

# **Investigating Explicitation in Children's Literature**

## **Translated between English and Chinese**

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## **Abbreviations**

BNC	British National Corpus
CLI	Cross-linguistic influence
CN	Chinese
CQL	Corpus query language
EN	English
LG	Latin-Greek
NCCB	Non-translated Chinese children's books
NECB	Non-translated English children's books
OCR	Optical character recognition
Q-Q	Quantile-quantile
SFL	Systemic functional linguistics
SL	Source language
SLI	Source language interference
ST	Source text
TAPs	Think-Aloud Protocols
TCCB	Translated Chinese children's books
TDCs	Translationally distinctive connectives
TEC	Translated English Corpus
TECB	Translated English children's books
TL	Target language
TS	Translation studies
TT	Target text
UTF-8	Unicode Transformation Format 8-Bit

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## **Abstract**

There has been substantial evidence that translated language demonstrates the feature of increased explicitness of lexicogrammatical encoding (or explicitation) (see Kruger, 2019; Marco, 2012; Olohan & Baker, 2000; Pápai, 2004; Xiao, 2011; Zhang, Kotze (Kruger), & Fang, 2020; Zufferey & Cartoni, 2014). This increased explicitness has been regarded as a probabilistic tendency of translation, conditioned by a variety of factors, such as text type and the language involved (Toury, 2004). Zhang (2017) investigated this tendency using a corpus-based method, focusing on the translation of children's literature from English to Chinese. This study confirmed that translated Chinese has demonstrated increased explicitness in that the overall use of conjunctions and personal pronouns (two of the commonly used indicators of cohesive explicitness) was significantly more frequent in translations compared to non-translations. However, this tendency did not play out across all the indicators investigated, suggesting that transfer effects from the source texts/language as well as conservative adjustment to target language norms may have played complex roles in affecting the degree of explicitness (Zhang, 2017). These findings further highlighted the need for more rigorous and comprehensive enquiries into the causes of explicitation, which have been ascribed to source-language transfer or cross-linguistic priming, cognitive complexity or effort, and conservatism or risk aversion.

The current project was a comprehensive study of explicitation in the translation of children's literature between English and Chinese, using both quantitative and qualitative methods. The study investigated the increased explicitness and explicitation in both translation directions and explored the interplay of different factors in achieving explicitation. By conducting a comparable and parallel corpus analysis and using Halliday's systemic functional linguistic model to analyse the logico-semantic meanings of conjunctions, this study compared translated texts to both non-translated texts in the same target language and to their source texts to test whether the translations

demonstrated increased explicitness. The comparable corpus analysis showed that the feature of increased explicitness was only found in the translated Chinese, but not in the translated English, suggesting a strong influence of source language interference. The parallel corpus analysis found that translated texts were more explicit than their source texts, and that explicitation in one translation direction was not counterbalanced by implicitation in the reversed direction, thus confirming the asymmetry hypothesis (Klaudy & Károly, 2005). Thus, the explicitation of logico-semantic meaning seemed to be a universal strategy adopted in the translations. However, the asymmetric power relation between English and Chinese played a critical role in determining the formulation of this asymmetric pattern between explicitation and implicitation. The potential reasons which might have motivated the translators to use explicitation and/or implicitation were also explored by two-way qualitative analysis.

Keywords: explicitation, implicitation, translation between English and Chinese, children's literature, corpus-based approach

### **Statement of candidate**

I certify that the work in this thesis entitled “Investigating explicitation in children’s literature translated between English and Chinese” has not previously been submitted for a degree nor has it been submitted as part of the requirements for a degree to any other university or institution other than Macquarie University.

I also certify that the thesis is an original piece of research and it has been written by me. Any help and assistance that I have been received in my research work and the preparation of the thesis itself have been appropriately acknowledged.

In addition, I certify that all information sources and literature used are indicated in the thesis.

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9<sup>th</sup> April 2021

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## Chapter 1 Introduction

### 1.1 Introduction and rationale for the study

It has been common to see that in translated texts, the status of some of the information given in the source text (ST) has been changed. For instance, in the example translation from English to Chinese presented below, the logical relation between the two clauses in the Chinese target text (TT) is explicitly marked by a conjunction 但 *dàn*... 却 *què* ‘but’, whereas such logical meaning is only implied in the ST. In fact, the tendency towards a more explicit rendition in translation has been widely discussed in translation studies (TS).

The new arrangement was quite to my liking. The whole schooner had been overhauled;... [EN\_ST]

xīnde ānpái hěn hé wǒde yì dàn zhěnggè chuán què fānle gè gèr

新的 安排 很 合 我的 意, 但 整个 船 却 翻 了 个 个 儿 。 [CN\_TT]

New arrangement quite fit my liking, but whole ship however turned all over. [Gloss]

The term ‘explicitation’ was first introduced by Vinay and Darbelnet (1995 [1958], p. 342), defined as “a stylistic translation technique which consists of making explicit in the target language what remains implicit in the source language because it is apparent from either the context or the situation” (p. 342). In a similar vein, Nida’s (1964) concept of “amplification from implicit to explicit status” refers to cases where “important semantic elements carried implicitly in the source language may require explicit identification in the receptor language” (p. 228). It was Blum-Kulka (1986) who initially proposed the influential “explicitation hypothesis”, which posits that the process of interpretation performed by the translator on the source text might lead to a target language (TL) text which is cohesively more explicit than the source language (SL) text. It follows that explicitation is viewed here as inherent in the process of translation (Blum-Kulka, 1986, p. 19).

Several early studies carried out in response to Blum-Kulka's call for large-scale empirical research on the proposed explicitation hypothesis provided supportive evidence (see Séguinot, 1988; Vehmas-Lehto, 1989).

Turning from these text-by-text-based comparisons between ST and TT, Baker (1993) suggested an increased level of explicitness might also occur in translations when compared with originals in the same language (Baker, 1993). In Baker's (1996) view, explicitation has been treated as a universal feature of translated language, inherent to the translation process itself, irrespective of the SL involved. Early studies of explicitation adopting this approach include Laviosa-Braithwaite (1996), Kenny (1999) and Olohan and Baker (2000).

Since these early studies, explicitation has been investigated by an array of studies using either parallel corpora to compare STs and their TTs (e.g., Kenny, 2004; Øverås, 1998), or comparable corpora to compare translated and non-translated texts in the same TL (e.g., Jiménez-Crespo, 2011; Olohan & Baker, 2000; Xiao & Hu, 2015).

These two kinds of methodologies have been linked to two types of potential translation "universals", or recurrent features of translated language (Chesterman, 2004), namely S-universals and T-universals. S-universals refer to both similarities and differences between translations and their source texts, investigated by means of parallel corpora; whereas T-universals refer to differences between translations and non-translations in the same language (i.e., the TL), investigated by means of comparable corpora (Chesterman, 2004, p. 8). In this sense, explicitation, as one proposed tendency, feature or "universal" of translated language, may refer to the tendency for translations to be more explicit in lexicogrammatical encoding compared to both their source texts (explicitation as an S-universal) and to non-translated texts in the TL (explicitation as a T-universal). More directly, Krüger (2014) referred to these as two forms of explicitation, namely "S-explicitation" and "T-explicitation" (p. 157).



S-explicitation could be ascribed to lexicogrammatical, stylistic and cultural differences between the SL and TL involved (Becher, 2011a), distinguished accordingly by Klaudy (2008) as obligatory, optional, and pragmatic explicitation, respectively. Apart from these three kinds, another type of explicitation in Klaudy's (2008) classification is in line with Blum-Kulka's (1986) *explicitation hypothesis*, labelled as "translation-inherent explicitation" (Klaudy, 2008, p. 107). According to Klaudy (2008), translation-inherent explicitation can be explained by the nature of the translation process as a translational activity, characterised by the necessity of formulating "ideas in the target language that were originally conceived in the source language" (p. 107). It might result from the process of interpretation that translators carry out on the ST (Blum-Kulka, 1986; Pym, 2005), and is the kind of explicitation that is mostly assumed in studies of explicitation in translation. However, Becher (2010) was critical of the concept of "translation-inherent explicitation" which, he argued, "rests on fallacious theoretical considerations" (p. 1). Becher (2010) explained that the tendency of translations to be more explicit than non-translations was due to translators' conscious or subconscious compensatory strategy to minimise the cultural distance between SL author and TL reader (House, 1997) as well as their risk-aversion, or their use of strategies to avoid communication failure (Pym, 2005). Therefore, explicitation may not be translation-specific, but may be common to communicative situations in which cultural distance and communicative risks are involved (Becher, 2010).

As a consequence, Becher (2010) argued strongly in favour of "abandoning the notion of 'translation-inherent' explicitation" and replacing it with the "asymmetry hypothesis" to interpret explicating and implicating shifts in comparison to each other, since different languages have different lexicogrammatical and stylistic preferences in respect of the degree of explicitness (p. 1). An implicating shift (implication) refers to the instance where a TT is less explicit than the ST (Becher, 2011b). The asymmetry hypothesis posits that translation-*inherent* explicitation can only be demonstrated by

investigating bi-directional translation, when explicitation takes place in the SL → TL direction, but implicitation is not observed in the TL → SL direction – because translators’ propensity towards explicitation overrules their adherence to the typical preferences for implicitness/explicitness in particular languages (Klaudy 2001; Klaudy & Károly, 2005, p. 13). Therefore, this asymmetric instance of explicitation could be taken as a candidate for a translation universal, which is attributed to the situation of translation itself (Pym, 2005).

There is a further level of terminological and methodological complexity that is associated with the demarcation of the closely related concepts of “explicitation” and “explicitness” (De Metsenaere & Vandepitte, 2017; Hansen-Schirra, Neumann & Steiner, 2007; Krüger, 2014). Hansen-Schirra et al. (2007) argued that “explicitation can only be considered as a shift between source and target text, not as a comparison between comparable texts” (p. 242), because explicitation is “a process or a relationship between intralingual variants and/or translationally related texts” (p. 243). Comparing texts that are not in a translation relationship is testing for the property of explicitness, “a property of lexicogrammatical or cohesive structures and configurations in one text” (Hansen-Schirra et al., 2007, p. 243). Krüger (2014) argued further that T-explicitation and S-explicitation could run counter to one another, in that a translated text could be more explicit than its ST, but less explicit than comparable texts in the TL. Furthermore, there is no way of confirming T-explicitation using process or experimental research, because, unlike S-explicitation, it is not involved in the translation process (Krüger, 2014). Consequently, Krüger (2014, p. 170) proposed the concept of “comparable explicitness” to replace T-explicitation. The concept of comparable explicitness highlights the degree of explicitness of translated and non-translated texts in the same language.

Corpus-based studies have focused on explicitation in various language pairs (see Baleghizadeh & Sharifi, 2010 for Persian-English; El-Nashar, 2016 for English-Arabic;

Denturck, 2012, 2014 for French-Dutch; Xiao, 2011 for English-Chinese; also see Chapter 2) and in different text types (see Becher, 2011a, 2011b for business texts; Kia & Ouliaeinia, 2016; Mansour, Al-Sowaidi & Mohammed, 2014 for literary translation; Puurtinen, 2004 for children's literature; also see Chapter 2). These studies have produced inconsistent findings. For example, studies like those of Kenny (2004), Konšalová (2007), Øverås (1998), Pápai (2004) and Xiao (2011), using parallel corpora and often investigating the relationship of explicitation and implicitation in translation, have provided supportive evidence for explicitation as a characteristic feature inherent in the translation process. Nevertheless, Baleghizadeh and Sharifi (2010), Becher (2011a), El-Nashar (2016) and Zufferey and Cartoni (2014) have argued that explicating implicit logico-semantic links by using connectives can be explained by cross-linguistic differences and cross-cultural pragmatics between the languages involved, rather than translation-inherent explicitation. Baleghizadeh and Sharifi (2010), Becher (2010), Marco (2012) and Mansour et al. (2014) also have suggested that translators have tended to use explicating techniques to clarify ambiguities and increase readability, a claim that fits well with Pym's (2005) notion of risk-avoidance. There also have been studies yielding some findings that contradict the asymmetry hypothesis. For example, Denturck (2012) found that implicitation was surprisingly more prevalent than explicitation in a bidirectional corpus of Dutch and French. As pointed out by Denturck (2012), however, factors related to the specific languages, registers or lexicogrammatical features might have accounted for this result.

