert) cohesive device: zero NP. Zero NP in Chinese implies not only coordinate relation but also subordinate relation between sentences. Appropriate choice of coordination and subordination will make the message clearer.

From previous studies, we have found that studies on topic-comment translation (Jiang, 2012; Wang, 1996; Zhang, 2006) put emphasis on the translation of topic in a single-clause sentence. Little research has been done on Chinese-English translation of a larger unit—a topic chain. Translation textbooks (Cheng, 1997; Huang, 2007;

Pang, 1997; Yang, 2006) only give descriptions about the different sentence structures between Chinese and English. They do not go into the details and provide a specific guideline on translation of topic chain. Although both Lin (2002) and Kwan (1997) extend their scope to study topic chain translation, they are still limited to two-clause topic chains. Lin (2002) only focuses on how the topic/subject in Chinese is translated into English by students. Kwan (1997) only focuses on how students treat the relation between two clauses. However, in addition to one-clause sentences and two-clause sentences, what is more prevalent in Chinese is topic chains with more than two clauses. Few previous studies have discussed such larger translation unit. Therefore, an investigation of the translation strategies of Chinese topic chains is called for.

2.4 Discourse Segmentation

Since topic chain is a discourse notion, when analyzing the translation of topic chain, several elements will be involved. In this section, we will briefly review the three elements related to discourse segmentation: discourse markers, referent forms and punctuation marks.

2.4.1 Discourse markers⁸

When it comes to identifying the internal structure of a discourse, discourse markers play an important role. Discourse markers come in a variety of forms. Schiffrin (1987) classifies them into four groups: conjunctions, interjections, adverbs and lexical phrases. Fraser (1999) defines them as “a class of lexical expressions drawn primarily from the syntactic classes of conjunctions, adverbs and prepositional phrases...They have core meaning, which is procedural, not conceptual” (p. 931). In other words, the interpretation of discourse markers is achieved through the context; the function of discourse markers is to signal the relation between two segments of text.

According to Schiffrin (1987), discourse markers can be classified into two types based on their scopes: local and global markers. Local discourse markers link two propositions together, while global discourse markers serve as boundary markers, separating one larger unit from another. The boundary between the different units may be indicated by a change of time, place, action, participant, or textual relation. In other words, global markers are a realization of major continuity break.

Another classification based on the semantic relations carried by the discourse markers is provided by Halliday & Hasan (1976). In their framework, conjunctions⁹

⁸ Discourse marker is also known as *discourse particle*, *pragmatic markers* or *connective*.

⁹ Halliday & Hasan (1976) use the term *conjunction* to refer to not only sentence conjunctions but also adverbs and prepositional phrases such as *alternatively*, *instead*, *then*, *for instance*, and *in conclusion*.

are classified into four types of relations: additive, adversative, causal and temporal.

The additive relation includes addition of a similar or alternative idea, afterthought, and exemplification with markers like *and*, *or*, *in addition*, and *similarly*. The adversative relation means counter-expectation with markers like *though*, *but*, *however*, *instead*, *in fact*, to name just a few. The causal relation focuses on cause, effect or purpose with markers like *so*, *therefore*, *consequently*, and *otherwise*. The temporal relation expresses time sequence of two events with markers like *next*, *before*, *first*, *second*, and *to sum up*.

The correspondence between Halliday & Hasan's conjunctions and larger textual patterns is examined by Yu (2007). There are eight textual relationship patterns Yu summarizes from previous research and reading/writing textbooks: 1. General-example(s), 2. General-specific(s), 3. Group-member, 4. Problem-solution, 5. Question-answer, 6. Cause-effect, 7. Time sequence, and 8. Claim-counterclaim. The patterns of General-example(s) and General-specific(s) describe texts that begin with a general statement then followed by examples or specific details to explain the general statement. The Group-member pattern starts with a general description of a group followed by detailed description of each member. In the next two patterns, Problem-solution and Question-answer, writers provide a problem/question and then give the answer. These two are frequently found in advertisement. Cause-effect and

Time sequence patterns are often found in expository essays and narrations. The Claim-counterclaim pattern appears mostly in argumentation. Halliday and Hasan's *additive* conjunctions can be found in General-example(s), General-specific(s), and Group-member patterns. The *adversative* conjunctions can be found in Claim-counterclaim pattern. The *causal* additive can be found in Problem-solution, Question-answer, and Cause-effect patterns. Last, the *temporal* conjunctions can be found in Time-sequence pattern.

Connectives in Chinese discourse have also been studied. According to Yu (1990), the four types of connectives proposed by Halliday & Hasan (1976)—additives, adversatives, causals and temporals—can also be applied to Chinese written narratives. They mark discourse segments of different levels. Additives usually connect micro-structures under one topic. Adversatives may mark the shift of one topic to another. Causals and temporals can serve as both global markers and local markers. In addition, Qin (1998) studies the linguistic devices used to structure a spoken discourse. She gathered her data by asking 20 teachers to tell an unforgettable teaching experience in Chinese. By analyzing the story structure based on Labov's model (1972): abstract, orientation, complicating action, evaluation, resolution, coda, she finds that the marker *na* 'that' could mark a story's orientation, complicating action and evaluation. Evaluation often begins with the markers like *jieguo* 'as a result'

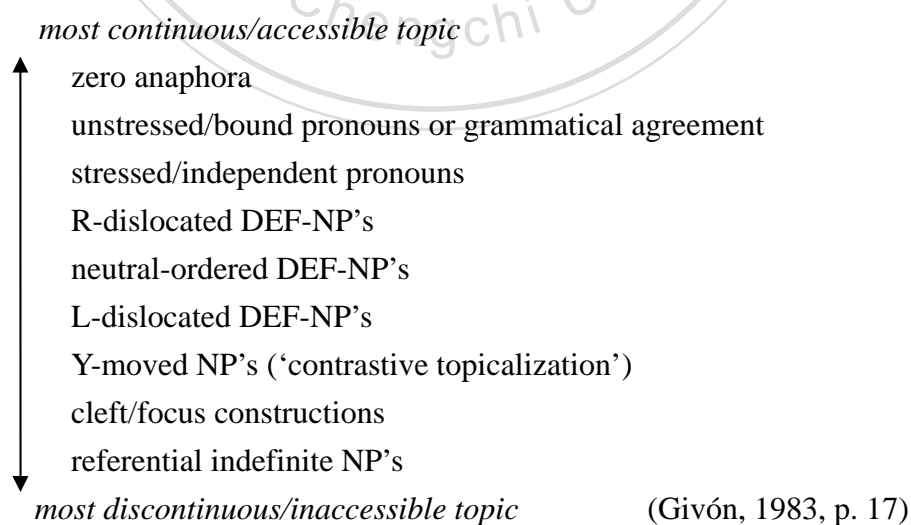
or *houlai* ‘after that.’ The coda is usually marked by *suoyi* ‘so.’ From these studies, we have come to an understanding that connectives play an important role in Chinese discourse segmentation.

2.4.2 Referent forms

It should be noted that there is one type of marker that is not usually viewed as discourse marker: anaphora. Although many grammar books would say that the use of anaphoric forms is to avoid repetition, anaphors in fact serve the function of marking the structure of discourse.

Givón (1983) proposes a scale in the syntactic coding of topic accessibility. From the most continuous/accessible to the least continuous/accessible, the coding goes from zero anaphora to referential indefinite NP’s as in (21).

(21)



This scale reflects the iconicity principle underlying the syntactic coding. The more

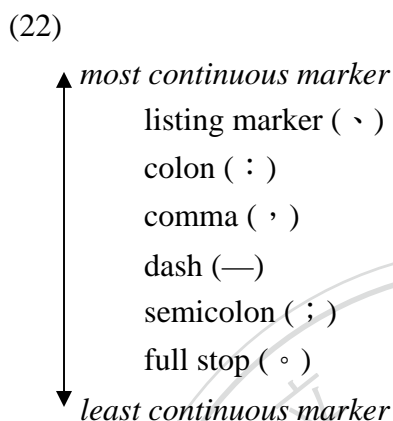
coding material is used, the less continuous the topic is. However, this scale involves various kinds of coding means including phonological size, word order and morphology. Given that the present study focuses on written material, only morphology is of our concern. Thus, the nominal forms of high accessibility to low accessibility would be briefed: zero, pronoun, and NP.

The correspondence between topic accessibility and the three referent forms can also be found in Chinese (Chen, 1986; Chen, 2010; Li, 1985). Along the scale of continuity, zero is used when the referent occurs in the discourse that is high in continuity. A pronoun occurs in the discourse with less continuity. A full NP occurs in a discourse marked by major breaks. According to Li (1985), the three referent forms serve as formal demarcations of the three levels of discourse units: the clause, the topic chain, and the paragraph. Zero occurs within the topic chain and it is used to combine clauses into a topic chain. Pronouns occur at the boundary between topic chains and they are used to indicate a break in semantic continuity. Full NPs occur at the beginning of a new paragraph to introduce a new referent or to reintroduce an old referent.

2.4.3 Chinese punctuation system

There are 15 punctuation marks listed in Manual of Punctuation Marks

(National Languages Committee, 2008). However, only six of the punctuation marks are related to topic continuity. An illustration of continuity scale based on the function of each punctuation mark is given in (22).



A listing marker is used to list parallel words or phrases; thus it is the most continuous marker. A colon is used to provide examples. A comma indicates a pause in speech between any constituents. It can show up after a noun phrase, a preposition phrase, an adverbial phrase or even a clause. It can mark either a minor continuity break or a major continuity break between clauses. A dash is used to mark a change in meaning or provide extra explanation. A semicolon is used to separate clauses of parallel structures or to mark adversative textual relation. A full stop is used in the end of a sentence to mark the completeness of meaning.

Although Chinese punctuation marks are less rigid compared with English ones, tendencies of consistence can still be found among users. Chu (1992) has done a small survey on the use of punctuation marks. He takes a short passage of 11 clauses and makes all the clauses end with commas, except for the last clause. Then he asks

subjects to put full stops at the end of clauses based on their instinct. Three clauses receive the most full stops. The three clauses are exactly the same clauses where the author puts his full stops. This suggests that Chinese speakers show consistency in the use of a full stop as a boundary marker. In the present study, full stops are adopted as indicating the boundary of topic chains.

2.5 Summary

In this chapter, the differences between *subject* and *topic* have been presented. Subject is a syntactic notion while topic is a discourse notion. A topic can link several clauses and form a topic chain. Examples of typical and atypical topic chains are presented. In addition to previous research on topic chain, we have also reviewed studies on the translation of topic chains, and have pointed out that most of them do not go into detail about the internal structure of topic chain. In order to analyze topic chain, a discourse structure, we have reviewed discourse markers, referent forms and the Chinese punctuation system, which are related to topic continuity in Chinese discourse. The discussion in this chapter shall pave our way to the next chapter: Methodology.

Chapter Three

Methodology

Due to limited references regarding the research of translation of topic chains, the present study adopts a data-driven approach. Translation strategies would be identified through classifying, comparing, and analyzing the translation data. A preliminary analysis is conducted on a small number of the collected data to test the research framework. The tentative framework is then revised based on the findings from the preliminary analysis. After that, more data are analyzed for the formal study.

Section 3.1 presents descriptions of the data. Following that, Section 3.2 gives the definition of topic chain in the present study. Section 3.3 describes the preliminary analysis and the revised framework in response to the problematic cases. Last in section 3.4, the analysis procedure will be presented.

3.1 Data Collection

Two types of material sources are selected for the analysis: a bilingual magazine and translation textbooks. The Chinese-English bilingual magazine, *Taiwan Panorama*¹⁰, is selected because of its variety of content and because of its professional writing and translation. First published in 1976, Taiwan Panorama covers

¹⁰ Before January 2006, Taiwan Panorama was named Sinorama. Readers may find this title elsewhere.

a wide range of Taiwan topics from politics, economy, society, culture, to Taiwan-related international events. Articles in *Taiwan Panorama* are translated by experienced native American translators. With its professional Chinese writing and English translation, it has been used as course materials in many college translation classes and has even been used to build a bilingual parallel corpus under the project CANDLE as a learning tool for intermediate learners of English¹¹.

In the present study, an issue of *Taiwan Panorama*, April 2013, is randomly chosen. It contains 21 articles, covering a wide range of topics, including school lunches, a new design hotel, a thriving comedy club, pet funerals as well as tips to losing weight. Ten articles are selected for the present study. To avoid preferred structures or translation styles by a certain translator, it has been made sure that the articles are translated by diverse translators. These 10 articles are translated by seven different translators (Appendix I).

In addition to *Taiwan Panorama*, five textbooks are also examined. The textbook material includes both practical translation textbooks and research-based books on the topic of Chinese-English contrastive analysis (Appendix I). The topic chain translation sentences are taken either from exemplification sentences or from

¹¹ CANDLE stands for Corpus and NLP for Digital Learning of English (<http://candle.cs.nthu.edu.tw>). It is a national e-learning project (2003-2006) lead by Professor Hsien-Chin Liou of National Tsing Hua University. CANDLE provides a variety of natural language processing (NLP) tools, including part of speech tagging, bilingual concordance, WordNet, and collocation translator, to name just a few. For more information about CANDLE and application of CANDLE to teaching, please refer to Chang, Wu, Shei, Chang, & Jian (2004), Chan & Liou (2005), Lin, Chen, Liaw, Liou, & Yeh (2005) and Liou & Chang (2005).

exercises in the textbooks.