Monolingual comparable corpus studies have explored an increased level of explicitness in translations compared to non-translations in the TL (Jiménez-Crespo, 2011; Kruger, 2019; Kruger & De Sutter, 2018; Kruger & Van Rooy, 2012; Olohan and Baker, 2000; Xiao, 2011; Pápai, 2004; also see Chapter 2). These studies have provided evidence for the assumption of increased explicitness of lexicogrammatical encoding in translated texts in contrast with non-translated texts in the same language. However,

the findings in Puurtinen's (2004) study showed that not all the connectives investigated were more frequently used in translated Finnish children's literature from English. Therefore, the findings could not be interpreted as supportive evidence for the increased explicitness of TL texts, but not as opposing evidence either. Rather, explicitation appeared to be conditioned by the functions of the connectives and the context of their use (Puurtinen, 2004). In Xiao's (2010) study, the explicitations evident in translational Chinese were explained to be more likely related to specific English to Chinese translation shifts in that the more explicit lexicogrammatical encoding of English was carried over to translated Chinese during the translation process. This finding suggests that explicitation may, at the very least, have been conditioned by preferences for explicitness of encoding in different languages and there was, therefore, an SL transfer dimension to explicitation. These findings suggest that more research is needed to investigate the occurrence of explicitation and, furthermore, to investigate whether it is a translation-inherent feature or a language/cultures-specific occurrence.

While there has been research on languages from the same or similar language families, much less is known about explicitation in translations involving languages from different language families. Exploring translations of languages such as English and Chinese, which belong to different families, could help strengthen the understanding of explicitation and reach a conclusion on the extent to which it is inherent in the translation process or better explained with language-specific differences. Even though there has been a considerable expansion of research on the language pair of English and Chinese, the evidence base has been limited (see the detailed discussion in Section 2.4 of Chapter 2). However, the lexicogrammatical differences between these two languages might make the investigation of explicitation particularly relevant in the translation between English and Chinese. The language of Chinese, a member of the Sino-Tibetan family, features less frequent use of function words, including conjunctions, pronouns and prepositions whereas English, an Indo-European language,

has strict rules in the use of intra-sentential and inter-sentential conjunctions, referential elements and prepositions (Xiao & Hu, 2015). In this sense, Chinese is considered as a lexicogrammatically implicit language, while English is more explicit in lexicogrammatical encoding. In terms of realising logico-semantic relations, the two languages have different resources to resort to, that is, in English, the use of conjunctions connects clauses and makes their relations explicit. As many conjunctive items are essentially both structural and cohesive, the use of conjunctions is a common choice in presenting the relations between clauses. Unlike English, however, Chinese favours the minimal use of conjunctions and leaves the logico-semantic relation inferred from the context by omitting unnecessary conjunctions (Lü, 1999). The differences in the optionality of the use of conjunctions may be fertile ground for the study of explicitation. In the direction from English to Chinese, from an explicit to an implicit language, the translation might follow the conventional use of conjunctions in the TL and use less conjunctions than the ST, if the translation is to be accepted by the TL readers (Baker, 1992; Xiao & Hu, 2015). However, the possibility that translated texts might demonstrate more frequent use of conjunctions than non-translated texts in the same TL, a tendency influenced by the SL of English, could not be disregarded. In the reversed translation direction, from Chinese to English, the lexicogrammar of English might ask for more conjunctions in formulating grammatical sentences, while the SL influence of Chinese might inhibit this tendency and cause the texts translated from Chinese to English to be dissimilar to the original, non-translated English texts. The important ways in which the tension between the pull towards the TL norms and the influence from the SL conditions the realisation of explicitation are of particular pertinence to the present study.

While there has been a growing awareness that the occurrence of explicitation is closely related to text types<sup>1</sup>, studies of explicitation in children's books appear to be limited in number (see Section 2.5 in Chapter 2). Children's literature has particular functions and features that may affect the manifestation of explicitation in this text type. In the translation of children's literature, translators might be particularly averse to risks because target audience acceptability is strongly demanded in children's books. The target audience is both the child reader and the adults (for example, parents, teachers), who would typically read with the child, and also select and buy books for them (Puurtilinen, 1995; O'Connell, 1999). Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that the translation of children's literature may be a potentially fruitful text type in which to investigate explicitation, since the audience and the aims of children's books may predispose translators towards explicitation to meet the perceived needs and expectations of the target audience of child readers.

While numerous studies have focused on the translation of English into Chinese, research on English translated from Chinese has been rare. This study addresses this gap by using a bidirectional comparable and parallel corpus that compares translations in Chinese and English with both STs and non-translated texts in both languages. Furthermore, research on explicitation in children's literature has been limited, particularly for translations between Chinese and English; there have been very few comprehensive and systematic corpus-based investigations of explicitation in this text type and language pair. **Even more urgently, most existing studies have not adequately addressed the question of different types of explicitation, either conceptually or methodologically (Kamenická, 2007; Tang, 2018).** Of particular importance is the need to distinguish translation-inherent explicitation and increased explicitness as a

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<sup>1</sup> In this study, "text type" is used in a broad sense that takes in meanings related to both genre and register, to refer to a language variety that is defined on the basis of common lexical, syntactic and discourse linguistic features that can be traced to a particular communicative context and function (Biber, 1995).

consequence of source-language transfer or interference (e.g., Ke, 2005). More sophisticated corpus designs and a stricter operationalisation of translation-inherent explicitation (i.e., asymmetry hypothesis) have been required to clarify the extent to which SL interference (SLI) accounts for increased explicitness and the extent to which translation-inherent explicitation takes place.

This study used children's literature as a test case to investigate explicitation, which lent itself well to the topic, as scholars have had strong opinions about the importance of accessibility for children's literature in general and translated children's literature in particular (Puurтинен, 1995; O'Connell, 1999). It has been a priority for translators to adjust the language to the level of children's comprehension (Puurтинен, 2006). Translated children's literature is, therefore, a text type in which one might expect a particularly strong tendency towards explicitation, but which has not been widely investigated in studies of explicitation. This study combines quantitative and qualitative analyses, as well as comparable and parallel corpus studies to provide a comprehensive understanding of increased explicitness and explicitation in translations in this text type.

## **1.2 Aims of the study**

This study used corpus-based quantitative methods and qualitative methods to investigate explicitation manifested by increased explicitness through the use of conjunctions in achieving cohesion in translations, in contrast with non-translations both in the SL and the TL. This corpus-based study aimed to: (1) compare and evaluate the differences in the frequencies of conjunctions between the translated and non-translated texts in the same language, for both Chinese and English; (2) retrieve the causes of the occurrence of conjunctions in the TTs in English and Chinese by aligning them with their corresponding counterparts in the STs, and to examine the renditions of conjunctions in the ST by comparing them with their translations in the TT, ultimately to identify the instances of explicating or implicitating shifts; (3) determine

the influences that the ST might have posed in the occurrence of conjunctions in the TT; and (4) compare the ratio between explicitating and implicitating shifts in both translation directions and to test the asymmetry hypothesis. The qualitative analysis aimed to provide a deeper understanding of the potential motives behind these explicitating and implicitating shifts.

### **1.3 Research questions**

Against the background of the literature review in Chapters 2 and 3, this study aimed to answer the following questions:

#### **Research question 1**

- a. Does Chinese children's literature translated from English, as well as English children's literature translated from Chinese demonstrate evidence of increased explicitness, in relation to non-translated texts in the same language, thus providing evidence for the feature of increased explicitness inherent to the translation process?
- b. Alternatively, is there evidence that increased explicitness takes place in only one translation direction, thus providing evidence for source-language influence as the main driving force for increased explicitness?

#### **Research question 2**

- a. Does Chinese children's literature translated from English, as well as English children's literature translated from Chinese demonstrate evidence of explicitation in relation to their source texts, thus providing evidence for the translation-inherent explicitation, thus confirming the asymmetry hypothesis?
- b. Alternatively, is there evidence that explicitation takes place in only one translation direction, thus providing evidence for language-specific and direction-specific explicitation, denying the asymmetry hypothesis?



### **Research question 3**

- a. If the asymmetry hypothesis is supported, what are the potential reasons for the asymmetric pattern?
- b. More specifically, what are the triggers that motivate the more frequent use of explicitation than implicitation in translation?

### **1.4 Methodology**

To answer the research questions set out in Section 1.3, this study combined quantitative and qualitative approaches, to comprehensively investigate both the occurrence of and the reasons for the hypothesised increased explicitness (i.e., explicitation) of translated language in comparison to non-translated language in both the TTs and the STs, specifically focusing on the translation of children's literature between English and Chinese.

The quantitative analysis employed corpus-linguistic methods to answer Research Questions (RQs) 1 and 2. RQ 1 was addressed through a comparison of translated texts in English and Chinese with non-translated texts in the same language in terms of the degree of explicitness in achieving cohesion. The purpose was to determine whether translated texts demonstrated a higher level of textual cohesion in both languages. The degree of explicitness was measured using a frequently investigated operationalisation: conjunctions. Data collection was carried out by using various functions in WordSmith Tools 8.0 (Scott, 2019) and Sketch Engine (Kilgarriff et al., 2019). The two-sample *t*-test and its non-parametric alternative, the Mann-Whitney *U*-test, were used to determine whether the translation and non-translation corpora demonstrated significant differences in the use of conjunctions.

RQ 2 was addressed by comparing translated texts in English and Chinese to their STs. The instances of explicitation and implicitation were extracted and calculated to assess whether the translated texts were more explicit than their STs. The comparison was also

conducted between explicitation in one translation direction (i.e., English-Chinese and Chinese-English) and implicitation in the other (i.e., Chinese-English and English-Chinese) in order to test the asymmetry hypothesis.

RQ 3 was investigated by a qualitative analysis of the use of particular conjunctions to explore possible explanations for the asymmetry hypothesis and explicitation/implicitation. The exploration focused on both the sociocultural circumstances where the translations happened and linguistic differences between the two languages.

## **1.5 Thesis overview**

Following this introductory chapter, Chapter 2 comprehensively overviews studies on explicitation from corpus-based perspectives. After introducing the concept of explicitation, it reviews studies on explicitation that have used either parallel or comparable approaches in different language pairs across different text types, with a focus on the translation between English and Chinese and in the text type of children's literature. Proposed explanations for explicitation also are reviewed in this chapter. The selection of conjunctions as the linguistic indicators for the investigation of explicitation is justified in Chapter 3, where the concept of a conjunction is defined based on the systemic functional linguistics (SFL) framework. SFL provides a context-based analytical model, and it has a well-developed grammatical system of conjunctions, based on which different translation choices can be analysed and compared. In this chapter, the characteristics that are suitable for the investigation of explicitation are pointed out, the similarities and differences in the use of conjunctions in English and Chinese are discussed, and previous studies on explicitation that has been operationalised by conjunctions are summarised, with a particular emphasis on translations between English and Chinese. The background discussion presented in these chapters leads to the formulation of the research questions informing this study.

Chapter 4 describes the methodology that was used in this study. It describes the details of the corpus composition, compilation and processing, the operationalisations (conjunctions) investigated in relation to explicitation, and the data collection and analysis. The findings and discussion are presented in Chapters 5-7, each focusing on answering one of the research questions, where the quantitative and qualitative findings are reported and discussed. Specifically, Chapter 5 reports on the findings of increased explicitness through the comparable corpus analysis of translations and non-translations. The comparisons of the frequencies of conjunctions overall, by logico-semantic categories and by individual conjunctive item are reported. Explanations for the findings are proposed in order to better understand the quantitative results. Chapter 6 addresses RQ 2, namely, the comparison between translations and the STs in terms of explicitation through parallel corpus analysis. All the instances of explicating and implicating shifts are identified and calculated for the comparisons between explicitation and implicitation in each translation direction (i.e., English-Chinese and Chinese-English) and for the comparisons of explicitation in one translation direction with implicitation in the other. Based on the findings from the comparable and parallel corpus analysis (Chapters 5 and 6), Chapter 7 explores the potential reasons for the discovered patterns between explicitation and implicitation in this language pair. The exploration was conducted from both the social-cultural and linguistic perspectives. Chapter 8 summarises the main findings and conclusions, and outlines the limitations of the study as well as future avenues of research.