3.2 Definition of Topic Chain

Prior to defining topic chain, the idea *topic* has to be defined first. Li & Thompson's (1976) seven characteristics of topic (cf. p. 7) are applied in the present study. However, one of the characteristics is modified. Topics in the present study can appear in an existential sentence, which means that a topic does not always occupy the sentence initial position (Chu, 1998). In addition, based on Tsao (1979), syntactically, a topic can be a subject, a direct object, or an indirect object¹². Semantically, a topic can bear the following four relations to the clauses of its domain: the possessor and the possessed, whole and part, class and member, and relevance.

Different definitions of topic chain have been discussed in Chapter Two. In the present study, Wang's (2013) flexible definition is adopted with a little revision. The topic chain in the present study is defined as: A series of clauses that share the same topic. Based on this definition, with a zero form defined as a covert topic, a pronoun or a full NP defined as an overt topic, a topic chain does not require an overt topic in the first clause. In other words, a topic chain can take a zero-form topic in the first clause. Moreover, as long as the topic is shared by the clauses, a topic can appear

¹² According to Tsao's (1979) definition, a topic can also be a place or a time. However, in the collected data, no topic chain with a time/place topic is found. Thus, time topic and place topic are excluded from the study.

overtly for more than one time in a topic chain, or it can be realized in the zero form throughout the chain.

In the present study, we also define that a topic chain ends with a full stop since it is recognized as a major discourse boundary marker (Chu, 1992). A full stop may be replaced by a question mark or an exclamation mark sometimes.

The definition is relatively flexible compared with other versions. The more flexible definition is adopted with an aim to incorporate both typical and atypical topic chains found in previous research. Based on the definition, the following types of topic chain will be included for analysis: (1) typical topic chains (Tsao, 1979; Chu, 1998), (2) the topic chain with an embedded sub-chain (Chu, 1998), (3) the telescopic chain (Chu, 1998), (4) the topic chain with a topic in the zero form in the first clause (Li, 2005), and (5) the topic chain without any overt topic (Li, 2005). Moreover, since the focus of the present study is on how translators demarcate a topic chain into units, the study will include only topic chains that are translated into more than one English sentence.

3.3 Preliminary Analysis

From the previous research, we have found that there are five types of topic chains and three types of boundary markers. These two major elements form the

tentative framework for the preliminary analysis. Ten topic chains from the collected magazine data and another 10 from the collected textbook data are randomly selected for analysis. Some problems arise from the preliminary analysis and thus the analysis framework has to be revised.

First, in addition to the five types of topic chains, the sixth type is found: topic chain with more than one overt form of the same topic. An example is provided below.

- (1) (a) 今年 5 月，打開聯合團隊_i 將 在台北 及台南
Jin-nian wuyue Dakai-lianhe-tuandui_i jiang zai Taibei ji Tainan
 this-year May Open-Union-team will in Taipei and Tainan
 啟動 兩間 「出租公寓」，
qidong liang-jian chuzu gongyu
 start two-CLASS rental apartment
- (b) 而 過去 一年 來，打開聯合_i 還 新開了 兩間 咖啡店、
er guoqu yi-nian lai Dakai-lianhe_i hai xin-kai-le liang-jian kafeidian
 and past one-year from Open-Union also new-open-ASP two-CLASS café
 一間 早午餐店、 一間 民宿，
yi-jian zaowucan-dian yi-jian minsu
 one-CLASS brunch-store one-CLASS B&B
- (c) 0_i 旗下 員工 即將 破百 人。
0_i qi-xia yuangong jijiang po bai ren
 flag-under employee about over-hundred people

‘This coming May, OU is going to open a pair of rental apartment properties in Taipei and Tainan, and over the past year the OU team has also opened two coffee shops, a brunch shop, and a B&B guesthouse. The group now employs over 50 people.’ (*Taiwan Panorama*, April 2013, p. 56)

In this example, the topic *Dakai-lianhe-tuandui* (打開聯合團隊) ‘Open-Union team’ first appears in the first clause. In the following clause (b), the same topic appears again in the form of reduced full NP *dakai-lianhe* (打開聯合) ‘Open-Union.’ In other

similar examples, the same topic may appear in the form of a pronoun for the second occurrence. Such topic chains, either with a full NP, a reduced NP or a pronoun in the following discourse, are categorized to the sixth type: topic chain with more than one overt form of the same topic.

Another problem encountered is that some topic chains serve as a verbal complement of verbs like *say*, *believe*, or *indicate*. In such cases, only the embedded topic chain is collected for analysis. Take (2) as an example.

- (2) (a) 小明 認為，
Xiaoming renwei,
 Xiaoming think
- (b) 小黑_i 個性 親人 又 聰明，
Xiaohei_i gexing qinren you congming,
 Xiaohei character friendly and smart
- (c) 他_i 是個 好 夥伴。
0_i shi ge hao huoban.
 is a good partner
- ‘Xiaoming thinks that Xiaohei is friendly and smart. He is a good partner.’

In example (2), (a) is the main clause while (b)-(c) is embedded as the complement of the verb *renwei* (認為) ‘think.’ Clauses (b)-(c) form a topic chain headed by the topic *Xiaohei* (小黑) ‘Xiaohei (a dog’s name).’ In such cases, only the embedded topic chain is analyzed.

Thirdly, some sentences have a main topic followed by semantically subordinate topics. This is called double nominative structure by Tsao (1979). As discussed in Chapter Two, a topic may have several semantic relations with the following clauses:

the possessor and the possessed, whole and part, class and member, and relevance

(Tsao, 1979). Below is an example for illustration.

(3)

- (a) 例如，由英國藝術史家朱利安·史帖拉布雷斯設計的〈路面房〉_i，
Liru you Yingguo yishu-shi-jia Zhulian Shitielabuleisi sheji-de lumian-fang_i,
 For-example, by British art-history-scholar Julian Stallabross design-DE pavement-room
 將房間布置得有如街道一般，
jiang fangjian buzhi-de youru jiedao yiban,
 make room decorate-DE like street look
- (b) **0_i**床單_j是柏油路的大圖輸出，
0_ichuang-dan_j shi boyou-lu de da-tu shuchu,
 bed-sheet is tar-road of big-picture print
- (c) **0_i**家具_k是公園長椅與路燈，
0_ijiaju_k shi gongyuan changyi yu lu-deng,
 furniture is park bench and street-lamp
- (d) **0_i**甚至抱枕_l也做成水溝蓋圖案。
0_ishenzhi baozhen_l ye zuocheng shuigou-gai tuan.
 even couch-pillow too be-made sewer-cover picture

‘Art room 2 (“The Architecture of the Pavement”), designed by British art historian Julian Stallabross, is set up to look like a street scene. The bed covers resemble pavement, the furniture takes the forms of a park bench and streetlight, and the couch pillows are sewer grates.’ (*Taiwan Panorama*, April, 2013, pp. 54-55)

In this example, there are four topics: *i*, *j*, *k* and *l*. Nevertheless, this is recognized in the present study as a single topic chain. It is because topic *i* and the other three topics form a semantic relation of whole and part. The whole topic chain is still about the main topic *i*.

3.4 Analysis Procedure

The analysis procedure includes four steps. The first step is to sort the topic

chains from the magazine and the textbooks into the six types: (1) typical topic chains, (2) the topic chain with an embedded sub-chain, (3) the telescopic chain, (4) the topic chain with a zero-form topic in the first clause, (5) the topic chain without any overt topic, and (6) the topic chain with more than one overt form of the same topic.

The second step is to identify and count the units in each Chinese topic chain and in its English translation. This step aims to make clear how the information package in Chinese topic chains is translated into English sentences. In the present study, a Chinese unit (hereafter ChU) is defined as a clause with a topic and a comment, in which the topic can be realized in the form of a full NP, a pronoun, or zero. The topic-comment structure is considered the smallest unit of a discourse since Chinese is regarded as a topic-prominent language (Li & Thompson, 1976). On the other hand, English is a subject-prominent language, in which the smallest unit of a discourse is a clause. Since a clause is not considered a complete unit in written language, an English unit (hereafter EnU) in the present study is defined as a complete sentence which may include coordinate structures or subordinate structures.

Example (4) below is to illustrate the identification of ChUs and EnUs. Example (4) has six ChUs (a)-(f), which are translated into three EnUs (a')-(c'). The Chinese topic chain starts with the topic in the form of zero. Each comma in the topic chain marks the boundary between the ChUs. Through translation, ChU (a) is translated into

EnU (a'). ChUs (b)-(e) are combined into one EnU (b')¹³. ChU (f) is translated into

EnU (c'). The whole Chinese topic chain of six ChUs is thus translated into three

EnUs.

(4)

- | | |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <p>(a) 半年前 0_i 開始
<i>Ban nian qian 0_i kaishi</i>
half year before start
參加 坊間的 纖體班 課程，
<i>canjia fangjian de xian-ti ban kecheng,</i>
participate private of thin-body class course</p> | <p>(a') Six months ago, he began taking
classes at a weight-loss studio.</p> |
| <p>(b) 0_i 飲食 控制 加上 每天 走
<i>0_i yinshi kongzhi jiashang meitian zou</i>
diet control plus every-day walk
一萬 步，
<i>yiwan bu,</i>
10,000 step</p> | <p>(b') By controlling his diet and
walking 10,000 steps per day,
over a 49-day period he lost 8.5
kilograms, shrank his waist by 7.5
centimeters and lowered his blood
pressure from 162/106 to 120/80.</p> |
| <p>(c) 0_i 49 天 減掉 8.5 公斤，
<i>0_i 49 tian jian-diao 8.5 gongjin,</i>
49 day cut-off 8.5 kilogram</p> | |
| <p>(d) 0_i 腰圍 縮小了 7.5 公分，
<i>0_i yaowei suoxiao-le 7.5 gongfen,</i>
waist narrow-ASP 7.5 centimeter</p> | |
| <p>(e) 0_i 血壓 也從 162/106 降到 120/80，
<i>0_i xie-ya ye cong 162/106 jiang-dao 120/80,</i>
blood-pressure too from 162/106 fall-to 120/80</p> | |
| <p>(f) 0_i 不再 需要 吃 藥。
<i>0_i bu-zai xuyao chi yao</i>
no-more need take medicine</p> | <p>(c') As a result, he no longer needs to
take blood pressure medication.</p> |

(*Taiwan Panorama*, April 2013, p. 72-73)

It should be noted that commas do not always mark the boundary of a ChU

because they can mark the boundary of any syntactic constituent in Chinese, such as a

¹³ Reasons of demarcating and combing units will be discussed in Chapter Four.

noun phrase, a verb phrase, an adjective phrase, an adverbial phrase, a preposition phrase or a connective in Chinese. For example, in (5), the first comma marks a time adverbial phrase *jin-nian wuyue* (今年五月) ‘this-year May.’ This adverbial phrase does not constitute a ChU on its own. In example (6), the first comma marks a preposition phrase *zai qinggan-weiyang-de yali xia* (在情感威嚴的壓力下) ‘under the feeling-strict stress.’ This comma is not treated as a unit boundary marker either because it is used within a clause to set apart the preposition phrase and the comment.

- (5) 今年五月，打開聯合團隊，將在台北及台南
Jin-nian wuyue Dakai-lianhe-tuandui; jiang zai Taipei ji Tainan
 this-year May Open-Union-team will in Taipei and Tainan
 啟動兩間「出租公寓」，...
qidong liang-jian chuzu gongyu
 start two-CLASS rental apartment
 ‘This coming May, OU is going to open a pair of rental apartment
 properties in Taipei and Tainan...’ (*Taiwan Panorama*, April 2013, p. 56)
- (6) 竹竹，在情感威嚴的壓力下，不得不拿，...
Zhuzhu; zai qinggan-weiyang-de yali xia, bu-de-bu na,
 Zhuzhu under feeling-strict-of stress under not-DE-not take
 ‘Because of his affection for her and her deference to his wishes, Chu-chu
 had to take it. ...’ (*Translation Strategies*, p. 418)

The third step is to analyze the demarcation markers and examine how they are treated in the translation. To begin with, the linguistic forms used at the demarcation points in the Chinese topic chains are analyzed. Previous literature has indicated that the degree of topic continuity is reflected by three major linguistic markers: nominal forms, connectives, and punctuation marks. Among the nominal forms, full NPs,

pronouns, and zero forms constitute a scale of topic continuity, with full NPs

indicating a major continuity break while zero forms indicating high continuity.

Connectives can be used at both global and local demarcation; global connectives link larger discourse units while local connectives link closely related clauses or sentences.

The Chinese punctuation system includes a full stop (。), a semicolon (;), a comma (，), and a listing marker (、). These four marks form a scale. A full stop marks a major continuity break while a listing marker marks a minor continuity break.

After the demarcation markers are identified, the number of markers in the Chinese topic chains is counted. Each appearance of a marker at the demarcation point is counted once. If two or three markers are used at the same boundary, they will be treated as a combination of markers and will be counted once. Below (7) is an example for illustration. Markers are bordered.

- (7) (a) **竹竹** 在 情感威嚴的 壓力下， (a') Because of his affection for her and her deference to his wishes, Chu-chu had to take it.
*Zhuzhu*_i *zai qinggan-weiyān-de yālì xià*,
 Zhuzhu under feeling-strict-of stress under
 不得不 拿，
bu-de-bu na,
 not-DE-not take
- (b) **可是**， **她** 每 提起 傘， (b') But every time she took the umbrella, she was horrified, burst into tears and fainted.
*keshi, ta*_i *mei tǐqǐ sǎn*,
 but, she every-time take umbrella
- (c) **0_i** 都要 驚哭 一陣，
0_i dōuyào jīngkū yīzhēn,
 has-to frightened-cry a-CLASS
- (d) **0_i** 昏厥 過去 為止。
0_i hūnjué guòqu wéizhǐ.
 faint past until
 (Translation Strategies, p. 418)

Example (7) is a topic chain with more than one overt form of the same topic. This topic chain has four ChUs. The first ChU (a) contains a full NP topic *Zhuzhu* (竹竹), followed by a preposition phrase *zai qinggan-weiyān-de yālì xià* (在情感威嚴的壓力下) ‘under the stress of strict affection,’ followed by the comment. The second ChU (b) has the topic in the pronoun form, followed by a comment. In the third and fourth ChUs, the topic is realized in the zero form. The four ChUs are marked by different markers. The full NP *Zhuzhu* (竹竹) marks the beginning of the topic chain. Clause (b) is marked by a combination of three markers: a comma at the end of (a), a connective *keshi* (可是) ‘but,’ and a pronoun *ta* (她) ‘she’ at the beginning of (b). This is counted as a combination of three markers “pronoun+connective+punctuation.” Clauses (c)

and (d), each marked by the comma at the end of the previous clause, are incorporated in (b') as one sentence in the English translation. In other words, the translation reflects the two demarcation points indicated by the markers: one at the beginning of clause (a), and the other between clause (a) and clauses (b-d). However, the other two breaks indicated only by commas are not reflected. These two commas are counted as non-reflected markers.

The fourth analysis step is to compare the content of topic chains with their English translations. The purpose is to explore translation strategies that translators adopt in dealing with the information packaging. The amount of information in both texts is compared to see if the information is intact, added or deleted in the English translation. Translators may choose either to reflect the same amount of information or to adjust the amount of information for different considerations. Furthermore, the sequence of information is compared to see if the sequence is intact or reordered. Translators may choose to follow the same sequence or change the sequence of information presented in Chinese. Last, the textual relationship in both texts is compared to see if it is kept or changed. Even though the translators choose to keep the same order of information, the textual relationship may be changed. For example, when a temporal relation also implies a causal relation in a Chinese topic chain, causal connectives may be used in the English translation to indicate such relation

even though it is not explicitly marked in the Chinese version.

In short, the analysis procedures include (1) sorting topic chains into the six types, (2) identifying and counting the units, (3) analyzing and counting the boundary markers, and (4) comparing the information packaging.



Chapter Four

Results and Discussion

This chapter presents and discusses the results derived from data analysis.

Section 4.1 presents an overall description of the collected data. Examples of each topic chain type, and numbers of units in the collected topic chains will be presented.

Section 4.2 presents the translation strategies found from the analysis of the data. A general picture of strategies used in the topic chain translation will be presented first.

Following that, each strategy will then be discussed in detail with examples. Section 4.3 will summarize the findings presented in this chapter.

4.1 General Description of the Data

There are totally 58 topic chains collected for analysis, 37 from Taiwan Panorama and 21 from the five translation textbooks. The 58 topic chains are categorized into the six topic chain types proposed in Chapter Three. The number of units in topic chains is counted. The results will be presented in this section.

4.1.1 Types of topic chains

The topic chains collected cover all the six types. Examples from the data will first be given below to explain the categorization of each type.

The first type is typical topic chain.

(1)

- (a) 奇寶 輕怡 克力架_i 選用 上乘 原料，
Qibao qingyi kelijia_i xuanyong shangcheng yuanliao,
 Qibao light cracker select high-quality ingredient
- (b) 0_i 由 獨特 秘方 精緻 而成，
0_i you dute mifang jingzhi er-cheng,
 by secret recipe refine to-become
- (c) 0_i 如此 輕巧 鬆脆，
0_i ruci qing-qiao-song-cui,
 so light-flexible-soft-crunchy
- (d) 0_i 帶 給 您全家 奇寶 特有的 新鮮 美味。
0_i dai gei nin-quan-jia Qibao teyoude xinxian meiwei.
 bring to you-whole-family Qibao unique fresh good-taste
 ‘Keebler Snack Crackers are baked to a secret recipe of specially selected wholesome ingredients. The light and crispy crackers bring you and all your family that uncommonly good taste and freshness as only Keebler knows how.’ (A Practical Guide for Business Translation, p. 147)

Example (1) is taken from a translation textbook. In this example, *Qibao qingyi kelijia*

(奇寶輕怡克力架) ‘Qibao light cracker’ is the topic. Established in the first clause,

the topic then continues in the form of zero in the following clauses.

The second type is topic chain with an embedded sub-chain.

(2)

- (a) 公司_i 現 有 員工 300 多 人，
Gongsi_i xian you yuangong 300-duo ren,
 company now has employees 300-about people
- (b) 0_i 有 高中低 檔 兼備的 客房、餐廳_j，
0_i you gao-zhong-di dang jianbeide ke-fang canting_j
 exist high-medium-low class included guest-room restaurant
- (c) 0_j 可容 1000 多 人 就餐， 500 多 人 住宿，
0_j ke rong 1000-duo ren jiucan, 500-duo ren zhusu,
 can house 1000-or-so people dine, 500-or-so people stay

- (d) 0_i 是 博羅縣 對外 開放 及經濟 發展 戰略
 0_i shi Boluo-xian dui-wai kaifang ji jingji fazhan zhanlue
 is Bolou-County to-outside open and economy development strategy
 的 重要 窗口 之一。
 de zhongyao chuankou zhi-yi.
 of important window one-of

‘The corporation has a staff of 300 people. There are guest rooms and dining halls of high, normal and low levels with the capacity of over 1,000 dining seats and over 500 beds. Now the corporation has become strategic windows opening to the outside world and economic development in Bolou County.’ (*A Practical Guide for Business Translation*, p. 136)

Also taken from a textbook, example (2) has a main topic and an embedded topic. The main topic *gongsi* (公司) ‘the company’ is established in the first clause and is continued in the zero form in clause (b). Clause (b) introduces another topic *ke-fang canting* (客房、餐廳) ‘guest-room and restaurant,’ which is continued in clause (c). The topic in clause (d) shifts back to the main topic. In this example, clause (b) and (c) is regarded as an embedded topic chain.

The next type of topic chain is telescopic chain.

(3)

- (a) 他_i 實在 太 愛 她，
 Ta shizai tai ai ta,
 he really so-much love her
- (b) 0_i 便 拿 把 美麗 雨傘 交給 她_j，
 0_i bian na ba meili yusan jiao-gei ta_j,
 then take CLASS beautiful umbrella give-to she
- (c) 她_j 一 觸到 傘 柄，
 ta_j yi chu-dao san bing,
 she once touch-ASP umbrella handle
- (d) 0_j 狀 極 驚恐，
 0_j zhuang ji jingkong,
 appearance very terrified

- (e) **0_j** 急 推 地上。
0_j *ji tui dishang*.
 quickly throw ground

‘As he loved her very much, he handed her a beautiful umbrella. As soon as she touched its handle, she dazed with horror, [and] threw it on the ground.’
 (*Translation Strategies*, p. 418)

This example is taken from another textbook. The first topic *ta* (他) ‘he’ is established in the form of a pronoun in clause (a). The topic is continued in clause (b), which introduces another topic *ta* (她) ‘she.’ The second topic then continues to the end of the chain. This type of topic chain is similar to the previous one, topic chain with an embedded sub-chain. They both have a second topic introduced in the middle of the chain; however, in a telescopic chain, the new topic continues to the end of the chain, whereas in a topic chain with embedding, the new topic does not continue to the end.

The fourth type of topic chain has the topic in the zero form in the first clause.

(4)

- (a) **0_i** 歷經 種種 困難，
0_i *Lijing zhong-zhong kunnan*,
 go-through kind-kind difficulty
- (b) 由發想到走完 全程， 紙風車_i 花了 5 年 時間，
you faxiang dao zou wan quan-cheng, Zhifengche_i hua-le 5 nian shijian,
 from idea to walk finish whole-process Windmill spend-ASP 5 year time
- (c) **0_i** 終於 在 2011 年底 在 新北市 萬里區 畫下 句點。
0_i *zhongyu zai 2011 nian-di zai Xinbei-shi Wanli-qu hua-xia judian*.
 finally in 2011 year-end in NewTaipei-City Wanli-District draw-down period

‘The troupe encountered all kinds of difficulties, and it took five years from start to finish. The program came to a close with a final performance in New Taipei City’s Wanli District at the end of 2011.’ (*Taiwan Panorama*, April 2013, pp. 100-101)

Example (4) is cited from the magazine. The way that a topic is established is

different from general topic establishment. In this type of topic chain, the topic appears in the zero form in the first clause. It is not established in the second or even the third clause in the topic chain. In example (4), the topic *zhifengche* (紙風車) ‘Windmill’ is established in the full NP form in the second clause. Though the topic establishment is quite unusual, readers still can follow the idea because the topic has already been mentioned in the previous context.

The fifth type of topic chain does not have any overt topic throughout the chain.

(5)

- (a) 半年前 *0i* 開始參加坊間的纖體班課程，
Ban nian qian 0i kaishi canjia fangjian de xian-ti ban kecheng,
 half year before start participate private of thin-body class course
- (b) *0i* 飲食控制加上每天走一萬步，
0i yinshi kongzhi jiashang meitian zou yi-wan bu,
 diet control plus every-day walk 10,000 step
- (c) *0i* 49天減掉8.5公斤，
0i 49 tian jian-diao 8.5 gongjin,
 49 day cut-off 8.5 kilogram
- (d) *0i* 腰圍縮小了7.5公分，
0i yaowei suoxiao-le 7.5 gongfen,
 waist narrow-ASP 7.5 centimeter
- (e) *0i* 血壓也從162/106降到120/80，
0i xie-ya ye cong 162/106 jiang-dao 120/80,
 blood-pressure too from 162/106 fall-to 120/80
- (f) *0i* 不再需要吃藥。
0i bu-zai xuyao chi yao
 no-more need take medicine

‘Six months ago, he began taking classes at a weight-loss studio. By controlling his diet and walking 10,000 steps per day, over a 49-day period he lost 8.5 kilograms, shrank his waist by 7.5 centimeters and lowered his blood pressure from 162/106 to 120/80. As a result, he no longer needs to take blood pressure medication.’ (*Taiwan Panorama*, April 2013, pp. 72-73)

Taken from the magazine, this topic chain has the topic in the zero form throughout the chain. Not a single topic is established in this chain. Such unusual treatment is allowed because this topic chain is not the beginning of a discourse. Preceding this topic chain are four clauses, in which the topic is established.

The last type of topic chain has more than one overt form of the same topic.

(6)

- (a) 在蘇國堯眼中，早該有這種另類旅館_i出現，
Zai Suguoyao yan zhong, zao gai you zhe zhong linglei luguan_i chuxian,
 in Patrick eye in, early should exist this kind unique hotel appear
- (b) 它_i沒有五星級飯店的格局與標準化流程，
ta_i meiyou wuxingji fandian de geju yu biao zhunhua liucheng,
 it not-have five-star hotel of layout and standardized process
- (c) 0_i卻以台南特有的真情流露、待客如交友
0_i que yi Tainan teyoude zhen-qing liulou, dai ke ru jiao-you
 but by Tainan unique true-feeling reveal treat guest like make-friends
 的親切取勝。
de qinqie qusheng.
 of friendliness win

‘In Patrick’s eyes, there should have been an unusual hotel like this long ago. It has neither the swank of a five-star hotel, nor the standardized business practices, but it does exude the Tainan way of treating guests like friends.’ (*Taiwan Panorama*, April 2013, p. 52-53)

The last example is taken from the magazine, too. The topic *luguan* (旅館) ‘hotel’ is established in the form of a full NP in the first clause. It is continued not in the form of zero but in the form of a pronoun in the immediately following clause.

The total 37 topic chains collected from the magazine cover all the six types of topic chains while the 21 topic chains from the textbooks cover only four types. The frequency count and percentages of the topic chain types found in the magazine and

textbooks are summarized in Table 2 below.

Table 2

Numbers and Percentages of Each Topic Chain Type

Types of Topic Chain	<u>Magazine</u>		<u>Textbooks</u>	
	N	(%)	N	(%)
(1) Typical topic chain	17	(46%)	6	(29%)
(2) Topic chain with embedding	2	(5%)	2	(10%)
(3) Telescopic chain	7	(19%)	3	(14%)
(4) Zero-form topic in the first clause	2	(5%)	0	(0%)
(5) Topic chain without any overt topic	2	(5%)	0	(0%)
(6) Chain with more than one overt form of the same topic	7	(19%)	10	(48%)
Total	37	(100%)	21	(100%)

The distribution of topic chain types of the magazine data and the textbook data presents some interesting results. To begin with, the magazine data cover more types of topic chains than the textbook data. The variety of topic chain types in the magazine shows that people would make use of diverse structures, even including uncommon structures like topic chains without any overt topic, in different contexts and different situations to achieve their various goals of communication. Textbook sentences, however, are carefully chosen as models for instruction. It is likely that textbook writers choose more typical and well-organized sentences. Textbook data thus show fewer varieties.