## **Chapter 2 Corpus-based studies of explicitation and proposed explanatory hypotheses**

### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter discusses studies using corpus-based approaches to investigate textual manifestations of explicitation, and possible explanations for this increased explicitness. The concept of explicitation is conceptualised in Section 2.2, focusing on a few influential definitions of this concept, including the explicitation hypothesis, the supposedly universal feature of explicitation, and the asymmetry hypothesis. Section 2.3 summarises studies on the topic of explicitation, exploring the use of different methodologies, utilising parallel or/and comparable corpora, and points out that bidirectional parallel and comparable analyses cast more light on the phenomena of explicitation in general and the asymmetry hypothesis in particular. Sections 2.4 and 2.5 deal with two potential variables that might condition the realisation of explicitation in this study, that is, the language pair of English and Chinese and the text type of children's literature. Section 2.6 reviews studies on explicitation in the translation of children's literature in China, especially those focusing on the translation from English. Possible explanations for this increased explicitness have been proposed and meticulously analysed in some quasi-experimental studies (see Englund Dimitrova, 2005; Hjort-Pedersen & Faber, 2010; Jiménez-Crespo, 2015b). These studies are closely reviewed in Section 2.7. In the final section of this chapter, Section 2.8, findings from the current literature are summarised to identify research gaps, from which the research questions are proposed.

### **2.2 Conceptualisation of explicitation**

The term “explicitation” was first introduced by Vinay and Darbelnet (1995 [1958]), who defined it as “a stylistic translation technique which consists of making explicit in

the target language what remains implicit in the source language because it is apparent from either the context or the situation” (p. 342).

Ever since its first introduction, the vagueness around the definition of explicitation has undermined its scope of application in TS (Becher, 2011b). Among others, Becher (2011b), Murtisari (2016) and Tang (2018) have questioned the motivation for this “technique” (e.g., whether it is conscious or subconscious), the quantifying measure of “explicit” and “implicit”, and the inferential sources (e.g., how to refine notions like “the context” and “the situation”) (Tang & Li, 2013, p. 443; Tang & Li, 2016, p. 236).

Nida (1964) highlighted techniques of adjustment in the process of translating: additions, subtractions and alternations. Even though the concept of explicitation is not overtly used in his typology, the way Nida (1964) explained addition closely resembles the interpretation of explicitation. For example, common and important types of additions include “(a) filling out elliptical expressions; (b) obligatory specification; (c) additions required because of grammatical restricting; (d) amplification from implicit to explicit status; (e) answers to rhetorical questions; (f) classifiers; (g) connectives; (h) categories of the receptor language which do not exist in the source language; and (i) doublets” (Nida, 1964, p. 227). The purposes of these techniques are proposed to be fourfold: “(1) permit adjustment of the form of the message to the requirements of the structure of the receptor language; (2) produce semantically equivalent structures; (3) provide equivalent stylistic appropriateness; and (4) carry an equivalent communication load” (Nida, 1964, p. 226). It is clear from these classifications and explanations that structural and stylistic differences between linguistic systems and pragmatic rationales are both overtly acknowledged by Nida (Baumgarten, Meyer & Özçetin, 2008; De Metsenaere & Vandepitte, 2017). These different causes of explicitation are captured in Klaudy’s (2008) later categorisation of types of explicitation, namely obligatory, optional and pragmatic explicitation (see Section 2.2.3). As emphasised by Nida (1964), the “addition” in question does not involve actual adding to the semantic content of the message, for what it changes is the manner in which the information is expressed and ultimately the status of information encoding from implicit to explicit.

### 2.2.1 The explicitation hypothesis

Blum-Kulka (1986) initially proposed the influential explicitation hypothesis, which posits that:

The process of translation, particularly if successful, necessitates a complex text and discourse processing. The process of interpretation performed by the translator on the source text might lead to a TL text which is more redundant than the SL text. This redundancy can be expressed by a rise in the level of cohesive explicitness in the TL text. This argument may be stated as “*the explicitation hypothesis*”, which postulates an observed cohesive explicitness from SL to TL texts regardless of the increase traceable to differences between the two linguistic and textual systems involved. It follows that explicitation is viewed here as inherent in the process of translation. (p. 19)

This explicitation hypothesis (Blum-Kulka, 1986) initially introduced a new type of explicitation: translation-inherent explicitation. According to Blum-Kulka (1986), it is caused by “the process of interpretation performed by the translator on the source text”, which substantially distinguishes it from language-specific, optional and pragmatic explicitation (p. 19).

The somewhat opaque definition of translation-inherent explicitation has invited increasing criticism that has questioned the legitimacy of its existence. For instance, Becher (2011b) argued that the explicitation hypothesis is not scientifically motivated, as the assumption or so-called argument does not stand on independent grounds. In other words, there are other possibilities to explain explicitation, instead of “a universal strategy inherent in the process of language mediation” (Blum-Kulka, 1986, p. 21). There is, therefore, no need to invent a new hypothesis. Further concerns have related to vague terms being used in the formulation of this hypothesis (Becher, 2011b; Tang,

2018). Becher (2011b) focused on the lack of clarity in the use of “strategy” as a term. He pointed out that the two-dimensional interpretation of this term (a strategy can be conscious or unconscious) has led to much confusion in the literature based on the explicitation hypothesis. By the same token, Heltai (2005) Séguinot (1988) and Tang (2018) have cast doubt on Blum-Kulka’s (1986) association of explicitation with “redundancy” since explicitation in translation does not necessarily yield redundancy. Due to these reasons, findings claiming to confirm the explicitation hypothesis have often been considered to be problematic (Kenny, 2005; Øverås, 1998; Pápai, 2004; see Section 2.3).

### **2.2.2 Explicitation as a universal feature of translated language**

The introduction of corpus techniques into TS motivated researchers to elucidate the nature of translated language as a mediated communicative activity “which is shaped by its own goals, pressures and context of production” (Baker, 1996, p. 175). Turning from these text-by-text-based comparisons between ST and TT, Baker (1993) suggested an increased level of explicitness might also occur in translations when compared with originals in the same language (Baker, 1993). The comparable corpus methodology deploys “a structured electronic collection of texts originally written in a particular language, alongside texts translated into that same language” (Baker, 1995, p. 234). In Baker’s (1996) view, explicitation has been treated as a universal feature of translated language, inherent to the translation process itself, irrespective of the SL involved. In her definition, explicitation refers to “a marked rise in the level of explicitness compared to specific source texts and to original texts in general” (Baker, 1993, p. 243), since things are spelled out rather than left implicit in translations (Baker, 1996, p. 180). Other universal features of translation along with explicitation include simplification (“the tendency to simplify the language used in translation”, Baker, 1996, p. 181), normalisation (“the tendency to exaggerate features of the target language and

to conform to its typical patterns”, Baker, 1996, p. 183) and levelling out (“the tendency of translated texts to gravitate towards the centre of a continuum”, Baker, 1996, p. 184).

The comparable corpus analysis method introduced by Baker (1993, 1996) has played a heuristic role in hypothesis generation (Halverson, 2003). Baker’s definition of explicitation and universal features of translation have been frequently credited as a theoretical framework by an array of studies (e.g., Laviosa-Braithwaite, 1997, Jiménez-Crespo, 2011, 2015a; Xiao, 2011; Zhang, 2017).

However, this view of the universal features of translation generally, and explicitation specifically, has been the target of much criticism that has mainly focused on three aspects: the notion of universality; the complex relationship between explicitation and the other so-called universal features of simplification, normalisation, levelling out and the unique items hypothesis (Tirkkonen-Condit, 2004); and the exclusion of the SL and, thus, the role of SL interference or transfer. For example, Becher (2011b) questioned the universality of explicitation as a feature of translated language. He argued that explicitation is variable, depending on pragmatic factors and, therefore, questioned to what degree such a variable tendency can be seen as universal. Pym (2008) compared Baker’s (1996) universals with Toury’s (2012) proposed laws of translation and pointed out that Baker’s (1996) initial four universals all reflect, in essence, Toury’s (2012) law of increasing standardisation. He argued that without considering the influence of the SL, or Toury’s (2012) law of interference, the differences between translations and non-translations cannot be adequately explained.

### **2.2.3 Types of explicitation**

Comparing translations to non-translations in the same TL or comparing translations to their STs, constitute two kinds of methodologies which are linked to two types of recurrent features of translated language, or potential translation “universals”



(Chesterman, 2004). Chesterman (2004) made a conceptual distinction between S- and T-universals (Chesterman, 2004), where S-universals refer to both similarities and differences between translations and their source texts, and are investigated by means of parallel corpora, while T-universals refer to differences between translations and non-translations in the same language (the TL), and are investigated by means of comparable corpora (Chesterman, 2004, p. 8). The increased explicitness of translations thus play out in comparison to both their STs (explicitation as an S-universal; also referred to as “S-explicitation” by Krüger, 2014) and to non-translated texts in the TL (explicitation as a T-universal; also referred to as “T-explicitation” by Krüger, 2014). Krüger (2014) argued further that T-explicitation and S-explicitation could run counter to one another, in that a translated text could be more explicit than its ST, but less explicit than comparable texts in the target language. Furthermore, there is no way to confirm T-explicitation by using process or experimental research, for unlike S-explicitation, T-explicitation is not involved in the translation process (Krüger, 2014). Consequently, Krüger (2014) proposed the concept of “comparable explicitness” (Krüger, 2014, p. 170) to replace T-explicitation.

Klaudy (1993, 1996, 2009) divided explicitation into four subtypes, based on its cause: obligatory, optional, pragmatic and translation-inherent explicitation. Obligatory explicitation can be ascribed to syntactic and semantic differences between language systems. Such explicitation is obligatory because without it, the TL sentences would be grammatically incorrect. Optional explicitation is motivated by differences in stylistic preferences or text-building strategies between the SL and the TL. Examples of this type include the addition of connective elements to enhance cohesion. Pragmatic explicitation refers to a motivation to close a cultural gap or manage discrepancies in world knowledge between the SL and TL communities. Translation-inherent explicitation cannot be explained by structural, stylistic or rhetorical differences between the two languages, nor culturally related reasons. It has been considered as a

consequence of “the necessity to formulate ideas in the target language that were originally conceived in the source language” (Klaudy, 1993). In other words, translation-inherent explicitation results from “the nature of the translation process” (Klaudy, 2009, p. 107; Séguinot, 1988, p. 18) and, thus, it is independent of language.

Klaudy’s (2009) categorisation of various intricate translation phenomena into a unified system has seemed promising, but it is by no means without problems. Becher (2011b) and Tang (2018), among others, have challenged this typology predominantly by questioning the existence of the fourth type of explicitation. Becher (2011b) argued that there are no supporting corpus data and concrete identifiable forms available for it. In addition, the distinctions between these types of explicitation are not always clear-cut (Englund Dimitrova, 2005). It is not difficult to find examples that may be considered as optional and pragmatic explicitation at the same time. Ultimately, pragmatic explicitation could be seen as a subtype of optional explicitation (Baumgarten, Meyer & Özçetin, 2008; Englund Dimitrova, 2005).