Second, among the six types, three types of topic chains take up a major proportion in both the magazine data and the textbook data: (1) typical topic chains, (2) telescopic chains, and (3) topic chains with more than one overt form of the same

topic. The three types of topic chains account for more than 80% in the two sets of data. Nevertheless, the three types show different distribution patterns in the magazine data and in the textbook data. In the magazine data, typical topic chains account for the largest proportion (46%). Telescopic chains (19%) and topic chains with more than one overt form of the same topic (19%) are both the second largest types. On the other hand, in the textbook data, topic chains with more than one overt form of the same topic are most frequently found (48%), followed by typical topic chains (29%) and telescopic chains (14%). The reason of the correlation between a certain type of topic chain and the genre of data has not been identified yet. More research is needed on this issue.

The third finding is that two types of topic chains account for the smallest proportion in both the magazine and the textbook data: (1) topic chains with zero-form topic in the first clause, and (2) topic chains without any overt topic. There are only two tokens for each type in the magazine. Such low proportion of the two types may result from difficulty of comprehension. The two types of topic chains do not have an established full NP topic in the beginning. Readers have to depend on the previous discourse to resolve the topic, which brings extra load in processing. Moreover, the two types of topic chains are not found in the textbook data because these types of topic chains require previous discourse to be understood, which is

usually not available in textbooks. Topic chains collected from textbooks are usually example sentences or exercises without previous discourse. In order for readers to understand, textbook writers would choose sample topic chains that present complete meaning without referring to previous context.

4.1.2 Numbers of units in topic chains

The topic chains (37 from the magazine and 21 from the textbooks) are then coded by unit. A ChU is a clause with a topic and a comment; an EnU is a complete sentence. The total 58 topic chains have 222 ChUs, which are translated into 140 EnUs. Table 3 below provides the details.

Table 3
Numbers of Units in the Data

	Number of ChUs	Number of EnUs	Number of ChUs per EnU
Magazine	141	92	1.53
Textbooks	81	48	1.68
Total	222	140	1.58
Avg. per topic chain	3.82	2.41	

From Table 3, we can see that the number of ChUs is larger than that of EnUs in both the magazine data and the textbook data. A total of 222 ChUs are translated into 140 EnUs. This suggests that translators tend to combine ChUs into one EnU. Averagely, around two ChUs are combined into one EnU. As discussed in Chapter Two, Chinese sentences tend to be paratactic while English sentences tend to be hypotactic (Cheng,

1997; Huang, 2007; Pang, 1997; Yang, 2006). A Chinese discourse can have several parallel clauses without any connectives. Connectives are not the major means of connecting Chinese clauses; instead, the clauses are linked by semantic relations between clauses. When a main clause and an attributive clause are juxtaposed together Chinese speakers can tell which clause is the main clause and which clause is the attributive clause based on semantic relations of the two clauses. On the other hand, in English, the semantic relations are usually reflected in the syntactic structure. The English syntactic structure is more complex than Chinese. In addition to connectives, there are a variety of attributive structures in English, such as prepositional phrases, participial phrases, infinitives, relative clauses, etc (Huang, 1988). When translated from Chinese to English, the attributive information in Chinese parallel structure is likely to be transformed into a hierarchical structure in English. Below is an example.

- (7)
- | | | | |
|-----|---------------------------------------------------------------------|------|----------------------------------------------------|
| (a) | 這劉姥姥 _i 是個 久經世代的 老寡婦， | (a') | The Granny Liu was an ancient widow-woman, rich in |
| | <i>Zhe Liu laolao_i shi ge jiu jingshidaide lao guafu</i> | | experience of the world, |
| | this Liu granny is CLASS sophisticated — old widow | | who, having no son or |
| (b) | 膝下 又無子媳， | | daughter-in-law to cherish her, |
| | <i>0_i xi xia you wu zi xi.</i> | | eked out her solitary existence |
| | knee under also no son daughter-in-law | | by scratching a livelihood from |
| (c) | 只靠 兩畝薄 田 度日，... | | a miserable half-acre of land. |
| | <i>0_i zhi kao liang mu bo tian duri</i> | | ... |
| | only depend two acre miserable land live | | |

(*Chinese-English Translation through Contrastive Analysis*, p.180)

In this example (7), there are three parallel ChUs but they are translated into only one EnU. Clause (a) introduces the topic and it is translated as the main clause in English.

Clauses (b) and (c) in Chinese provides attributive information. Though they are structurally parallel to clause (a), the two clauses are combined to form a relative clause in English. Clause (b) is even reduced to a participial clause. This example shows how the semantic relations in Chinese parallel structures are restructured in English.

Another finding is that the average number of EnU per topic chain is 2.41. This means a topic chain is usually translated into two to three English sentences. This could be taken as a criterion in demarcating a Chinese topic chain. In real practice, nonetheless, translators still have to consider semantics, syntactic structure, markers, textual relationship, information load, etc before deciding how many EnUs a Chinese topic chain is translated into.

4.2 Translation Strategies of Topic Chains

The linguistic forms and information packaging of Chinese topic chains are compared with those of English translation to find out the translation strategies. Three translation strategies of topic chains are found: Reflecting the Markers, Establishing Textuality, and Rearranging Information. The first strategy—Reflecting the Markers—is found from the analysis of linguistic markers. “Reflecting the Markers” means that the continuity break indicated by Chinese linguistic markers such as

referent forms, connectives or punctuation marks in the chains is reflected as a break in the English translation. The other two strategies are found through comparing the information packaging. The translator may demarcate the topic chains into English units based on the internal textual relationship of the text. This is the second strategy, “Establishing Textuality.” The third strategy “Rearranging Information” is observed when the amount of information, the sequence of information and the textuality are compared. When Rearranging Information is adopted, the translator does not completely follow the original information organization. The translator may add, delete the information or reorder the information flow in the process of translation. In the following section 4.2.1, overall frequencies of strategies used in topic chain translation will be presented first. Following that, sections 4.2.2 to 4.2.4 will present detailed descriptions and examples of each strategy.

4.2.1 Overall frequencies of the three strategies

This section will outline the frequencies of strategies used in translating Chinese topic chains. The frequencies result from counting the use of strategy per topic chain. A strategy used in a topic chain will be counted only once, even if the same strategy is used at different demarcation points of the same topic chain. Since a topic chain can be quite long, different strategies may be applied to different sections of a topic chain.

This will be regarded as a combination of strategies in one topic chain. A combination of strategies will be counted once, too. For example, if a topic chain shows the use of Reflecting the Markers and Establishing Textuality, it will be counted once as a combination of two strategies (S1+S2). The use of the three different strategies in different demarcation points of a topic chain is also found in the data; it is counted once as a combination of the three strategies (S1+S2+S3). Example (8) below is an example for illustration. In this example, markers are bordered and added information is underlined.

- (8)
- | | |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <p>(a) 此外， 台灣 也 直接 出資 參與
 <i>Ciwai, Taiwan ye zhijie chuzi canyu</i>
 Moreover Taiwan also directly invest participate
 歐銀 的 投資案，
 <i>Ouyin de touzi-an;</i>
 EBRD of investment-project</p> | <p>(a') In addition to the TC Fund, Taiwan has also made direct investments in EBRD-funded projects.</p> |
| <p>(b) 這些投資計畫 的 總 產出 價值
 <i>zhexie touzi-jihua de zong chanchu jiazhi</i>
 these investment-project of total production value
 達 38.9 億 歐元，
 <i>da 38.9 yi Ou-yuan,</i>
 up-to 3.89 billion Euro-dollar</p> | <p>(b') <u>Adding in further investment from other countries and sources</u>, the total cumulative value of projects with Taiwanese-EBRD involvement now stands at €3.89 billion.</p> |
| <p>(c) 0_i 成效 卓越。
 <i>0_i chengxiao zhuoyue</i>
 result outstanding</p> | <p>(c') The results have thus been outstanding.</p> |
- (*Taiwan Panorama*, April, 2013, p. 42-43)

In this example, there are two NP markers and two commas. These markers are all reflected as demarcation points. This is the application of the first strategy. Clauses (a)

and (b) describe facts but clause (c) provides evaluation. The different textual relationship is reflected in English as separate sentences. This shows the application of the second strategy. In addition, clause (b') has added information, which is the application of the third strategy. Example (8) is thus considered a token of S1+S2+S3.

Table 4 summarizes the overall frequencies of translation strategies in the data.

Table 4

Overall Frequencies of Translation Strategies in Topic Chains

Strategies	S1 ^a	S2 ^b	S3 ^c	S1+S2	S1+S3	S2+S3	S1+S2+S3	Total
Data	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)
Magazine	11 (30)	0 (0)	0 (0)	12 (32)	11 (30)	0 (0)	3 (8)	37 (100)
Textbooks	16 (76)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (10)	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (14)	21 (100)
Total	27 (47)	0 (0)	0 (0)	14 (24)	11 (19)	0 (0)	6 (10)	58 (100)

Note. ^a S1= Reflecting the Markers

^b S2 = Establishing Textuality

^c S3 = Rearranging Information

From the table, we can see that S1 is found to be the only strategy that can be used singly. The single use of S2 or S3 in a topic chain is not found. Combinations of two or three strategies are found in the data: S1+S2, S1+S3, and S1+S2+S3. However, S2+S3 is not found. All together, single use of S1 is found in 47% of the topic chains, combinations of two strategies are found in another 43% of the data, and the rest 10% of topic chains show the use of all the three strategies.

There are several points that should be noted based on the results. First, markers play a crucial role in translating Chinese topic chains. Nearly half (47%) of the total data show single use of S1 but no data show use of S2 or S3 alone. This indicates that translators rely on markers to certain degree. Nearly half of the topic chains are

demarcated solely based on markers. Similarly, no single use of S2 and S3 indicates that translating a topic chain cannot be achieved without considering markers.

Second, from the combination of strategies, we can see the importance of markers again. All the combinations of strategies contain S1. The S1+S2 combination is found in 24% of the data and the S1+S3 combination is found in 19% of the data. The rest 10% of the topic chains show the use of all the three strategies. There is no token of S2+S3 combination, which suggests that topic chain translation cannot be done without applying S1.

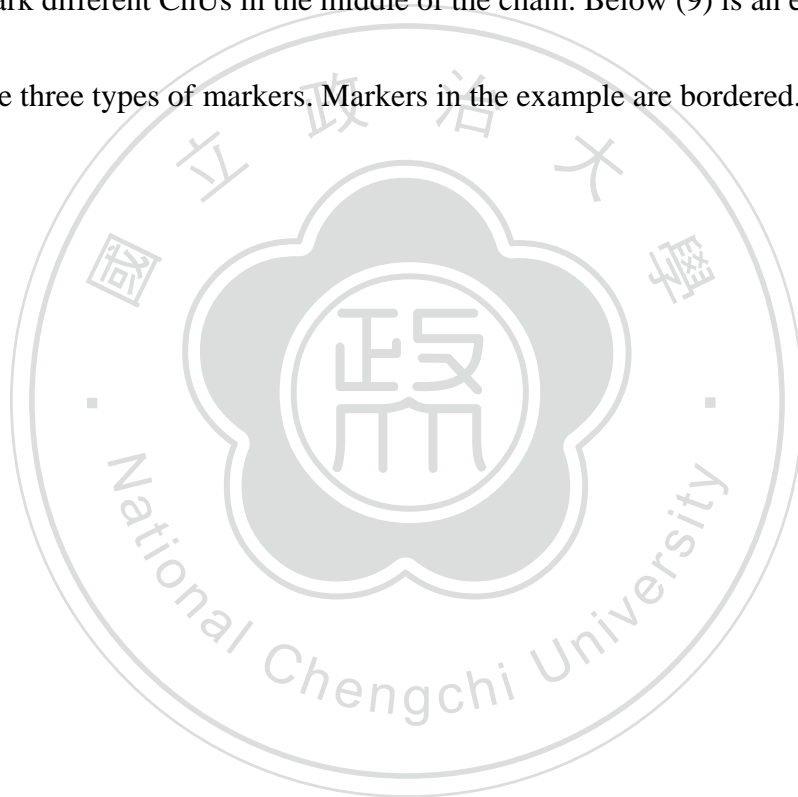
Third, the magazine data show more combinations of strategies than the textbook data. The combinations of strategies account for 70% of the magazine data but only 24% of the textbook data. This is probably due to the diversity nature of the magazine data. The authentic language use in the magazine is full of diversities so translators have to resort to a variety of translation strategies.

4.2.2 The first strategy: Reflecting the Markers

In this section, detailed description and examples of the first strategy—Reflecting the Markers—will be presented. Reflecting the Markers means that translators would demarcate the Chinese topic chains into different EnUs based on the Chinese boundary markers.