Following Klaudy’s (1993) classification of explicitation, Kamenická (2008) proposed a typology of translation-inherent explicitation. The belief that there are fundamentally different kinds of explicitation (along with implicitation) and that these differences correspond to “the different aspects of pragmatic situations”, that is, “the referential reality, the relationship of the participants of the communication, and the textual level” has led her to deploy the Hallidayian metafunctions of language, namely, the ideational, interpersonal, and textual metafunctions, to categorise explicitation. While obligatory and optional explicitation could be relatively objectively differentiated from translation-inherent explicitation, pragmatic explicitation is heavily interwoven with translation-inherent explicitation in this typology. This is inevitable, however, considering that the purpose of Kamenická’s (2008) study was to examine a correlation between explicitation and translator’s style. The translator’s approach to pragmatic explicitation needs to be taken into consideration as part of the explicitation profile

(Kamenická, 2008). In this sense, the answer to whether this classification is useful as a typology for translation-inherent explicitation becomes uncertain. Furthermore, Kamenická (2008) did not substantially explain these types of explicitation; so it is not clear how they could be operationalised for research purposes (Murtisari, 2016). However, this study serves as an enlightening endeavour, juxtaposed with a few other studies using metafunctions as their theoretical foundation for a typology of explicitation (Tang, 2018).

#### **2.2.4 The asymmetry hypothesis and its revised version**

In order to improve the previous fourfold categorisation of explicitation and reformulate the explicitation hypothesis, Klaudy and Károly (2005) proposed the asymmetry hypothesis to name a hypothesised, language pair-independent, universal characteristic of translated texts that happens “when explicitation is carried out in the L1→ L2 direction, no implicitation occurs in the L2→L1 direction” because translators “prefer to use operations involving explicitation, and often fail to perform optional implicitation”, if they have a choice (Klaudy & Károly, 2005, pp. 13-14).

Klaudy and Károly (2005) tested the specification or generalisation of semantic meaning conveyed by lexical items, specifically reporting verbs, in literary translations between English and Hungarian. In the translations from English to Hungarian, the variety of reporting verbs increased considerably. The Hungarian translations used more specific reporting verbs than the English STs, which indicated the tendency towards explicitation of meanings that were only implied in the STs. However, in translation from Hungarian to English, where implicitation was expected as a result of operational symmetry, a decrease in the variety of reporting verbs was not evident: nearly identical reporting verbs in the translated texts to that of the Hungarian STs were found. Therefore, the explicitation in the English-Hungarian translation direction was

not counterbalanced by implicitation in the Hungarian-English direction, validating the asymmetry hypothesis.

However, Becher (2011b) found Klaudy and Károly's (2005) definition of the asymmetry hypothesis unclear because it did not specify the kind(s) of explicitation involved (e.g., obligatory, optional or pragmatic) and used ambiguous expressions to describe translators' choices, such as "prefer" and "fail". To address these problems, a modified version of the asymmetry hypothesis was proposed by Becher (2011b), as follows:

The Asymmetry Hypothesis (modified version): Obligatory, optional and pragmatic explicitations in one translation direction tend to be more frequent than (i.e., not 'counterbalanced' by) the corresponding implicitations in the other translation direction, regardless of the source/target language constellation at hand. (p. 59)

### **2.2.5 Explicitation and explicitness**

Given the relative youth of TS as an independent discipline, it is not surprising that uniform terminology for key concepts has remained elusive, with researchers attributing "different concepts to one term, or vice versa, one concept to different terms" (De Metsenaere & Vandepitte, 2017, p. 385). In the investigation of explicitation, many efforts to define this term have been made (Tang, 2018; see Delisle, Lee-Jahnke, & Cormier, 1999; De Metsenaere, 2016; Kamenická 2007; Olohan & Baker, 2000; Saldanha, 2008; Schiffrin, 1994/2003; Shuttleworth & Cowie 1997; Van Leuven-Zwart, 1989; Weissbrod, 1992). For example, Murtisari (2013) and De Metsenaere (2016) resorted to relevance theory to (re)define it. This could be ascribed to the fact that people have very different understandings of explicitation, even when they have used the same terminology (Becher, 2011b), which points to a fundamental problem of the definition that the interpretation of explicitation has been relatively intuitive. As

discussed by Fattah (2010), most of the studies mentioned so far have investigated explicitation by using a taxonomical approach, and were “not motivated or informed by a coherent theoretical framework” (p. 130). Only few studies have taken a “translation-theory and translation-practice-oriented” approach (Baumgarten, Meyer & Özçetin, 2008, p. 180). Moreover, there has been a further level of terminological and methodological complexity associated with the demarcation of the closely related concepts of explicitation and explicitness (De Metsenaere & Vandepitte, 2017; Hansen-Schirra, Neumann & Steiner, 2007; Krüger, 2014), though House (2004) used the two terms interchangeably.

Explicitness in its basic linguistic meaning refers to overt lexicogrammatical encoding of a piece of information and, thus, is a measure of difference between variants of expressions that accommodate distinguishing features between languages, communicative conventions, and registers (Baumgarten, Meyer & Özçetin, 2008). Heltai (2005) related explicitness to processing ease, claiming that “true explicitness” assumes minimal ambiguity and the easiest processing. From the perspective of relevance theory, Murtisari (2013) saw explicitness as related to explicature, whose degree relies on linguistic decoding and pragmatic contextual inference (Murtisari, 2013, p. 315).

Based on an SFL framework, Hansen-Schirra et al. (2007) and Steiner (2008) explained that explicitness relates to properties of encoding and the comparison of two variants does not require any shared meaning between them, while “explicitation” is a process that presupposes some implicit meaning “is made explicit” in moving from one text to another (Steiner, 2008, p. 238). In this sense, the two variants need to share at least parts of their meanings:

We assume ‘explicitation’ if in a translation (or language-internally in a pair of register-related texts) meanings (not only ideational, but including interpersonal and textual) are realized in the more explicit variant which are not realized in the less

explicit variant, but which are in some theoretically motivated sense implicit in the latter. The resulting text is more ‘explicit’ than its counterpart. (Steiner, 2008, p. 242)

Explicitness and explicitation are stratified in terms of the linguistic levels of lexicogrammar and text. As explicitness, density and directness are three properties of lexicogrammatical constructions (Steiner, 2008, p. 242), explicitness is conceptually related to “density” and “directness” on the linguistic level of lexicogrammar. On the level of text, explicitness is conceptually related to properties, such as “lexically impoverished, rationalized, clarified, expanded, ennobled, popularised, standardised ...” (Steiner, 2008, p. 242). It is not the simple amount of “explicitness” features of clauses on a higher level unit (text/discourse); rather, it is an “emergent property” resulting from the interaction of clausal features (including explicitness, density and directness) and textual features (such as cohesion, genre or register) (Steiner, 2008, p. 242). Explicitness on the textual level can also be a result of global textual patterns, such as type-token ratio and lexical density (Steiner, 2008). Explicitation, on the other hand, is a relationship or a process, the resulting products of which are more “explicit” lexicogrammatically and cohesively than their counterparts (Steiner, 2008, p. 242).

Against this background, the present study followed De Metsenaere and Vandepitte (2017), Hansen-Schirra et al. (2007), and Krüger (2014) in using the term explicitation to describe the comparison between translations and their STs, and comparable explicitness to refer to the comparison between translations and non-translations in the TL. Furthermore, this study used the asymmetry hypothesis in both translation directions as a stringent operationalisation of translation-inherent explicitation.

### **2.3 Corpus-based studies of explicitation**

In response to Blum-Kulka’s (1986) call for large-scale empirical research on the proposed explicitation hypothesis, explicitation in translated texts as compared to their STs has frequently been investigated at the linguistic level of discourse cohesion

(Marco, 2012). Proposed linguistic indicators include explicating shifts in lexical cohesion (Øverås, 1998), shifts in conjunctive explicitness (Abdul-Fattah, 2010; Baleghizadeh & Sharifi, 2010; Becher, 2011a; Denturck, 2012, 2014; Looi, 2013; Øverås, 1998; Pápai, 2004; Zufferey & Cartoni, 2014; see Section 2.6), the use of reformulation markers (Xiao, 2011), and substituting the pronoun *one(s)* (Marco, 2012). Explicitation has also been operationalised at other linguistic levels. For instance, at the syntactic level, Konšalová (2007) investigated syntactic condensation devices between Czech and German translations of popular texts on history while Kenny (2005) investigated the presence/absence of the optional complementiser *that* after the reporting verb *say* in German-English literary translations. Moreover, Kolehmainen (2014) examined whether the rendering of subjectless Finnish passive constructions into German, where subjects are obligatory, involved explicitation; and similarly, Kenny and Saththachai (2018) explored whether the translation of passive voice explicated agents (or not) in English-Thai legal translation. At the lexical level, Vahedi Kia (2011) and Vahedi Kia and Ouliaeinia (2016) have proposed a lexical explicitation model in Persian-English literary translations, including narrowing, repetition and specification. At the semantic level, Klaudy and Károly (2005) tested the specification/generalisation of semantic meaning conveyed by reporting verbs in English-Hungarian and Hungarian-English translations of literary texts. Others, such as El-Nashar (2016) and Mansour, Sowaidi and Mohammed (2014), have taken more general approaches to identify explicitation strategies at different levels. For instance, Mansour, Sowaidi and Mohammed (2014) tracked explicitation at the lexico-grammatical, pragmatic and translation-inherent levels in literary genres, while El-Nashar (2016) investigated explicitation techniques used in the English-Arabic translation of institutional documents. The investigation went beyond linguistic levels, as represented by Baumgarten et al.'s (2008) study, which used a graphological marking of parentheses as markers of explicitness in English-German translations of popular scientific writing.

Studies, such as Kenny (2005), Klaudy and Károly (2005), Konšalová (2007), Øverås (1998), Pápai (2004) and Xiao (2011), using parallel corpora and often investigating the relationship of explicitation and implicitation in translation, have provided supportive evidence for explicitation as a characteristic feature inherent in the translation process. Nevertheless, Baleghizadeh and Sharifi (2010), Becher (2011a), El-Nashar (2016) and Zufferey and Cartoni (2014) argued that explicating implicit logico-semantic links by using connectives can be explained by cross-linguistic differences and cross-cultural pragmatics between the languages involved, rather than translation-inherent explicitation. Baleghizadeh and Sharifi (2010), Becher (2010), Mansour et al. (2014) and Marco (2012) also suggested that translators have tended to use explicating techniques to clarify ambiguities and increase readability, a claim that fits well with Pym's (2005) notion of risk-avoidance. There also have been studies yielding some findings that have contradicted the asymmetry hypothesis. For example, Denturck (2012) found that implicitation was surprisingly more prevalent than explicitation in a bidirectional corpus of Dutch and French. As pointed out by Denturck (2012), however, factors related to the specific language pairs, registers or lexicogrammatical features may have accounted for this result. Similarly, there have been rare instances of explicitation found in studies investigating passive structures (Kenny & Sathachai, 2018; Kolehmainen, 2014).

Monolingual comparable corpus studies often have compared the level of explicitness between translations and non-translations at the linguistic levels of syntax and discourse. At the level of syntax, optional syntactic elements have been used as an indicator of syntactic explicitation; for instance, optional subject pronouns (Jiménez-Crespo, 2011; Zhang, Kotze (Kruger) & Fang, 2020), the optional complementiser *that* in English (Kruger, 2019; Kruger & De Sutter, 2018; Kruger & Van Rooy, 2012; Olohan and Baker, 2000), and *om* in Dutch (Van Beveren, Coleman & De Sutter 2017; Van Beveren, De Sutter & Coleman, 2020), as well as contracted forms (Olohan, 2003). At



the level of discourse, indicators of explicitation may include the increased use of explicative reformulation (Xiao, 2011), conjunctions (Alasmri & Kruger, 2018; Chen, 2004, 2006; Marco, 2018; Mauranen, 2000; Puurtinen, 2004, see more discussion in Chapter 3), discourse particles (e.g., *cask* ‘only, just’, Pápai, 2004) and apposition markers (Mutesayire, 2004). Lexical variation of Latin-Greek terms was investigated by Jiménez-Crespo and his colleague (Jiménez-Crespo & Tercedor Sánchez, 2017) in translated (from English) and non-translated Spanish medical texts.

These studies (with the exception of Puurtinen, 2004, see the discussion below) have provided evidence for the assumption of increased explicitness of lexicogrammatical encoding in translated texts in contrast with non-translated texts in the same language.

The following paragraphs discuss a few selected studies, focusing on the corpus designs used, namely, bilingual parallel corpus, monolingual comparable corpus, or combined or bidirectional parallel and comparable corpus designs. The aim of the discussion is to yield a comprehensive picture of the way that explicitation has been studied in TS to date and the methodological challenges that have been encountered.

Øverås (1998), who was one of the first researchers to test the explicitation hypothesis, investigated increased cohesive explicitness in Norwegian-English and English-Norwegian literary translations. The parallel corpora used consisted of 2,000 sentences of original texts and their corresponding translations. Explicitation was subcategorised into addition and specification. By identifying and counting explicating and implicating shifts at the grammatic and lexical levels, Øverås (1998) found more instances of explicitation than implicitation in both translation directions, thus confirming the explicitation hypothesis.

However, this study seems problematic in several respects. First, the framing of the study in terms of “norm(s)”, used in the article title and section titles, such as “norm-confirmation” and “norm-disconfirmation”, seems vague. Clearly, these two

compounds essentially entail the meaning “explicitation” and “implication” in Øverås’s (1998) conceptualisation. If so, it contradicts the definition of the explicitation hypothesis, which posits that the cause of observable increased explicitness is ascribed to the translation process, which transcends language and culture specificity, whereas norms are language- and culture-bounded. By nature, these two systems of explanations are incompatible. Therefore, testing the TL norms cannot effectively support the explicitation hypothesis.

The next, closely related problem lies in the inconsistent deployment of criteria. From the start, the exclusion of explicating shifts “caused by rule-governed language system differences” was set (Øverås’s, 1998, p. 4). However, as the analysis progressed, the author encountered difficulties in drawing “the line between system related shifts and the stylistic preference” or distinguishing a stylistic preference for explicitation from translation-inherent explicitation (Øverås’s, 1998, p. 8). To properly distinguish these two types of shifts requires one “to first carry out a large scale contrastive stylistic study (in a given register) to establish cohesive patterns in SL and TL, and then to examine translations to and from both languages to investigate shifts in cohesive levels that occur in translation” (Blum-Kulka, 1986, p. 33). Such work was beyond the scope of Øverås’s (1998) study, as demonstrated by her assumption that all the uncertain shifts should be included, as “the investigation of *initial* norms may benefit from research that includes all occurrences” (p. 9). This was likely to lead to unavoidable doubts by readers on how many instances that were identified as explicitations were due to a difference in language systems.

The third doubt is about the boundaries that delimiting explicitation from the so-called “merely explicitate” shifts, namely, non-explicitation addition and specification. The ideal criteria are the effects on meaning (Van Leuven Zwart, 1989). However, as also reported by Øverås (1998), the problem of identifying changes of meaning was hard to tackle as meaning could be highly intuitive and subjective. As a compromise, all cases

that were perceived to contain explicitation were counted. Needless to say, it was highly likely that some of the explicitation instances that were not based on co-textually recoverable information had been included as explicitation.

Despite all these problems, Øverås (1998) was able to “safely conclude that within the framework of the present analysis Blum-Kulka’s explicitation hypothesis is confirmed. Confirmation was stronger in translations from English into Norwegian than in the opposite direction” (p. 16). This statement is by no means unproblematic. It seems that Øverås (1998) regarded explicitation as an ever-present feature, albeit with potential variables affecting the degree of strength of the tendency. An immediate question would be what these variables are, and how they reinforce or inhibit the tendency to explicitate. With these questions unanswered, Øverås’s study is not likely to provide support for the explicitation hypothesis. Becher (2011b) expressed a similar critique in his PhD dissertation.

Unlike Øverås (1998), Marco (2012) clearly established the broad lines of what comes into the scope of explicitation: “ST + TT segment pairs in which using an explicating technique was the only option available have not been counted as explicitation, the practical condition for any pair to be regarded as an instance of explicitation then being that a less explicit option would have been perfectly acceptable in Catalan” (Marco, 2012, p. 240). This study investigated explicitation techniques used to translate the substituting pronoun *one(s)* when rendering English fiction into Catalan. All the possible techniques were first identified and then located along an expliciting-neutral-impliciting scale based on their realisation of explicitness. The quantitative analysis showed that implicitation was not well-represented by the data, and thus was excluded from the analysis. In the remaining instances involving expliciting and neutral techniques, explicitation was evidenced in 17.89% of the cases. The qualitative analysis revealed that expliciting techniques were used to clarify ambiguity and to avoid repetition so as to make the TT more readable and intelligible, but did not necessarily

increase information load. However, since Marco (2012) excluded implicitation from the analysis because of its marginal effects on the balance of explicating, neutral and implicitating techniques, this exclusion made it impossible to statistically compare the explicating and implicitating shifts, thereby producing inconclusive results.

Also using a parallel corpus, Kolehmainen (2014) examined how the subjectless Finnish passive was translated into German where the null subject was grammatically incorrect, and how this obligatory expression of a missing SL category related to obligatory explicitation. Kolehmainen (2014) compared six Finnish fiction and two non-fiction books with their German translations. The findings showed the rendering of Finnish null subject passives presented variation, in the forms of active and passive clauses, an impersonal clause with an expletive subject or an infinitive clause without a subject. Obligatory explicitation was found only in the cases where a human agent, implied by the Finnish ST passive, was translated in German as an explicit expression with a subject, whereas all the other cases involved factors concerning the translators' interpretations, decision-making and creativity. Therefore, the obligatory explicit expression in the TL of a missing category in the SL could not be straightforwardly taken as explicitation without a thorough analysis.

Comparable corpus studies have involved the comparison of explicitness in translated and non-translated texts in the same TL. For example, Olohan and Baker (2000) investigated the pattern of inclusion/omission of the optional complementiser *that* with reporting verbs TELL and SAY in translated (Translated English Corpus, TEC) and original English texts (sampled from the British National Corpus, BNC). All the forms derived from the lemmas TELL and SAY were used to search for all the concordances involving the optional use of the complementiser *that*. Overall, *that* was used far more frequently in the TEC than in the BNC. For example, the incidence of *that* in combination with *tells* in the TEC and the BNC were 68.75% and 37.5%, respectively.

This result thus contributed to strengthen the evidence for a tendency towards increased syntactic explicitness in translated English.

The study also found interesting patterns prevalent in English translations, such as the incidence of the *said*-passive structure with impersonal *it* as subject, figurative usage of *tells*, the use of reflexives, and a preference for (proper) nouns. All of these could potentially constitute evidence for explicitation.

However, the exclusion of STs in Olohan and Baker's (2000) study has been extensively critiqued by Becher (2011b), who argued that the findings in their study could be explained by alternative factors, such as SL interference or conservatism. De Sutter and Lefer (2019) also refuted Olohan and Baker's (2000) claim of ascribing the explicit use of *that* to translation-inherent process. Applying a multi-methodological, multifactorial and interdisciplinary approach, De Sutter and Lefer (2019) found that translation status (translated compared to original) had no significant main effect on the choice between *that* omission and retention. The explicit use of *that* was only found to be more frequent in translations of journalistic texts and sentences with complex structures than comparable non-translations, indicating that in syntactically complex texts translators tend to opt for explicit choice compared to native writers. Rather, other explanatory factors, such as, text complexity-related factors and register seemed to account for the occurrences of the optional *that* in translated and non-translated English. Furthermore, writing expertise and English language proficiency are also of importance in the use of *that* in writing and translation.

While more research needs to be done to unveil the reasons for the occurrence of the optional *that*, it seems over-confident to describe it as a subconscious process of explicitation (see Becher, 2011b). For instance, after case studying the choice between the explicit and implicit *that* in translated and non-translated English (a component of the Dutch Parallel Corpus) made by translators and native writers, De Sutter and Lefer

(2020) found that translation status only played a limited role in the inclination for more explicit structure, refuting the claim that the more explicit use of *that* reflected translation-inherent subconscious process. Instead, text complexity and register had a significant influence on the *that* realisation (De Sutter & Lefer, 2020). Furthermore, writing experience and language proficiency were also of importance (De Sutter & Lefer, 2020).

In response to Chesterman's (2004) calls to test explicitation phenomena in different translation types and modalities, Jiménez-Crespo (2011, 2015a, 2015b, 2017) conducted a series of comparable corpus-based studies. Explicitation was first tested in web localisation, a modality claimed to be the future translation type, according to Jiménez-Crespo (2011), "that did not exist when scholars in TS set off to systematically research general tendencies of translation" (Jiménez-Crespo, 2015b, p. 260). The hypothesis was that if explicitation is a universal feature or general tendency in translation then it would equally occur in both current and future translation types. Furthermore, web localisation features specific constraints because of limited space on screen and web usability guidelines, which may not welcome the presence of explicitation. However, after comparing translated and non-translated web texts, Jiménez-Crespo (2011) found that syntactic explicitation also existed in the digital genre. In particular, the frequency of the use of personal pronouns was higher in translated web texts than in non-translated web texts. Additionally, a more frequent presence of optional articles and on average longer lexical units used in the navigation menu terminology were found in localised Spanish corporate websites than in original Spanish texts in the same genre, which produced further evidence to support explicitation.

Medical translation involves communication between experts and the general public, thus requiring reader-friendliness. Studies has shown lexical and syntactic shifts in the translation of medical texts made to meet the needs of end-users. Against this

background, Jiménez-Crespo (2015a, 2017) compared the use of personal pronouns and Latin-Greek (LG) terms in a 40-million word comparable corpus of translated Spanish general medical websites produced in the USA and non-translated medical websites originally produced for Spanish readers in Spain and Latin America. Since “Latin was not incorporated to the same extent in all European languages”, an LG term that is perfectly acceptable in Spanish may not be so common in English, where more general terms are preferred. For example, the English term “ear-nose-throat doctor” (ENT) has to be rendered into an LG term “otorrinolaringólogo” in Spanish. In expert-to-laymen and intralingual communication scenarios, the strategy to deal with LG terms is called *determinologisation* (or *explicitation*), which typically involves explanation, reformulation or replacement with a more popular term. These strategies were expected to increase the readability of the medical texts and elevate the efficiency of communication between an expert and a lay audience. The translation process could also involve translation-inherent explicitation. The results showed that translated Spanish medical texts demonstrated a lower frequency of LG terms than non-translated texts, and a higher frequency of explicitation. The reformulation of LG terms in translations closely followed the English STs. Therefore, they could have been the consequence of SL interference in the form of literal translation of the ST terms. Translation-inherent explicitation may also partly account for the more frequent explicitation strategies.

Moving from a solely corpus-based approach to an integration with experimental work, Jiménez-Crespo (2015b) designed an experiment in a later project to test the explicitation hypothesis in production processes and also to triangulate existing corpus findings. Two production processes under different conditions, namely direct translating and selecting a translation from a range of translation options, were compared with a non-translated reference corpus. The results showed that the selection condition was more strongly associated with explicitation than the regular translation

condition, suggesting that procedural aspects conditioned explicitation. The selection condition had higher rates of explicitation as demonstrated by the use of articles and possessives, and a preferential use of finite verbal forms over non-finite forms. Therefore, the translation corpus had longer lexical units in contrast to the reference corpus of non-translations.

Kenny's (2005) study can be proffered as an example to show how parallel corpora can be integrated with comparable corpora to gain more insights into the characteristics of translated language. Kenny (2005) investigated the optional complementiser *that* used after the reporting verb SAY in the German-English Parallel Corpus of Literary Texts (Gepcolt). The results of Kenny (2005) showed that, among all the instances in reporting structures where the optional *that* used after SAY was possible, the presence and absence of *that* accounted for 42% and 58%, respectively, which was in line with the distribution pattern reported by Olohan and Baker (2000). In roughly half of the cases where *that* was used, there was a corresponding ST counterpart (*dass*) while 79% of the time an omission of *that* reflected the pattern of the null optional *dass* in German ST. Because the shifts where the original null-complementiser had been replaced by *that* outnumbered the shifts from *dass* to the null-complementiser, Kenny claimed that "the overall tendency seems to be one of explicitation rather than implicitation" (Kenny, 2005, p. 161). However, this study failed to rule out other factors that could potentially have caused these shifts. For example, as mentioned by the author, the German subjunctive structure could also have been a source of *that* insertion in the translation, in which case, one could not say if an explicating shift had taken place. Furthermore, the stronger tendency of *that* omission in the Gepcolt (German as single SL) than in the TEC (multiple SLs) used in Olohan and Baker (2000) clearly signalled that the SL influence was at play. Thus, it would be imprudent to conclude that Kenny's (2005) results supported the explicitation hypothesis.