After the examination of the linguistic markers at the demarcation points in the

Chinese topic chains, three types of boundary markers have been found in the English translation: (1) nominal references of topic¹⁴, (2) connectives, and (3) punctuation marks. The use of NP or pronoun topics marks a major continuity break. The four types of connectives (Halliday & Hansan, 1976)—additive, adversative, causal, and temporal—mark a break of textual relationship. Chinese punctuation marks such as commas mark different ChUs in the middle of the chain. Below (9) is an example to illustrate the three types of markers. Markers in the example are bordered.



¹⁴ Nominal reference is realized in three forms in Chinese: full NP, pronoun and zero form. Full NPs and pronouns reflect a break in continuity while zero form reflects high continuity, which is seldom treated as a demarcation boundary. Since full NPs and pronouns are overt boundary markers, the discussion below will focus on the two forms.

- (9)
- (a) 在 胼手胝足的 勞動 中，¹⁵ (a') From hands-on work, the
Zai pian-shou-zhi-zu-de laodong zhong,
 in callus-hand-callus-foot-of work in
 孩子們_i 也 常 與 家長 討論
haizi-men_i ye chang yu jiazhang taolun
 child-PL too often with parents discuss
 如何 讓 作物 長 得 更好，
ruhe rang zuowu zhang de genghao,
 how make crops grow DE better
- (b) 0_i 並 將 學校 習得 的 知識 (b') Bringing knowledge learned at
0_i bing jiang xuexiao xide de zhishi
 and JIANG school learn DE knowledge
 帶 回 家 中，
dai hui jia zhong,
 bring back home in
- (c) 0_i 試圖 影響 長輩 改 採 (c')
0_i shitu yingxiang zhangbei gai cai
 try influence elders change adopt
 無 毒 農 法，
wu-du nong-fa
 non-toxic farming-methods
- (d) 親子_j¹⁶ 間 更 激 盪 出 (c') These experiences create an
qin-zi_j jian geng jidang chu
 parent-child between even create out
 源源不斷的 話題。
yuanyuanbuduande huati
 unending topic

(Taiwan Panorama, April, 2013, pp. 30-31)

The example has four ChUs translated into three EnUs. The four ChUs show different types of markers. Clause (a) is marked by the the full NP *haizi-men* (孩子們)

¹⁵ This comma is not considered a boundary marker because it appears after a preposition phrase.

¹⁶ The topic *qin-zi* (親子) 'parent and child' bears the whole-part semantic relation to another full NP topic, *haizi-men* (孩子們) 'child-PL.' In a more flexible sense, they are considered the same topics.

‘child-PL.’ Clause (b) is marked by a combination of markers: the comma after clause (a) and the connective *bing* (並) ‘and’ at the beginning of (b). Clause (c) is marked by the comma after (b). Clause (d) is also marked by a combination of two markers: the comma at the end of (c) and the full NP *qin-zi* (親子) ‘parent and child’ at the beginning of (d). Although the four ChUs are all separated by markers, not all the demarcations are reflected. The translator reflects the first full NP marker and translates (a) into (a’); the combination of markers in (b) is also reflected in (b’); however, the demarcation between (b) and (c) marked by a comma is not reflected; then, the demarcation between (c) and (d) marked by a comma and a full NP is reflected in (c’). These markers can be reference for demarcation in translation because they reflect the continuity break between these clauses. The full NP in (a) marks the beginning of a topic chain. The connective in (b) links global unit (a) and the other unit composed of (b)-(c). Clauses (b) and (c) are considered a unit because they share a close action-goal relationship. The full NP in (d) marks a break from previous clauses, with clause (d) describing the results of actions mentioned in (a)-(c).

The overall frequencies of markers of each type are provided in Table 5 and Table 6 first. After a general description of the overall frequencies, a more detailed explanation of each marker will be provided. Markers can appear at the beginning of a topic chain. They are usually full NPs and pronouns. Table 5 presents the frequencies

of markers appearing at the beginning of topic chains. The beginning of topic chains is usually marked by nominal references, connectives or the combination of the two.

All of the boundaries indicated by markers at the beginning of the topic chains are reflected in the EnU.

Table 5
Frequencies of Markers at the Beginning of a Topic Chain

Markers	Reflected		Non-Reflected		Total	
	N ^a	(%)	N	(%)	N	(%)
M1 ^b	37	(100%)	0	(0%)	37	(100%)
M2 ^c	1	(100%)	0	(0%)	1	(100%)
M1 + M2	16	(100%)	0	(0%)	16	(100%)
Total	54	(100%)	0	(0%)	54 ^d	(100%)

Note. ^a The tokens are counted per ChU.

^b M1 = Full NPs, pronouns

^c M2 = Connectives

^d There are totally 58 topic chains in the collected data. Three topic chains do not have overt markers in the first clause; one topic chain starts with background information without the topic; thus, these four units are excluded.

For markers that do not appear at the beginning of a topic chain, they are roughly called “markers in the middle of the topic chain.” Table 6 presents markers in the middle of topic chains.

Table 6
Frequencies of Markers of in the Middle of Topic Chains

Markers	Reflected		Non-Reflected		Total	
	N ^a	(%)	N	(%)	N	(%)
M3 ^b	29	(31%)	64	(69%)	93	(100%)
M3+M1 ^c	15	(63%)	9	(38%)	24	(100%)
M3+M2 ^d	22	(71%)	9	(29%)	31	(100%)
M3+M1+M2	15	(94%)	1	(6%)	16	(100%)
Total	81	(49%)	83	(51%)	164	(100%)

Note. ^a The tokens are counted per ChU.

^b M3 = Punctuation marks

^c M1 = Full NPs, pronouns

^d M2 = Connectives

Since ChUs of topic chains must be separated by punctuation marks, all the ChUs contain M3—punctuation marks.¹⁷ Among the boundaries indicated by markers in the middle of a topic chain, around half of them (49%) are treated as a break in English translation. Although punctuation marks (M3s) are the markers used most frequently, only 31% of them are reflected. In terms of the combination of markers, 63% of M3+M1 are reflected; 71% of M3+M2 are reflected. Almost all the ChUs with the combinations of M3+M1+M2 are reflected, except for one.

From the results, we can find that among the three types of markers, punctuation marks are the weakest reference for translators. Punctuation marks are most frequently used to indicate the boundary between clauses in a Chinese topic chain but only one-third of their occurrences are reflected in the translation. However, combinations of M3 with other markers are more likely to be reflected. More than half of M3+M1 and M3+M2 are reflected. This suggests that M1 and M2 play more important roles than M3 in demarcation.

The results are consistent with Givón's (1984) iconicity principle. According to Givón, iconicity manifests itself in a number of principles, one of which is the quantity principle:

¹⁷ Only commas that occur at ChU boundaries are calculated as a boundary marker. Commas that occur at constituent boundaries within a clause (cf. p.45) are not calculated.

(10) The quantity principle

A larger chunk of information will be given a larger chunk of code. Less predictable information will be given more coding material. More important information will be given more coding material. (Givón 1984, p. 970)

The principle is observed by the translators, too. The results show that the number of types of markers used in the units is highly associated with the number of reflected markers. The reflection percentage of single markers, two markers combined, and three markers combined are 31%, 63%, and 94%, respectively. This is in accordance with the quantity principle. This single marker (M3) indicates smaller chunk of information, more predicable information and minor continuity break. On the other hand, the combination of two or more markers reflects larger chunk of information, less predictable information, and major continuity break. The large continuity break marked by a combination of three markers thus tends to be reflected in English translation.

The three types of markers in a topic chain will each be discussed in more details below. First, we consider only the full NP and pronoun topics in the middle of topic chains. It has been observed that they play a crucial reference for translators. Table 7 shows that in the collected data, there are 40 full NPs and pronouns in the middle of topic chains. Up to 76% of NPs and 73% of pronouns are reflected in English translation as demarcation points.

Table 7

Reflected and Non-Reflected Full NPs and Pronouns in the Middle of Topic Chains

Nominal Forms	Reflected		Non-Reflected		Total	
	N	(%)	N	(%)	N	(%)
Full NPs	19	(76%)	6	(24%)	25	(100%)
Pronouns	11	(73%)	4	(27%)	15	(100%)
Total	30	(75%)	10	(25%)	40	(100%)

The result is in line with previous research (Chen, 1986; Chen, 2010; Chu, 1998; Li, 1985; Xu, 2010). Full NPs and pronouns in Chinese represent continuity breaks.

Therefore, the break indicated by full NPs and pronouns is usually reflected in English sentential demarcation. On the other hand, the high continuity marked by zero forms is reflected by the zero break in the English translation.

Contrary to Li's (1985) argument that pronouns occur in a minor break to mark the beginning of a separate topic chain while NPs are used at the beginning of a paragraph, we have found both NPs and pronouns within the topic chain. In fact, it has also been found in other studies (Chen, 2010; Chu, 1998; Xu, 2010) that the choice among full NP, pronoun and zero form are not entirely conditioned by the discourse structure. For example, one of the reasons that a pronoun is chosen instead of a zero form is to mark a change of the event (Chen, 2010). Syntax and pragmatics may play a role (Chu, 1998). The choice of referent forms may also be subject to the writer's style (Xu, 2010). According to Xu (2010), the Chinese language in some articles is westernized to some degree, and the zero forms are less used in those works.

In addition to full NPs and pronouns, connectives also mark continuity breaks.

The breaks may be reflected as demarcation points in English translation. Below is the

distribution of each type of connectives and the number of those which are reflected.

Table 8

Reflected and Non-Reflected Connectives in the Middle of Topic Chains

Types of Connectives	Reflected		Non-Reflected		Total	
	N	(%)	N	(%)	N	(%)
Temporal	12	(92%)	1	(8%)	13	(100%)
Causal	6	(90%)	1	(10%)	7	(100%)
Adversative ^a	9	(75%)	3	(25%)	12	(100%)
Additive	11	(70%)	4	(30%)	15	(100%)
Total	38	(80%)	9	(20%)	47	(100%)

Note. ^a A token of Chinese correlative conjunction *suiran...danshi* (雖然...但是) ‘although...but...’ is found in the data. The pair of correlative conjunction is counted as one token.

If all the connectives in the middle of topic chains are considered, we can see that connectives are as strong reference for demarcation as referent forms. Of all these connectives, 80% is manifested as demarcation point in English translation. Among all the four types of markers, temporal markers are mostly reflected (92%), followed by casual markers (90%) and adversative markers (75%). Even the least reflected markers, additive markers, are reflected as high as 70%. The reflected markers link larger discourse units while the non-reflected markers link closely related units. For instance, in example (9) on page 66, the additive connective *bin* (並) ‘and’ links global unit (a) with another unit (b)-(c), whereas in example (6) on page 55, the adversative connective *que* (卻) ‘but’ links local units (b) and (c).

The last type of markers is punctuation marks. As reviewed in Chapter Two,

different punctuation marks reflect different degrees of continuity break. The distribution of reflected and non-reflected punctuation marks is presented in Table 9. Overall, only 41% of the punctuation marks are reflected as demarcation in English. Compared with nominal referents and connectives, punctuation marks are relatively less reflected in translation. The most reflected punctuation marks are semicolons (67%). Commas are almost half reflected (49%). Only one token of dash and one token of listing marker are reflected.

Table 9
Distribution of Reflected and Non-Reflected Punctuation Marks

Types of Connectives	Reflected		Non-Reflected		Total	
	N	(%)	N	(%)	N	(%)
Semicolons	4	(67%)	2	(33%)	6	(100%)
Dashes ^a	1	(50%)	1	(50%)	2	(100%)
Commas ^b	77	(49%)	81	(51%)	158	(100%)
Listing Markers ^a	1	(2%)	42	(98%)	43	(100%)
Total	83	(41%)	121	(59%)	204	(100%)

Note. ^a Dashes and listing markers do not occur at ChU boundaries. However, few reflected examples are found in the data. Thus, they are also included in the calculation.

^b Only commas at the ChU boundary are calculated.

^c Colons are not found in the data.

^d Full stops mark the end of a topic chain, thus not counted.

The results in fact match the function of each punctuation mark. As discussed in Chapter Two, semicolons are mainly used to indicate contrastive ideas. The contrast in ideas marked by semicolons would thus be reflected in English translation. However, semicolons can also mark parallel ideas. The two non-reflected tokens in the data are in fact markers of parallel ideas. Below (11) is the topic chain for illustration.