Using an integrated parallel and comparable corpus, Pápai's (2004) study aimed to test the explicitation hypothesis in literary and non-literary English-Hungarian translations and Hungarian originals. Explicitation strategies were first identified in the parallel corpus of the English STs and their Hungarian TTs, and then among them, those suitable for frequency analysis were selected to investigate explicitness in the comparable corpus of translated and non-translated Hungarian texts. The results showed supportive evidence for the explicitation hypothesis in that the translations were more explicit than both the original STs and the non-translations in the same TL (Pápai, 2004). However, as was the case for Øverås (1998), the conclusions drawn from this seem doubtful. Pápai (2004) defined explicitation as "a translation technique involving a shift from the ST concerning structure or content. It is a technique of resolving ambiguity, improving and increasing cohesiveness of the ST and also of adding linguistic and extra-linguistic information" (p. 145). According to this definition, her guiding principle for identifying explicitation was to find "steps towards an easy-to-understand, better structured, better organized and disambiguated text" (Pápai, 2004, p. 148). Based on this working definition and methodology, the instances included in Pápai's (2004) study may not have been translation-inherent explicitation exclusively. Rather, these explicating shifts may also have been related to other confounding factors, such as the style of the language community or genre conventions. Even though Pápai (2004) acknowledged these possibilities, it was concluded that "this set of data supports Blum-Kulka's hypothesis" (p. 157).

Finally, in order to test the explicitation hypothesis on the morphosyntactic level, Konšalová (2007) conducted a bidirectional and parallel corpus study, investigating explicitness manifested by syntactic structures with a different degree of predication density in the translation of popular history texts.

In a three-step analysis, Konšalová (2007) first compared the frequencies of these syntactic condensation devices in original texts (Czech and German) to establish the

stylistic contrast in terms of explicit/implicit modes of expression in the two languages. Then, the explicating and implicating shifts were identified in both translation directions. This step aimed to confirm the explication hypothesis. Third, the translations were compared to the originals to see if they were more explicit than the non-translations in the same TL. The findings showed that in both German to Czech and Czech to German translations, explication outnumbered impication shifts, thus the explication hypothesis was fully confirmed. This was further supported by a word count analysis. However, when the translations were compared with originals in the same TL, the increased explicitness was only found in the translated German texts. In the explanations for these complicated tendencies, translation-specific explication, stylistic preferences in the source and target languages as well as the translators' personal styles were all taken into consideration.

In summary, corpus-based studies of explication have been large in number and fruitful in findings, though these findings have been often too complex, with too many factors at play, to reach any firm conclusions. The combination of comparable, parallel and bidirectional, or even multi-directional corpora has advanced the understanding of the patterns of explication and has offered more insights into the reasons that may potentially cause translation to be more explicit than non-translation both in SL and in TL. Up to this point, the review of the literature has been focused on European languages. In the next section, the discussion turns to the language pair of English and Chinese.

#### **2.4 Explication in English-Chinese/Chinese-English translations**

As can be gleaned from Section 2.2, corpus-based investigations of explication have thrived in various language pairs (e.g., Alasmri & Kruger, 2018; El-Nashar, 2016 for English-Arabic; Baleghizadeh & Sharifi, 2010 for Persian-English; Becher, 2010, 2011 for English-German; Denturck, 2012, 2014 for French-Dutch; Jiménez-Crespo, 2011,

2015a, 2015b; Jiménez-Crespo & Tercedor Sánchez, 2017 for English-Spanish; Kenny & Satthachai, 2018 for English-Thai; Konšalová, 2007 for Czech-German; Marco, 2012 for English-Catalan; Xiao, 2011 for English-Chinese).

Studies on explicitation phenomena in translated Chinese from English have frequently focused on discourse cohesion (e.g., Chen, 2004, 2006; Hu, 2006; Huang, 2007, 2008; Ke, 2005; Looi, 2013; Wang, 2010; Wang & Qin, 2010; Xiao, 2010, 2011; Xiao, He & Yue, 2010; Xiao & Hu, 2015). Chen (2004, 2006), Ling (2013), and Xiao (2010), along with other scholars, have investigated the use of conjunctions in Chinese translations from English (e.g., Hu, 2006; Hu & Zeng, 2009; Huang, 2007; Ke, 2005; Looi, 2013; Wang, 2010; Wang & Qin, 2010; Xiao, He & Yue, 2010;). These studies have all found a higher frequency of conjunctions in translated texts than in native non-translated texts. However, as Xiao (2010) explained, the explicitations evident in translational Chinese were more likely related to specific translation shifts from English to Chinese. Others, such as Huang (2007), Wang and Qin (2010), and Xiao and Hu (2015) compared the frequency of personal pronouns in translated and non-translated texts in Chinese and found that pronouns showed a significantly higher frequency in Chinese translations. Moreover, Wang and Qin (2010) found the frequency of re-occurrence of the third-person pronoun 他 *tā* ‘he’ as well as its anaphoric function was noticeably strengthened in the translations. These studies furthermore suggest that the more frequent use of personal pronouns may be influenced by the SL, English. Ke (2005) proposed co-existing patterns of explicitation and implicitation in translated language. When translating from a “highly grammatically explicit language”, which prefers to use more function words to systematically connect sentence components, like English, to a “grammatically implicit language”, which opts to use fewer function words, like Chinese, explicitation increases and implicitation decreases (Xiao & Hu, 2015, p. 28). Meanwhile, in a reverse translation direction, the tendency of explicitation decreases and implicitation increases (Xiao & Hu, 2015). This co-existence of explicitation and

implication was confirmed in Wang and Qin's (2010) study in that the translations were more explicit than the non-translations, but more implicit than the English STs (Wang & Qin, 2010, p. 179). These findings suggest that explicitation may be, at the very least, conditioned by preferences for explicitness of encoding in different languages, and there may be, therefore, a transfer dimension to explicitation.

In the reversed translation direction (e.g., from Chinese to English), studies on explicitation have largely focused on the translations of Chinese ancient books (Chen, 2013; Gao, 2013; Guo, 2011; Han, 2015; Yang, 2018), masterpiece books (Wang, 2015) and award-winning fictions (Chen & Wang, 2017). These studies mostly compared different versions of English translations with the Chinese STs to identify and classify the commonly used explicitation and/or implication strategies. The potential explanations for the identified tendencies were also discussed in these studies. For example, by comparing three English translations of the chapter titles of *Hong Lou Meng* (Cao, 1791) rendered by translators with diverse social-cultural backgrounds in different times, Guo (2011) found that all translators resorted to similar strategies characterised by the explicitation of subjects, explicitation of cohesion and coherence, and explicitation of grammatical meanings. According to Guo (2011), explicitation might be used to demonstrate the meaning of the ST and to facilitate the understanding of the complex stories and relationship among participants in the ST. Similarly, Wang (2015) investigated the occurrences of and the possible explanations for explicitation and implication in the English translations of a modern Chinese novel *Border Town* (Shen, 1934). She compared two classical translation versions of the Chinese novel and found that there were no distinctive differences between the two. Instead, both versions had more instances of explicitation than implication. When explaining the occurrences of explicitations, Wang (2015) argued that translators might be likely to explicate implicit information in the ST to “gain the optimal relevance between SL author’s communicative intention and TL readers’ expectation in order to give a complete

understanding of *Border Town*” (Wang, 2015, p. i). Meanwhile, it was also likely that these implicitation strategies were used to give the translation some poetic effects.

Another study along the same line that aims to testify the existence of and to explore potential reasons for the explication feature in Chinese-English translations is the one conducted by Shih and Cai (2008). Specifically, they investigated the use of *that*, conjunctions and transitional words in translated and non-translated journalistic texts. Their results showed that the translations had a raised level of explicitness in that these investigated indicators were used more frequently in translated English journalistic texts than in the non-translated texts. It was hypothesised that the explication found in the translated texts were related to translators’ risk management, such as their prudent judgement and construal of analogy between translators and readers (Shih & Cai, 2008).

Other studies, such as Chen and Zhao (2012) and Niu (2013), investigated explication in English translations of research paper abstracts. Explication was evidenced in the more frequent use of demonstrative pronouns, connectives and first-person pronouns in Chen and Zhao’s (2012) study whereas it was manifested by the overuse of high-frequency function words and low lexical richness in Niu’s (2013) study. However, with a focus on political texts, Gu and Chen (2015), Li and Zhou (2019) and Tong (2013) found that explication and implicitation were used more cautiously in these texts to deliver the message precisely.

Combining product and process perspectives, Fan (2012) conducted an empirical study of explication in Chinese-English translations of excerpts from a tourist brochure in an attempt to provide a more comprehensive understating of explication as a strategic process. The study investigated the relationship between the level of explicitness in translations and the amount of cognition effort invested by the translators, the translators’ explanations for adopting explication and the potential effects that these strategies might have on readers, as well as the consistency and recognition of

explicitation among professional and novice translators. The findings of Fan' (2012) study demonstrated that explicitation was not always favoured by the translators; instead, they might refrain from using explicitation due to the concerns about target readers' expectations and text readability. Furthermore, a higher level of explicitation did not necessarily lead to an increased level of readability. It was also found that certain types of explicitation were likely to require more cognitive effort than others, which reflected professional translators' conscious decision-making during translation process (Fan, 2012).

From these studies, it seemed that the tendency towards explicitation did not manifest itself consistently across different text types. Genre has been found to play a key role in conditioning the realisation of the features of translated language (see Kruger & Van Rooy 2012). The present study set out to explore explicitation in the translation of children's literature, specifically in children's books translated between Chinese and English; the following section thus focuses on explicitation in the translation of children's literature.

## **2.5 Explicitation in children's literature translations**

Explicitation has been studied in a variety of genres and modalities (see Becher, 2011a, 2011b for business texts; Klaudy & Károly, 2005; Denturck, 2012, 2014 for literary translation; Perego, 2003 for subtitling; Puurtinen, 2004 for children's literature; Tang, 2018 for interpreting; Hjort-Pedersen & Faber, 2010; Vesterager, 2017; Kenny & Sathachai, 2018 for legal translation; Jiménez-Crespo, 2015a; Jiménez-Crespo & Tercedor Sánchez, 2017 for medical translation; Jiménez-Crespo, 2011 for web localisation; Tong, 2013 for political text translation).

Children's literature has particular functions and characteristics that may affect the realisation of increased explicitness or explicitation. As the target audience of

children's reading material includes both child readers and adults (e.g., caretakers and educators) who would typically read with the child and also select and buy books for them (Puurтинен, 1995; O'Connell, 1999), the need to facilitate target-audience acceptability in children's literature might be strongly felt by translators and publishers. This significance of target-audience acceptability might directly influence the market and publishers' decisions on what to publish. Thus, translators' strategies and decisions might be affected if they want their translations to be accepted by the target readers (O'Connell, 1999). To attain the requisite level of acceptability, translators may adjust the target text to fit the expectations of the target system (Shavit, 2006). For example, according to Puurтинен (2006), it is a priority for the translators of children's books to adjust "the plot, characterization and language" (p. 54) to the level of children's comprehension (or at least, how this is judged in the recipient system), which often leads to shorter and less complex content. Against this background, it may be argued that translated children's literature would be particularly susceptible to demonstrating the feature of explicitation, as translators would be prone to wanting to ensure that the text is easily understood by the child target audience. However, there are only a few studies of translated children's literature in the context of the features of explicitation.