(11)

- (a) 像 0_i 以 e-mail 提供 各種
Xiang 0_i yi e-mail tigong ge-zhong
 like by e-mail offer all-kinds
 減重 資訊 的「健康 報馬仔」;
jian-zhong zixun de jiankang bao-ma-zai
 lose-weight information of health report-horse-man
- (a') It launched an email list providing regular weight-loss tips, and held cycling, hiking, and walking activities, as well as starting on-site yoga classes.
- (b) 0_i 不定期 舉辦 鐵馬、登山、
0_i bu-ding-qi juban tie-ma deng-shan
 not-regular-time hold iron-horse climb-mountain
 健走 等 戶外活動;
jian-zou deng huwai huodong
 health-walk etc. outdoor activity
- (c) 0_i 在 廠內 開辦 yoga 韻律 教室;
0_i zai chang-nei kaiban yoga yunlu jiaoshi
 in factory-in start yoga rhythm classroom
- (d) 0_i 還 發放 健康 動動 小卡,
0_i hai fafang jiankang dong-dong xiao-ka
 even distribute health move-move small-card
- (b') Staff were even given reminder cards, helping them remember to get up and get moving from time to time.
- (e) 0_i 提醒 大家 不要 久坐,¹⁸
0_i tixing dajia buyao jiu-zuo
 remind everyone not long-sit
 不時 起來 動一動。
bushi qilai dong-yi-dong
 from-time-to-time get-up move-Yi-move
 (Taiwan Panorama, April, 2013, pp. 84-85)

The topic chain has five ChUs, translated into two EnUs. Clauses (a)-(c) are integrated into (a') and clauses (d)-(e) are combined into (b'). There are five markers in the source text: three semicolons, one comma, and one additive marker. However, among the three semicolons, only the one at the end of clause (c) is reflected as a boundary in English translation. The other two semicolons between clauses (a) and (b)

18 This comma is not considered a boundary marker because there is an embedded structure. *Dajia buyao jiu-zuo, bushi qilai dong-yi-dong* (大家不要久坐，不時起來動一動) is considered a complement of the verb *tixing* (提醒).

and between clauses (b) and (c) are not reflected probably due to the local parallel ideas between the clauses. In addition, these two single semicolons show a relatively minor continuity break compared with the marker combination of a semicolon and an additive marker before clause (d).

However, other than semicolons, the other types of punctuation marks are not reflected as frequently. Only half of the commas are reflected. This is in line with previous discussion. Commas are used to separate ChUs apart at both local and global level units. The commas used at local level are usually not reflected. Similarly, dashes and listing markers which are used to connect local units such as noun phrases or verb phrases are not reflected either. Thus only one token of dash and one token of listing marker are reflected.

In sum, the first strategy—Reflecting the Markers—plays an important role in the translation of topic chains. This strategy is used in every topic chain translation in the collected data. Based on this strategy, a Chinese topic chain is demarcated into different units by the three types of boundary markers: nominal references of topic, connectives and punctuation marks. These units are then translated into different English sentences. The more markers appear at the unit boundary, the more likely the boundary is reflected in English translation. Among the three types of markers, nominal references of topic and connectives represent strong indication for

demarcation. Punctuation marks, on the other hand, are relatively weak demarcation markers. Only semicolons are more likely to be reflected.

4.2.3 The second strategy: Establishing Textuality

Although markers are quite helpful in demarcating a Chinese topic chain into different units, there are some topic chains that have no markers except for commas, which, according to the discussion in section 4.2.2, are weak demarcation markers. Such topic chains contain very limited linguistic markers as reference for translators to demarcate. Other strategies are thus employed by translators to decide the structure of EnUs.

From analyzing information packaging in such topic chains and in their English translation, we have found the second strategy—Establishing Textuality. This strategy means that translators demarcate the Chinese topic chains into units based on the internal textual relationship. As previous literature has indicated (Cheng, 1997; Huang, 2007; Pang, 1997; Yang, 2006), some Chinese topic chains contain clauses of parallel syntactical structures. However, they do not always express parallel information (Kwan, 1997). Some clauses may be more closely linked together than others. Such semantic relationships constitute internal textual relationships of a topic chain. In treating these topic chains, translators will first identify the textual relationships of the

clauses within a topic chain, and then transfer them to English relationships. Below is an example for illustration.

(12)

- (a) 例如，由英國藝術史家
Liru you Yingguo yishu-shi-jia
 For example, by British art-history-scholar
 朱利安·史帖拉布雷斯設計的〈路面房〉¹⁹，
Zhulian Shitielabuleisi sheji-de lumian-fang_i，
 Julian Stallabrass design-DE pavement-room
 將房間布置得有如街道一般，
jiang fangjian buzhi-de youru jiedao yiban，
 make room decorate-DE like street look
- (a') Art room 2 (“The Architecture of the Pavement”), designed by British art historian Julian Stallabrass, is set up to look like a street scene.
- (b) 0_i 床單是柏油路的大圖輸出，
0_i chuang-dan shi boyou-lu de da-tu shuchu，
 bed-sheet is tar-road of big-picture print
- (b') The bed covers resemble pavement, the furniture takes the forms of a park bench and streetlight, and the couch pillows are sewer grates.
- (c) 0_i 家具是公園長椅與路燈，
0_i jiaju shi gongyuan changyi yu lu-deng，
 furniture is park bench and street-lamp
- (d) 0_i 甚至抱枕也做成水溝蓋圖案。
0_i shenzhi baozhen ye zuocheng
 even couch-pillow too be-made
shuigou-gai tuan.
 sewer-cover picture
- (Taiwan Panorama, April, 2013, pp. 54-55)

This example contains four parallel Chinese clauses linked by commas. The four ChUs are translated into two English sentences. The only boundary markers found in the Chinese topic chain are the full NP topic *lumian-fang* (路面房) ‘pavement-room,’ modified by a relative clause and commas at the end of each ChU. The full NP topic

¹⁹ This comma is not regarded as a boundary marker because it is considered a topic marker, which appears between the topic and the comment (cf. Tsao, 1979).

marks the beginning of the topic chain and the commas at the end of each ChU are weak references for demarcation. Without other markers to signal the continuity breaks within the topic chain, translators resort to the internal textuality for demarcation. In this example, clause (a) is a general description about the pavement room whereas clauses (b)-(d) provide detailed descriptions of the specific items in the room. Despite the lack of textual relationship markers, it is still obvious that clause (a) and clauses (b)-(d) form a general-specific textual relationship. This internal textual relationship serves as reference for demarcation in English translation. The general-specific relationship is established more clearly in the English translation. The English sentence (a') is a general description and the English sentence (b') is a specific description.

Among the collected 58 topic chains, 21 topic chains (36%) show the use of this strategy. Table 10 below presents the distribution of use of the Establishing Textuality strategy in different types of topic chains.

Table 10

Types of Topic Chains Showing Use of Establishing Textuality

Types of topic chains	Number of topic chains (%)
(1) Typical topic chain	11 (52%)
(2) Topic chain with embedding	2 (10%)
(3) Telescopic chain	2 (10%)
(4) Zero-form topic in the first clause	1 (5%)
(5) No overt topic	1 (5%)
(6) Chain with more than one overt form of the same topic	4 (19%)
Total	21 (100%)

Among all the 21 topic chains that use the Establishing Textuality strategy, typical

topic chains account for more than half (52%) of the data. Such large proportion of typical topic chains suggests that Establishing Textuality is helpful in dealing with typical topic chains. Typical topic chains, as discussed previously, have the topic established in the first clause and then the topic is continued in the form of zero. Without the overt topics marking the continuity breaks in the following clauses, translators tend to adopt the second strategy, Establishing Textuality.

There are four types of textual relationships observed in this strategy: (1) general-specific, (2) cause-effect, (3) background-foreground, and (4) foreground-evaluation. Example (12) above is an illustration of general-specific. Example (13) below presents the cause-effect relationship.

(13)

- | | |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <p>(a) 說 來 巧 合 ，
 <i>Shuo lai qiaohe,</i>
 speak come coincidence
 這 4 所 學 校 都 是 女 校 長 ！
 <i>zhe 4 suo xuexiao dou shi nu-xiaozhang!</i>
 these 4 CLASS school all are female-principal</p> | <p>(a') It's quite a coincidence that all four of our schools have female principals.</p> |
| <p>(b) 0_i 常 會 以 媽 媽 的 角 度
 <i>chang hui yi mama-de jiaodu</i>
 often will with mother-POSS perspective
 思 索 如 何 讓 孩 子 吃 得 更 好 ，
 <i>sisuo ruhe rang haizi chi-de genghao</i>
 think how make children eat-DE better</p> | <p>(b') We all have a tendency to mother our students a bit, to seek ways to get them to eat better, which is how we got into organics.</p> |
| <p>(c) 0_i 才 會 毅 然 決 然 地 投 入 有 機 飲 食 吧 ！
 <i>cai hui yiranjuerandi tou-ru youji yinshi ba</i>
 CAI will determinedly throw-in organic diet PART
 (Taiwan Panorama, April, 2013, p. 25)</p> | |

In this example, apart from the first full NP topic and the two commas, there are no

other markers. Although textual markers are absent, the cause-effect relationship can be derived from the passage. Clause (a) provides the cause for clauses (b)-(c). The fact that they are female principals explains why they are concerned for their students' diet, which in turn leads to their determination to provide organic diet. The adverb *caihui* (才會) 'will' in the topic chain indicates the causal relation. The translator establishes this cause-effect relationship by separating (a) from (b)-(c). Clause (a) is translated into (a'), which presents the cause, and clauses (b)-(c) are combined into (b'), which shows the result. Nonetheless, it should be noted that there is some room for different interpretations of the textual relationships when there are no overt textual markers. For example, clauses (a)-(b) in (13) can be considered *cause* while clause (c), *effect*.

Example (14) below presents both background-foreground and foreground-evaluation in one single topic chain.

- (14)
- (a) 1989 年 柏林 圍牆 倒塌， (a') Headquartered in London, the
1989 nian Bolin weiqiang daota,
 1989 year Berlin Wall collapse EBRD was founded in 1991,
 about a year and a half after the
 (b) 隨即 於 1991 年 成立 的 collapse of the Berlin Wall.
suiji yu 1991 nian chengli de
 instantly in 1991 year found DE
 歐洲 復興 開發 銀行²⁰
Ouzhou fuxing kaifa yinhang,
 Europe reconstruction development bank
 總部 位於 英國 倫敦，
zongbu weiyu Yingguo Lundun,
 headquarter locate U.K. London
- (c) 0_i 是 冷戰 結束 後 歐洲 新興 的 (b') It serves as a regional
0_i shi Lengzhan jieshu hou Ouzhou xinxingde
 is Cold War end after Europe new development entity for
 區域性 開發 援助 機構， emerging economies in
quyuxing kaifa yuanzhu jigou,
 regional development support association post-Cold-War Europe, and
 works to support economic
 (d) 0_i 致力於 協助 東歐 與 中亞 development in 34 countries in
0_i zhili yu xiezhu Dong-Ou yu Zhong-Ya
 dedicate to help East-Europe and Central-Asia Eastern Europe and Central
 境內 34 個 國家 的 經濟 發展， Asia.
jing-nei 34 ge guojia-de jingji fazhan
 border-in 34 MEA national-POSS economy development
- (e) 0_i 就 像 是 小規模 的 世界 銀行， (c') Some would describe it as a
0_i jiu xiang shi xiaoguimode shijie yinhang,
 just like is small world-bank or Asian Development Bank.
 以及 亞洲 銀行。
yiji Yazhou yinhang
 and Asian bank

(Taiwan Panorama, April, 2013, p. 41)

Example (14) can be divided into three discourse units: background information, foreground information, and evaluation. Clauses (a)-(b) provide background

²⁰ This comma marks a topic.

information for the topic *Ouzhou fuxing kaifa yinhang* (歐洲復興開發銀行)

‘European Bank for Reconstruction and Development (EBRD).’ Clauses (c)-(d) are foreground information, describing the function and goal of EBRD. The last clause, clause (e) makes an evaluation by providing a metaphor for EBRD.

The three sections form a linear order. Background information usually appears at the beginning of a topic chain. It usually contains background knowledge like time, place, or previous events. Then, foreground information presents the most important information about the topic in the topic chain. After the foreground information is presented, evaluation may come at the end of a topic chain. An evaluation is like a comment on the foreground information. It can be achieved by a metaphor like example (14) or simply by an adjective phrase.

In fact, the *background* and *evaluation* components of discourse have been previously discussed either in narrative genre or in argumentative genre. In the narrative genre, six structural elements of personal oral narrative are identified by Labov (1972): abstract, orientation, complicating actions, evaluation, resolution and coda. *Orientation* provides the setting of a narrative, such as time, place and characters. This is similar to *background* in the present study. *Evaluation* values the narrative either from the characters’ perspective or from the writer’s perspective. In argumentative genre, Tirkkonen-Condit (as cited in Connor, 1996) proposes a

four-unit structure which includes *situation*, *problem*, *solution*, and *evaluation*. The *situation* part gives background knowledge of time, place, character, and event to the reader. We can find that *background* and *evaluation* each marks the beginning and final part of a discourse organization.

The frequency count of each textual relationship dealt with by this strategy is provided in Table 11. Different textual relationships may appear in different sections of a topic chain so a topic chain may show a combination of different textual relationships.

Table 11
Numbers of Each Textual Relationship Dealt with by Establishing Textuality

Types of textual relationships	Number of Topic Chains (%)
(1) foreground-evaluation	9 (43%)
(2) general-specific	6 (29%)
(3) background-foreground	3 (14%)
(4) cause-effect	1 (5%)
(5) general-specific + cause-effect	1 (5%)
(6) background-foreground + foreground-evaluation	1 (5%)
Total	21 (100%)

It is found that translators apply the Establishing Textuality strategy to deal with four types of single textual relationships and two combination relationships in the data.