Borodo (2016) presented a case study of a 1993 classic Polish children's book *Kaytek the Wizard*, written by Janusz Korczak, and its English translation by a well-known translator, Lloyd-Jones, 80 years after the publication of the original. Borodo (2016) wondered how the translator dealt with Korczak's elliptical and laconic literary style and the abundant cultural elements in the ST, that is, whether they have been made explicit in translation. Explicitation was found on both the linguistic and cultural planes. The translator explicated interlocutors' identities in conversation by adding dialogue tags, such as "he says", "says the Chief" and "thinks Kaytek". The translator also explained implicit logic links by adding cohesive devices, and explicated sequences of actions as well as changing the past tense to the present so as to increase the immediacy

of the experience. In terms of the numerous cultural references to Polish culture, history and geography, the translator used footnotes or in-text explanatory information, or even both simultaneously. These strategies appeared to be used for the sake of younger readers because these implicit and laconic expressions may have posed difficulties in their understanding.

Čermáková (2018) discussed the phenomenon of repetition through an analysis of keywords and cluster (as specific cases of repetition) in a small-scale corpus consisting of two children's classics. The translators avoided lexical repetition at the expense of breaching consistency (which is a part of the Czech stylistic tradition), and frequently opted for synonymy, thus compromising the original lexical networks that were intentionally constructed for meaning and cohesion. The resulting texts seemed more explicit and standardised. The author claimed that this approach was followed because of the high demand for acceptability that was placed on children's literature, and the translators' subsequent inclination to normalise towards TL conventions.

Puurтинен (2004) investigated the frequency of clause connectives (such as conjunctions, adverbs and relative pronouns), which were used to explicate the relation (causal, temporal and post-modifying) between clauses in translated Finnish children's literature. Focusing on the question of whether the translations were more explicit than the non-translated originals, as evident in the more frequent use of clause connectives, she selected 13 commonly used Finnish clause connectives for investigation. The findings showed that a few connectives were more frequent in the translations, while others had a higher frequency in the non-translated originals and some had roughly the same frequency in both. Therefore, the findings did not fully support the explicitation hypothesis, but nor did they provide clear evidence against it. Rather, explicitation appeared to be conditioned by the functions of the connectives and the context of their use (Puurтинен, 2004).



## 2.6 Explicitation in English-Chinese children's literature translations

In China, investigation of explicitation in English-Chinese children's literature translations can be found in a number of masters' theses (Mei, 2015; Wang, 2013; Yu, 2014). Based on a comparable and parallel corpus, Wang's (2013) study investigated the explicitation of logical relations, ideational meanings and emotional meanings. She studied connectives and transitional words associated with the explicitation of logical relations, the concretisation of nouns and adjectives for explicating ideational meaning, and modal particles and adverbs for emphasising emotional meaning. She found evidence for the explicitation of logical relations, as well as ideational meaning, but not emotional meaning. Wang (2013) explained the cause of explicitation as the consequence of language differences, combined with the translators' subjectivity. Using the corpora of books for older children aged 12-18 years and younger children aged 3-6 years, Mei (2015) and Yu (2014) both found a higher frequency of conjunctions and personal pronouns in the Chinese children's literature translated from English compared to the non-translations in both languages. However, they interpreted their findings in different ways. Mei (2015) interpreted increased explicitness as a universal feature in translated children's literature, co-affected by the linguistic systems of English and Chinese as well as the characteristics of children's literature (see Chapter 1). In contrast, Yu (2014) ascribed the occurrence of increased explicitness to source-language transfer effects and argued that the redundant use of connectives and pronouns in translation could burden children's reading comprehension. This explanation is an important consideration for future translation, and ties in with the emphasis on target-audience acceptability in the translation of children's literature.

Zhang (2017)<sup>2</sup> conducted a pilot study investigating explicitation in Chinese children's books that was translated from English in comparison with non-translated Chinese

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<sup>2</sup> The author's master's thesis.

children's books. The findings showed that the translated Chinese texts made more frequent use of both conjunctions and pronouns compared to the non-translated Chinese texts, which provided substantial support for the prediction that the translated Chinese children's literature tended towards increased explicitness of lexicogrammatical encoding in comparison to the non-translated Chinese children's literature. Furthermore, the findings of the study also showed some evidence of translation-inherent explicitation. For example, in the case of optional personal pronouns, not all the instances where optional pronouns occurred could be ascribed to the occurrence of pronouns in the source texts (Zhang, 2017). Specifically focusing on personal pronouns, Zhang, Kotze (Kruger) and Fang (2020) used quantitative corpus-linguistic methods to analyse the frequency of personal pronouns as an operationalisation of lexicogrammatical explicitness in a custom-built comparable corpus of translated and non-translated Chinese children's literature. They found that, overall, personal pronouns were more frequently used in the translated Chinese compared with the non-translated children's literature in China, providing evidence that the Chinese children's literature translated from English was more explicit in lexicogrammatical encoding than the comparable non-translated texts (Zhang, Kotze (Kruger) & Fang, 2020). However, this tendency did not play out across all the individual personal pronouns. In particular, first- and second-person pronouns (with the exception of a plural first-person pronoun 咱们 *zánmen* 'we' showing a higher level of frequency in the originals) did not show significant differences in their frequencies in the two subcorpora, while all the cases of third person pronouns demonstrated significant differences in their frequencies, and these differences were consistent with the overall tendency (Zhang, Kotze (Kruger) & Fang, 2020). The subsequent qualitative analysis used to explore the potential factors associated with the differences between these two subcorpora showed that cross-linguistic influence or the "shining through" of the SL accounted for this increased explicitness. Stylistic preferences of English for more explicit lexicogrammatical encoding in the form of more referential pronouns were often carried over to the

Chinese translation (Zhang, Kotze (Kruger) & Fang, 2020). Furthermore, since the identity of third-person pronouns typically requires more cognitive effort from readers, especially so when they are used across clause and sentence boundaries, child readers may find it difficult to process and comprehend. As a consequence, the Chinese translators of children's books may have tended to add optional third-person pronouns to mark the reference in an explicit manner so as to facilitate the needs of the child readers (Zhang, Kotze (Kruger) & Fang, 2020).

As evident from the discussion above, existing studies of explicitation in English-Chinese children's literature have often focused on one translation direction of English to Chinese. In contrast, research on English translated from Chinese has been almost non-existent. In order to fill this gap, the present study used a bidirectional comparable and parallel corpus that compared translations in Chinese and English with both STs and non-translational texts in both languages. Furthermore, research on explicitation in children's literature has been limited, and particularly so for translations between Chinese and English; there have been very few comprehensive and systematic corpus-based investigations of explicitation in this text type for this language pair. Even more urgently, most existing studies have not adequately addressed the question of different types of explicitation due to either conceptual or methodological issues (Kamenická, 2007; Tang, 2018). Studies have shown that it is particularly important to distinguish translation-inherent explicitation from the increased explicitness resulting from source-language transfer or interference (e.g., Ke, 2005). More sophisticated corpus designs and a stricter operationalisation of translation-inherent explicitation (i.e., asymmetry hypothesis) are required to more clearly understand the extent to which SL interference accounts for increased explicitness and the extent to which translation-inherent explicitation takes place.

A combined comparable-parallel bidirectional corpus was used to test the hypotheses of this study, which are in line with the asymmetry hypothesis: (a) translated corpora in

both English and Chinese are both more explicit than the non-translated corpora in both languages and (b) while explicitation takes place in Chinese children's literature translated from English, implicitation does not occur in English children's literature translated from Chinese, and thus explicitation is not the consequence of language-specific factors, but rather inherent to the translation process itself.

## **2.7 Explaining explicitation**

The increasing amount of research on explicitation has also been the basis of generalisations of claims about its universality. Researchers have then been precipitated to find explanations to better understand the nature of this phenomenon, as reflected in the call of Chesterman (2004): "we would like to know its cause or causes" and "we need to work on testable explanatory hypotheses in order to account for the evidence we find" (p. 44).

Researchers working primarily in the corpus-based paradigm have offered various explanations for the increased explicitness of translated language. These explanations may be broadly categorised into either producer-oriented or reader-oriented explanations. Producer-oriented explanations ascribe explicitation to translators' conscious and/or unconscious interpretation behaviours during the process of translation (Blum-Kulka, 1986). Increased explicitness could be the consequence of cognitive effort (Kruger & Van Rooy, 2016). The process of translating might be cognitively more complex than other bilingual or monolingual activities since translators are "shuttling" between two languages both simultaneously and continuously (Kruger & Van Rooy, 2016). Based on the "complexity principle" (Rohdenburg, 1996) it has been proposed that "[i]n the case of more or less explicit grammatical option(s) the more explicit one(s) tend to be chosen in cognitively complex environments" (Rohdenburg, 1996, p. 151). This is because cognitively complex and demanding environments might increase processing load, and translators tend to compensate for the increased processing load by resorting to the more explicit grammatical alternatives (Mondorf, 2009, p. 8). The use of explicit marking could be a

choice selected by translators for efficient cognitive processing (Hawkins, 2003).  
Language users (including translators)

have a choice between less form processing...but more dependent processing on the one hand, and more form processing (explicit marking) with less dependent processing on the other. One can speculate that the working memory demands of dependent processing across large domains exceed the processing cost of additional (and meaning) processing through explicit marking. (Hawkins, 2003, p. 200)

Explicitation could, therefore, be motivated by the need to increase processing efficiency on the part of the translators. The increased explicitness, therefore, functions as a cognitive “crutch” to facilitate cognitive processing for translators in an environment of cognitive demand (Kruger & Van Rooy, 2016, p. 29).

Another producer-oriented explanation relates explicitation to cross-linguistic priming. Certain elements or constructions which are obligatory in the SL (e.g., personal pronouns in English) while optional in the TT (e.g., personal pronouns in Chinese) might act as strong triggers in priming the choice to include the element, even though its use is not required (Kruger & De Sutter, 2018). Similarly, the more explicit stylistic preferences of the SL might also be carried over to translations even if an implicit style is typically preferred in the TL (Becher, 2011b; Kruger & De Sutter, 2018). There is, therefore, an SL-transfer/interference dimension in that the lexicogrammatical properties and stylistic preferences of the SL might be transferred to the translation (Becher, 2011b; El-Nashar, 2016; Zufferey & Cartoni, 2014).

Reader-oriented explanations focus on the receiver, and specifically how the translator construes them, and their expectations and needs. Translation could be considered to be a high-risk communication task as the readers are people who do not share as much cultural ground with the author as the readers of the source text do (Kruger & Van Rooy, 2016; Pym, 2005), nor do they have access to the originals. According to the framework

of risk management (Pym, 2005), “where there are greater risks, there are greater opportunities for risk minimisation, although clearly not obligations” (Pym, 2005, p. 34). In the interests of communicative co-operation, translators may prefer risk-avoidant behaviour, because undesirable non-cooperation in communication could lead to translators losing income or the trust of their clients (Pym, 2005). Therefore, translators are likely to avoid risks that could negatively affect the communication between the participants involved. They may tend to use explicating techniques to clarify ambiguities and increase readability to make more communicative clues for their readers by providing a more cohesive and readable text (Kruger & Van Rooy, 2016; Pym, 2005).

Attempts have been made to disentangle the explanations proposed for the increased explicitness of translated language, for instance, in English translations with Afrikaans as the source language (Kruger, 2019; Kruger & De Sutter, 2018). Kruger (2019) and Kruger & De Sutter (2018) applied the multifactorial prediction and deviation analysis (MuPDAR) method to investigate the multiple factors that condition the choice to include or omit *that* in translated English and non-translated English (both British English and South African English). The comparisons between these language varieties showed that translated English converged towards British English rather than the source language of Afrikaans or South African English (an English variety in contact with Afrikaans) in terms of the *that*-omission pattern, suggesting that cross-linguistic priming as a supposed cause of the increased explicitness of translations could be ruled out. Nevertheless, including a parallel corpus design would likely have further strengthened the conclusions drawn from using a comparable corpus only (Kruger, 2019). Kruger (2019) and Kruger and De Sutter (2018) demonstrated that grammatical complexity (linked to processing strain) and conventionalisation (linked to risk-aversion) were interwoven in influencing translators’ behaviour (Kruger & De Sutter, 2018), but it appeared that the presence and absence of the *that*-complementiser was

more sensitive to pragmatic risks than cognitive complexity (Kruger, 2019). However, as also pointed out by the authors, these two explanations could not be disentangled using corpus-based methods (Kruger & De Sutter, 2018), since this approach, which attempts to differentiate producer- and reader-oriented explanations, does not involve the actual producers, that is, the translators. Explanatory hypotheses need to be tested by process-oriented (quasi-) experimental studies of translation production and reception.