Foreground-evaluation accounts for nearly half of the use of the Establishing Textuality strategy, followed by *genera-specific* and *background-foreground*. Other textual relationships such as *time sequence* and *claim-counterclaim* barely involve this strategy because they are usually marked by connectives and are dealt with by the strategy of Reflecting the Markers.

To summarize, the second strategy—Establishing Textuality—is employed when the units in a topic chain contain only punctuation marks but no NPs, pronouns nor connectives. Since punctuation marks are weak references for demarcation, translators tend to resort to the internal textual relationship. Based on the internal textual relationship, the Chinese topic chains are segmented into different units and translated into different English sentences accordingly. This strategy is especially helpful in dealing with typical topic chains, which by definition do not have overt topics in the middle of the chain. This strategy is mainly applied to the four unmarked textual relationships: general-specific and cause-effect, background-foreground and foreground-evaluation.

4.2.4 The third strategy: Rearranging Information

Similar to the second strategy, the third strategy—Rearranging Information—is also observed through analyzing the information packaging in Chinese topic chains and in their English translations. Although in most cases, translators choose to reflect the boundary markers, or establish the textuality with reference to its original internal textual relationship, there are a number of cases in which translators do not completely keep the markers or the information packaging in the Chinese topic chains. The third strategy is thus applied.

The Rearranging Information strategy is achieved by adding, deleting, or reordering the original information sequence for different considerations. As reviewed in Chapter Two (cf. Table 1 on p.21), translators are allowed some freedom in translation. Examples found in the data are provided below. Underlined words are added, deleted or reordered.

(15)

- | | |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <p>(a) 此外， 台灣 也 直接 出資 參與
 <i>Ciwai, Taiwan ye zhijie chuzi canyu</i>
 In addition Taiwan also directly invest participate
 歐銀 的 投資案_i，
 <i>Ouyin de touzi-an_i</i>
 EBRD of investment-project</p> | <p>(a') In addition to the TC Fund, Taiwan has also made direct investments in EBRD-funded projects.</p> |
| <p>(b) 這些投資計畫_i 的 總 產出 價值
 <i>zhexie touzi-jihua de zong chanchu jiazhi</i>
 these investment-project of total production value
 達 38.9 億 歐元，
 <i>da 38.9 yi Ou-yuan,</i>
 up-to 3.89 billion Euro-dollar</p> | <p>(b') <u>Adding in further investment from other countries and sources</u>, the total cumulative value of projects with Taiwanese-EBRD involvement now stands at €3.89 billion.</p> |
| <p>(c) 0_i 成效 卓越。
 <i>0_i chengxiao zhuoyue</i>
 result outstanding</p> | <p>(c') The results have thus been outstanding.</p> |

(*Taiwan Panorama*, April, 2013, pp. 42-43)

Example (15) is an instance of *addition*. Clause (a) introduces the topic *touzi-an* (投資案) 'investment-project.' This topic appears again in the form of full NP in clause (b), where further information about the topic is provided. The last clause (c) is an evaluation for the topic. Then, the foreground-evaluation relationship is established in the English sentences (b') and (c'). In addition to reflecting the marker in (a'), and

establishing the evaluation in (c'), the translator also applies the third strategy—Rearranging Information. Compared with the original clause (b), the English translation (b') provides more specific information about the investment project. From the data of this type, *addition* is found with the main purpose of providing extra explanation, more specific information or information unknown to the target language readers, especially cultural-specific information (e.g. acupuncture in the Chinese medicine).

Below (16) is an example of deletion.

(16)

- | | |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <p>(a) 為了 讓 學生 吃到
 <i>Weile rang xuesheng chi-dao</i>
 in-order-to let student eat-ASP
 原汁原味的 異國 饗宴，²¹
 <i>yuanzhiyuanweide yiguo xiangyan</i>
 authentic exotic feast
 他們_i 曾 跑遍 市區的 摩洛哥
 <i>tamen_i ceng pao-bian shiqu de Moluoge</i>
 they once run-wide city of Moroccan
 與 埃及 餐廳 試菜，
 <i>yu Aiji canting shi-cai,</i>
 and Egyptian restaurant sample-dish</p> | <p>(a') For the sake of authenticity, they sample dishes at Moroccan and Egyptian restaurants in the city and seek out exotic foods such as African millet, ostrich meat and mint tea.</p> |
| <p>(b) 0_i 並 四處 張羅 非洲 小米、
 <i>0_i bing sichu zhangluo Feizhou xiaomi</i>
 and everywhere gather African millet
 鴛鴦肉、薄荷茶 等 特殊 食材；
 <i>tuoniao-rou bohe-cha deng teshu shicai</i>
 ostrich-meat mint-tea etc. special food</p> | |

²¹ This comma marks a preposition phrase.

- (c) **0_i** 也曾 將 廢棄的 課 桌 椅
Oi ye ceng jiang feiqide ke zhuo yi
 and once JIANG discarded class desks chairs
 鋸短， 改造成 可供 跪坐的
ju duan, gaizao-cheng ke gong gui-zuo de
 saw short, change-to can for kneel-sit of
 日式 小 矮 桌，
Ri-shi xiao ai zhuo,
 Japanese-style small short table
- (b') They even sawed down some discarded school desks and chairs, repurposing them into Japanese style dining tables so that the children can kneel on mats on the floor as they eat.

- (d) **0_i** 這一切的努力，²²
Oi zhe yiqiede nuli,
 the every effort
都是希望能夠讓學生
dou shi xiwang nenggou rang xuesheng
 all is hope able make student
有身歷其境的體驗。
you shenliqijingde tiyan.
 have like-authentic experience
 (Taiwan Panorama, April, 2013, pp. 22-23)

In this example, four ChUs are translated into three EnUs. Clauses (a) and (b) are combined into (a'). Clause (c), with an additive marker *ye* (也) 'and,' is translated to (b'). Clause (d) is deleted from the translation probably because it has similar information to the one in clause (a), which highlights authenticity as the major concern of the school teachers. The translator might have noticed the repetition of ideas and decided to delete it. Apart from repetition, the strategy of deletion is also used when too much similar information is included. Two trimmed examples are given below.

²² This comma marks a noun phrase.

(17)

- (a) 它_i既保持了 醬香濃郁、 典雅細緻、 (a') It possesses the unique style and
Ta_i ji baochi-le jiangxiang-nongyu dianya-xizhi
 it also keep-ASP smell-rich classic-delicate
協調豐滿、 回味悠長 等
xietiao-fengman hui-wei-youchang deng
 balanced-rich back-taste-extensive etc.
 貴州 茅台酒 的 獨特 風格，...
Guizhou Maotai-jiu de dute fengge, ...
 Guizhou Maotai-liquor POSS unique style
 (A Practical Guide for Business Translation, p. 144)

In example (17), there are five adjectives describing the liquor, including the four sets of four-word adjectives and the general adjective *unique*. In the English translation, only one of the four sets of adjectives is kept as well as the general adjective.

(18)

- (a) ... (a') ...
 0_i 靠著 之前 累積的 募款 基本盤，
0_i Kao-zhe zhiqian leijide mukuan jibenpan
 depend-ASP previous accumulated fund basis
 (b) 0_i 兩個月 來 已 走過
0_i liang-ge-yue lai yi zou-guo
 two-CLASS-month over already walk-ASP
 宜蘭 員山、 屏東 恆春、 嘉義義竹、
Yilan Yuanshan, Pingtung Hengchun, Jiayi Yizhu
 Yilan Yuanshan Pingtung Hengchun Yiayi Yizhu
新北 蘆洲、嘉義竹崎，以及台中大肚、
Xinbei Luzhou, Jiayi Zhuqi, yiji Taichung Dadu,
 Xinbei Luzhou Jiayi Zhuqi and Taichung Dadu
后里 和 龍井 等 鄉鎮。
Houli he Longjing deng xiangzhen
 Houli and Longjing etc. town
 (Taiwan Panorama, April, 2013, pp. 104-105)

In example (18), the Chinese text presents eight locations; however, only two are kept for illustration in the English translation. Examples (17) and (18) demonstrate the

characteristic repetition and parallel structure of Chinese discourse. This rhetorical style has been proposed by Kaplan (1966) (cf. p. 25 in this book).

In addition to adding and deleting information, translators may reorder the sequences of pieces of information. Example (19) is an example of reordering information.



(19)

- (a) 位於西北濱海地區的和興、福興、
Weiyu xi-bei binhai diqu de Hexing Fuxing
 locate north-west coast area DE Hexing Fuxing
 福龍、埔和等 4 所 國小，²³
Fulong Puhe deng 4 suo guoxiao;
 Fulong Puhe etc. 4 CLASS elementary-school
 更自組校園有機聯盟，
geng zi-zu xiaoyuan youji lianmeng
 even self-organize campus organic consortium
- (a') But four Hsinchu elementary schools located along the county's northwest coast are doing something even more interesting with their lunches.
- (b) 0_i 透過聯合採購
0_i touguo lianhe caigou
 through group purchase
 及零廚餘的食材控管，
ji ling-chuyu de shicai kongguan,
 and zero-waste-food of material management
- (b') The schools—Hexing, Fuxing, Fulong, and Puhe—have formed an organic campus consortium that serves up healthy, safe organic lunches for their students.
- (c) 0_i 成功讓縣府補助的
0_i chenggong rang xian-fu buzhu de
 successfully make county-gov. subsidize of
 32 元午餐，²⁴ 升級為健康
32 yuan wucan shengji wei jiankang
 32 dollar lunch upgrade to healthy
 又安全的有機午餐。
you anquande youji wucan
 and safe organic lunch
- (c') And, by exploiting the power of group purchases and a zero-waste food management program, they are doing so on a budget of just NT\$32 per meal from the county.
- (Taiwan Panorama, April, 2013, p. 24)

This example shows both adding and reordering information. Although the three

ChUs are translated into three EnUs, the EnUs do not reflect the structure of the ChUs.

Instead, some messages contained in the Chinese information packaging are reordered

in the English version. The Chinese topic chain provides the names of *the four*

²³ This comma is a topic marker, not a boundary marker.

²⁴ This comma marks the noun phrase *xian-fu buzhu de 32 yuan wucan* (縣府補助的 32 元午餐), which is the subject of the embedded clause under the verb *rang* (讓).

elementary schools as the topic in the first clause, and then the topic is continued in the zero form in (b) and (c). The English translation, however, does not introduce the names of the four schools in the first clause. A general term “four Hsinchu elementary schools” is used as the sentence subject and then the description “doing something even more interesting with their lunches” is added in clause (a’). Clause (a’) and clauses (b’)-(c’) thus form a general-specific textual relationship. Unlike the Chinese version, the English translation brings in the specific names of the schools in clause (b’). Such an arrangement is to make the information packaging in line with the English general-specific rhetoric. Also in clause (b’), a relative clause is used. The information in the relative clause originally appears in the end of the Chinese topic chain, but it is preposed to clause (b’). From this example, we can see in Chinese rhetorics, detailed description would go before the main idea. In contrast, the English rhetoric introduces the main idea first then the supporting details (Cai, 1993; Kaplan, 1966; Fathman & Kobayashi, 1984; Matalene, 1985). Thus, the reordering in English translation might be intended to fit the English rhetoric principle.

Table 12 is the distribution of each type of Rearranging Information found in the data.

Table 12

Numbers of Topic Chains Showing Use of Rearranging Information

Types of Rearranging Information	Magazine	Textbooks	Total
(1) reorder information	4	2	6
(2) add information	4	0	4
(3) delete information	3	1	4
(4) add info. + reorder info.	2	0	2
(5) delete info. + reorder info.	1	0	1
Total	14	3	17

Among the total 58 topic chains, only 17 (29%) show the use of Rearranging

Information. Compared with the 100% occurrence of Reflecting the Markers and 36%

appearance of Establishing Textuality found in the topic chains, Rearranging

Information is less preferred by the translators. In addition, the magazine data show

more uses of this strategy than the textbook data. One possible reason is the nature of

the magazine data. *Taiwan Panorama* is a magazine that reports Taiwan-related

stories. Some local Taiwan stories might be unfamiliar to their English readers, so

deletion and addition is required from time to time when the text is translated into

English.

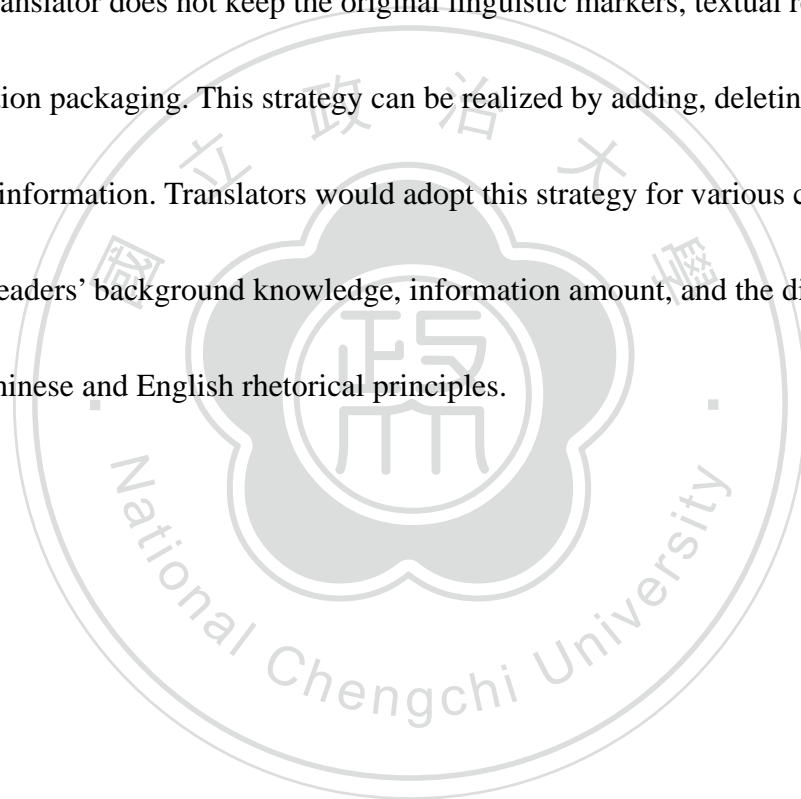
In a nutshell, the third strategy—Rearranging Information—is adopted when the translator chooses not to keep the original markers or textual relationship. The translator would add, delete or reorder the information for a variety of concerns, including readers' background knowledge, amount of information and the difference between Chinese and English rhetoric principles.

4.3 Summary

In this chapter, we have presented a general description of the data and three strategies found via comparing the Chinese topic chains and their English translations. All the six types of topic chains discussed in Chapter Two are found in the data. The magazine data contain more types of topic chains than the textbook data. We have found that a Chinese topic chain is usually translated into two or three English sentences and that ChUs tend to be combined into one EnU in the process of translation.

In order to find out how ChUs are translated, the researcher has compared the linguistic markers, textual relationship, and information packaging in Chinese topic chains with those in the English translations. Three topic chain translation strategies have been found. The first strategy—Reflecting the Markers—is crucial. It is used in every topic chain. The boundary in Chinese topic chains would be indicated by three types of linguistic markers: nominal references of topic, connectives, and punctuation marks. Nominal references and connectives are found to be stronger references for discourse demarcation than punctuation marks. The more markers appear at a boundary, the more likely the gap is reflected in English. The second strategy—Establishing Textuality—is adopted when the boundary is only marked by the weak punctuation marks. In some topic chains, the clauses present a parallel

structure but the semantic relations between clauses are actually not parallel. The internal textual relationship is taken as a reference for demarcation in the English translation. This strategy has been found to deal with four types of textual relationships: general-specific, cause-effect, background-foreground and foreground-evaluation. The third strategy—Rearranging Information—is adopted when the translator does not keep the original linguistic markers, textual relationship or information packaging. This strategy can be realized by adding, deleting, or reordering information. Translators would adopt this strategy for various concerns, including readers' background knowledge, information amount, and the difference between Chinese and English rhetorical principles.



Chapter Five

Conclusion

5.1 Summary of the Present Study

This thesis aims to explore the Chinese-English translation strategies of Chinese topic chains, with a focus on the demarcation mechanisms at the discourse level.

Previous research has indicated that Chinese is a discourse-oriented language (Tsao 1979) and that English is a subject-prominent language (Li & Thompson, 1976). A Chinese sentence can be as short as one clause or two clauses; however, it can be several clauses linked together, known as a topic chain (Tsao 1979). The clauses may appear parallel in syntactic structure, but semantically, some clauses are more closely related than the others. This difference between the Chinese and the English language poses difficulty to translators. The parallel Chinese sentences with hierarchical meaning cannot find identical syntactic structures in English, a language that adopts complex non-parallel syntactic structure in presenting hierarchical meaning. A question arises: How do translators translate a Chinese topic chain, a discourse unit, into English sentences?

To answer this question, translation data are collected for analysis. The Chinese texts are compared with their English translations. After the linguistic markers, textual relationships, and information packaging in both Chinese topic chains and their

English translations are analyzed, three translation strategies have been found: Reflecting the Markers, Establishing Textuality and Rearranging Information. The first strategy is to reflect the boundary markers in the Chinese topic chains as demarcation points in English translation. The nominal references and connectives are stronger references for demarcation than punctuation marks. The second strategy—Establishing Textuality—is to reflect the internal textual relationship of a Chinese topic chain. With limited references of punctuation marks as boundary markers, the translator has to demarcate a topic chain into different units based on the internal textual relationships. The third strategy—Rearranging Information—is to add, delete, or reorder the information. This strategy is the least adopted among the three.

5.2 Pedagogical Implications

It is suggested that topic chain translation should receive more attention than single-clause translation in translation pedagogy. As the present study shows, translating a Chinese topic chain is quite different from translating a single-clause or a two-clause Chinese sentence. Topic chain translation requires not only vocabulary and syntactic knowledge, but also discourse and culture knowledge. However, most translation textbooks (Liao et al., 2003; Liu, 1993; Si, 1982; Zhang, 1979; Zhang, Yu, Li & Pong, 1993; Zhou, 1996) merely put their emphasis on Chinese single-clause or

two-clause translation, instead of topic chain translation.

In teaching translation, teachers are encouraged to consider more dimensions in treating translation units. In the translation of a single-clause or a two-clause Chinese sentence, the focus would be vocabulary and sentence patterns. However, in translating a topic chain, mere semantic and syntactic knowledge is insufficient for students. More aspects should be taken into consideration. First, discourse knowledge plays an important role in topic chain translation. According to the findings in the present study, the discourse functions of nominal forms, connectives and punctuation marks play crucial roles. These markers, however, are usually treated by ESL learners as syntactic markers (Yu, 2010). It is suggested that teachers should make the discourse functions of these markers explicit to students. In addition, students should be taught to identify the textual relationships among Chinese parallel clauses. As Kwan (1997) has observed, students tend to translate Chinese clauses into parallel structures. This is probably because they are not aware of the implicit hierarchical textual relationships behind the clauses. An outline practice would probably help students find out a larger structure in the discourse.

In addition to discourse knowledge, culture knowledge also plays a part in translating a Chinese topic chain into English. English rhetoric principles are different from those in Chinese. Reordering information is sometimes needed in translation in

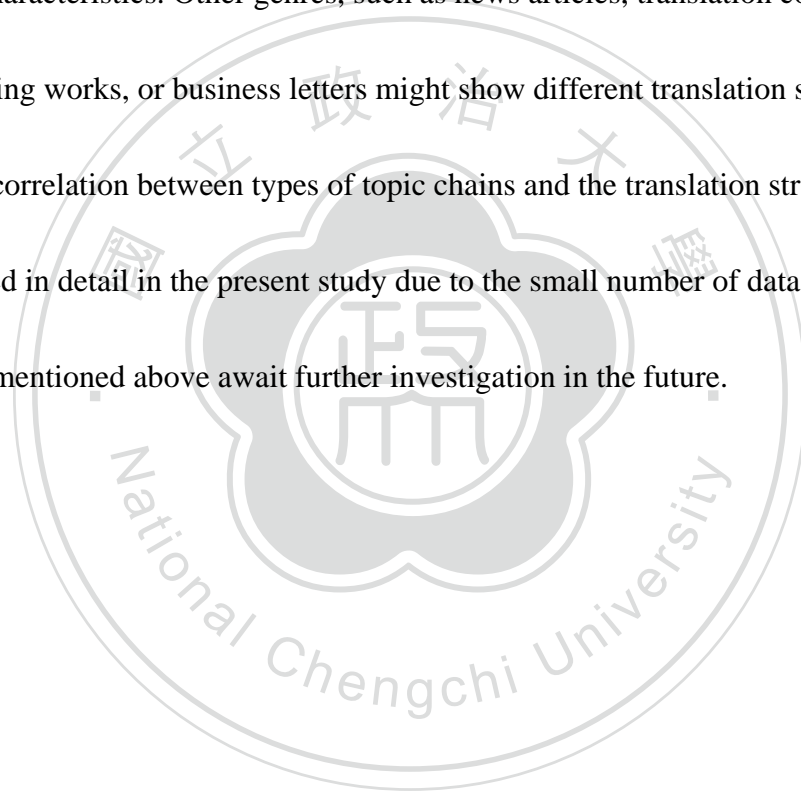
order to meet the English rhetorics. However, the rhetoric principles are implicit.

They are not easily observed by students. Thus, teachers are suggested to make students aware of the contrastive differences. A comparison task between a Chinese passage and its translation like what is done in the present study might be able to raise students' awareness of the differences.

The present study proposes a set of specific strategies for translation. Translation standards have long been referred to the three three-word maxim *xin* (信) 'faithfulness,' *da* (達) 'expressiveness,' and *ya* (雅) 'elegance.' But the three words are too abstract to operate during the translation process. The results in the present study provide guidelines on the discourse level for *xin* (信) 'faithfulness' and *da* (達) 'expressiveness'. *Faithfulness* can be realized by the first and the second strategy. However, sometimes, in order to maintain *expressiveness*, translators would choose to sacrifice *faithfulness*. Information in the original text may be added, deleted or reordered to help the readers better understand the translation. Translation is often viewed as an art because it takes some creativity (Wu, 2009; Zhou, 1996). The three strategies identified in the present study should only serve as a basic guideline for translators but not confine translators' creativity in the use of language.

5.3 Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

There are some limitations in the present study. First, the number of topic chains collected for analysis is far from sufficient. For a more detailed study, larger data is needed. Second, the sources of data are quite limited, too. In the present study, only magazine data and textbook data are collected. However, different genres have different characteristics. Other genres, such as news articles, translation contest prize-winning works, or business letters might show different translation strategies. Third, the correlation between types of topic chains and the translation strategies is not explored in detail in the present study due to the small number of data. The directions mentioned above await further investigation in the future.



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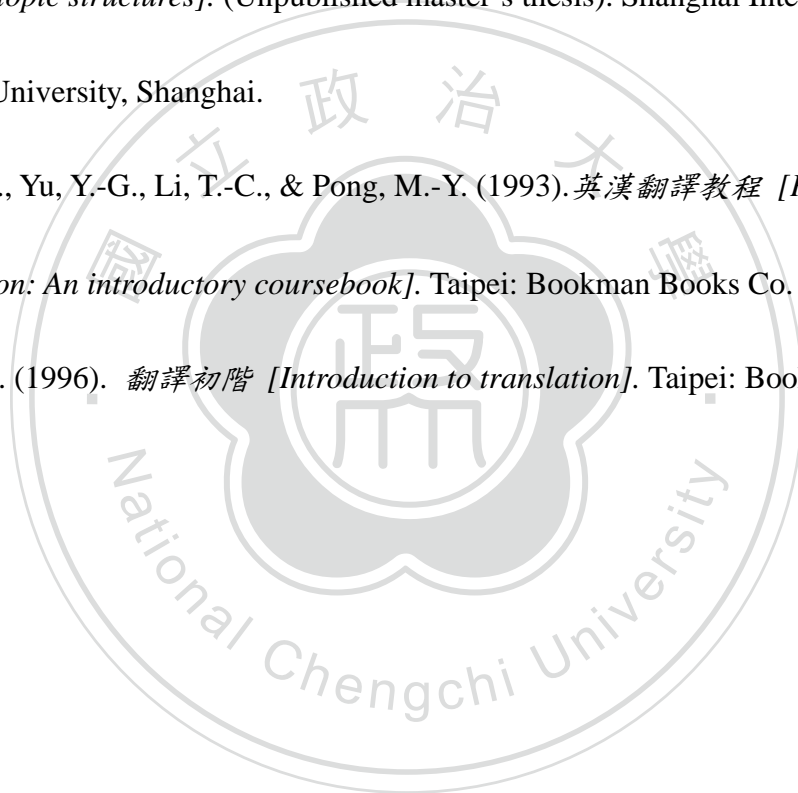
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Appendix I

Magazine Material

Taiwan Panorama, April 2013

The articles collected and their translators

	Title of Article	Translator(s)
1.	台北南湖國小的多元文化餐 Going International: Nan-Hu Elementary's Multicultural Luncheons	Chris Nelson
2.	新竹校長媽媽的有機午餐 Waste Not, Want Not: The Mama Principal's Organic Lunch Program	Scott Williams
3.	高雄龍肚國小的食農教育 Children of the Corn: Ag Ed at Long-Du Elementary	Chris Nelson
4.	10 位國際專家，82 項具體建議《國家人權報告書》完成初次審查 International Experts Complete Review of Taiwan's First National Human Rights Report	Max Barker
5.	新絲路商機一線牽：台灣與歐銀啟動中亞建設列車 The New Silk Road: Taiwan Gets Behind Central Asian Development	David Smith
6.	全民甩油大作戰 Declaring War on Fat!	Scott Williams
7.	晶元光電，減重成效發光 Epistar Sheds New Light on Weight Loss	Geof Aberhart
8.	跟毛小孩道別—寵物殯葬新思維 New Thinking on Saying Goodbye to a Pet	Phil Newell
9.	佳佳旅店，帶動人文輕旅風 JJ-W Hotel Sparks Surge in Cultural Tourism	David Smith
10.	曲終人不散，紙風車第 2 哩路再出發 Paper Windmill Theater Rides Again!	Jonathan Barnard

Textbook Material

Qian, G.-C. 1993 *翻譯的技巧* [Translation strategies]. Taipei: Kai Ming.

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