Following Kruger (2019) and Kruger and De Sutter (2018), Van Beveren, De Sutter and Coleman (2020) also aimed to tease apart these three explanations by investigating the alternation of the complementiser *om* in translated and original Dutch. In the translated Dutch texts, the complementiser *om* was more often retained than the original Dutch texts where the implicit variant was the default. The MuPDAR procedure showed that the grammatical choices of the two variants were related to register and complexity-related factors, indicating the translators' risk avoidance strategy (in line with the findings of De Sutter & Lefer, 2019). Furthermore, after scrutinising the choice between explicit and implicit construction with the equivalent of *om*-construction in SLs (French & English), they found SL transfer effects to be one of the potential causes. The conclusion from the study of Van Beveren, De Sutter and Coleman (2020), which was different from that of Kruger and De Sutter (2018), where risk-aversion and cognitive complexity were concluded as the most likely causes for increased explicitness, suggested that risk-aversion and SL interference were the best candidates for explaining the increased explicitness in translations.

Some studies have investigated explicitation in the translation process. Process research focusing on the translating process itself and the immediate products has seen explicitation as either norm-governed or problem-governed (Englund Dimitrova, 2005; Hjort-Pedersen & Faber, 2010). Norm-governed explicitation often forms part of automatic, non-problematic processing, and shows no indicators in translators' Think-

Aloud Protocols (TAPs, Hjort-Pedersen & Faber, 2010). The norms governing the occurrence of explicitation could be SL-oriented or TL-oriented, as reflected in Toury's (2012) notion of the basic initial norm. If the translated text is primarily oriented towards the norms of the SL, the increased explicitness could be accounted for by "literal translation" (Tirkkonen-Condit, 2005, p. 407), an explanation in line with the cross-linguistic priming hypothesis. Literal translation has been found to be a default strategy to minimise cognitive effort in the translation process (Da Silva & Pagano, 2017). Using the level of metaphoricity as an operationalisation to investigate explicitation/implication, Da Silva and Pagano (2017) found at least 89% of the final renditions contained an analogous level of metaphoricity to that of the ST, among which more than 77% were made by the translators in their first renditions and remained without changes to metaphoricity. The findings were indicative of a transfer explanation for explicitness. The literal translation of an element or structure, which is obligatory in the SL while optional in the TT (e.g., pronouns in English and in Chinese), was a default processing strategy often arrived at in the first rendition.

If the translated text is primarily oriented towards the norms of the TL, the increased explicitness could be seen as traces of the translator's commission to facilitate and optimise communication between all the participants involved (Chesterman, 1997, p. 64). For instance, in Englund Dimitrova's (2005) study, not only did the textual patterns demonstrating the explicitation of implicit logical links in translations reflect the initial norm of acceptability in the Russian-Swedish translation, but the translators' verbalisations indicated their consideration of the future readers as they evaluated the acceptability and readability of the TT (Englund Dimitrova, 2005). Furthermore, the tendency of explicitation was evidenced more strongly in cases where supplemental information was needed to complement the target readers' comprehension, for instance, in the translation of legal texts (Hjort-Pedersen & Faber, 2010). Hjort-Pedersen and Faber (2010) found that the tendency of translators to explicate for their readers even



ran the risk of undesirable legal consequences. In this context, it is worth keeping in mind that this increased explicitness may be seen as co-occurring with (or even part of) another proposed feature of translated language, namely normalisation (a tendency to conform to conventions or norms in the TT, even to the extent of exaggerating them, see Baker, 1996, p. 183). The norms operating in the process of explicitation can vary as a function of experience and expertise (Englund Dimitrova, 2005). Various norms could be functioning in parallel and competing with each other, resulting in inconstant renderings of the ST, even in professional translations (Englund Dimitrova, 2005).

On the other hand, explicitation could be used as a strategy for translators to solve a problem, indicated by overt markers of mental explicitation in their TAPs (Hjort-Pedersen & Faber, 2010). While problems might relate to typological and registerial contrasts between the SL and TL, another potential problem could be related to the translator's process of understanding the ST (Steiner, 2001). The translator's understanding of the ST is seen as a process of de-metaphorisation of "grammatical metaphors" (a concept drawn from systemic functional linguistics, Steiner, 2001, p. 10). The de-metaphorisation process is assumed to

involve relating informational/ (grammatical) units to some of their less metaphorical variants, thus making many types of information which are implicit in the original explicit with the help of co-textual and contextual knowledge. At some point in that chain of demetaphorisation, then, re-wording in the target language begins, and although good translators will approximate a full semantic paraphrase (in the sense of Steiner 2001), they will often not go all the way back up the steps of grammatical metaphorization, either for contrastive typological reasons, or simply because of internal fatigue. (Steiner, 2001, p. 11)

Therefore a higher degree of explicitness in the TT could be seen as the consequence of demetaphorisation. Even though initial demetaphorisation might be replaced by re-

metaphorisation (the same degree of metaphoricity in the TT as in the ST) or metaphorisation (an increased metaphoricity level in the TT compared to the ST) at a later stage (mostly by professional translators), demetaphorisation can happen during the translation process (Da Silva, 2007; Pagano & Da Silva, 2010). Whenever and wherever demetaphorisation happens, it is highly likely to be evidenced in increased explicitness that reflects the translators' processes of understanding the ST.

Against this background, one might expect that the effort involved in the mental processing of a ST depends on the complexity or “grammatical metaphoricity level” (Da Silva & Pagano, 2017, p. 162) of the ST. As proposed by Hjørst-Pedersen and Faber, (2010), Pym (2005) and Whittaker (2004), the more an ST is complex, the more cognitive effort is needed from translators, the more mental explicitation is reflected in their TAPs, and the more explicating traces are left in their translation products. However, Da Silva and Pagano (2017) found that the grammatical metaphoricity of an ST had no impact on the translators' keystrokes. That is, translating an ST containing more implicit realisations which required explicitation did not necessarily increase the translators' cognitive effort, compared to translating less implicit counterparts (Da Silva & Pagano, 2017). These findings do not fully support the cognitive effort explanation of explicitation; however, nor do they refute it. Clearly, more experimental work is needed to investigate these complex and sometimes competing explanations.

## **2.8 Conclusion**

This chapter has reviewed explicitation in TS. It set out to conceptualise the concept of explicitation in Section 2.2. Following this, Section 2.3 discussed corpus-based studies on explicitation. Explicitation has been investigated in a wide range of languages and across various text types. Corpus-based research on the language pair of English and Chinese was reviewed in Section 2.4. When it comes to the text type of children's literature, studies have tended to be limited in number. Only a handful studies have

touched on this topic (Section 2.5), particularly in respect of children's literature translation between English and Chinese, as summarised at the end of Section 2.6. In this language pair, and this genre, large scale bidirectional comparable and parallel studies of explicitation have been rare. Section 2.7 briefly explored the potential reasons that cause explicitation to occur in translation.

As evidenced by the reviewed literature in this chapter, conjunctions have frequently been selected as indicators for explicitation, which is the focus of the present thesis. The next chapter (Chapter 3) explains why conjunctions are suitable candidates for the investigation of explicitation and how they have been used in empirical corpus studies to investigate explicitation.

## **Chapter 3 Conjunctions as indicators of explicitation**

### **3.1 Introduction**

In this chapter, the concept of conjunctions and their characteristics are discussed in Section 3.2, highlighting why conjunctions are a suitable operationalisation for the investigation of explicitation. The use of conjunctions in English and Chinese is dealt with in Section 3.3. Then, in Section 3.4, corpus-based studies of explicitation in which conjunctions are used as indicators are reviewed, before shifting the focus in Section 3.5 to translations between English and Chinese. The discussions in Sections 3.4 and 3.5 concern not only confirmation or rejection of explicitation, but also the factors that influence it. Section 3.6 concludes this chapter by summarising the topics covered and lays out the discussion in the next chapter.

### **3.2 The concept and characteristics of conjunctions**

The term “conjunctions” is also known by a few other terms, such as “conjunctive markers”, “connectives”, or “connectors”. Pander Maat and Sanders (2006) defined connectives as “one-word items or fixed combinations that express the relation between clauses, sentences, or utterances in the discourse of a particular speaker” (p. 33). Conjunctions were defined by Bussmann (1996) as a “class of words whose function is to connect words, phrases, or sentences syntactically while characterising semantic relations between those elements” (p. 94). Similarly, Lorés-Sanz (2003) considered that connectors “are one of the multiple resources every language has to express logico-semantic relationships (addition, adversativeness, causality and temporality)” (p. 292). Richards, Platt and Platt (1992) used the terms “connective” and “conjunction” interchangeably. Others have used these terms in a looser sense. For example, Fabricius-Hansen (2005) used “connectives” as an umbrella term to cover conjunctions, such as *and* and *but*, discourse particles, such as *too*, *even*, and adverbs (e.g., *therefore*,

*then*). Halverson's (2004) notion of "connectives" is open to "certain types of clauses like verbless or non-finite clauses" (Looi, 2013, p. 11). Although the differences in the conceptualisations of conjunctions have contributed to the terminological confusion, they all pointed out the general functions of connecting and denoting semantic relation. The present study aimed to approach conjunctions from their function of connecting clauses and denoting semantic relations between these clauses, expecting this approach to facilitate interlingual and intralingual comparisons. As such, Halliday and Matthiessen's (2004) SFL was chosen as a model for approaching the conjunctions. This framework has been successfully applied in an array of studies in studies on explicitation (Abdul-Fattah, 2010; Baleghizadeh & Sharifi, 2010; Hansen-Schirra et al., 2007; House, 2004; Steiner, 2008).

SFL views grammar from the perspective that functionality is intrinsic to language. Language is all about how meaning is created and expressed, in other words, about "the organisation of meaning in the grammar" (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 21). Grammar presents itself through system networks and, thus, systemic patterns of choice construe the meaning potential (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, pp. 22-23). To realise systemic choices, lexicogrammar and semantics work in cooperation to make sense of human experience. One's experience happens in a certain context, an ecological environment where individuals make sense of their experience, and a social environment where they interact with others. Human experience can be transformed into meaning (semantics), and meaning is conveyed by wording or lexicogrammar. The basic functions of language, in relation to one's ecological and social environment are twofold: it provides a theory of human experience (called the ideational metafunction), and it enacts a person's personal and social relationships with other people with whom they interact (called the interpersonal metafunction). As language is "instantiated" in the form of text, there is a third metafunction that relates to the construction of text and facilitates the above two functions, called the "textual metafunction" (Halliday &

Matthiessen, 2004, p. 30). It enables the two metafunctions (ideational and interpersonal) to “build up sequences of discourse, organising the discursive flow and creating cohesion and continuity as it moves along” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 30). The ideational metafunction of language is concerned with the construal of “our experience of the world that is around us and inside us” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 1999, p. 11), that is, the representation of processes and the logico-semantic relations between them. The ideational metafunction has two components: experiential and logical.

Logico-semantic relations are broadly grouped into two fundamental relationships: expansion and projection. Expansion relates a phenomenon to another of the same order of reality, whereas projection relates phenomena in different orders of reality, in other words, “a higher order of experience” (semiotic phenomena – what people say and think, Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 377). The two grammatical systems intersect to define the basic type of a clause complex. In projection, the secondary clause is projected through the primary clause, as being the symbolic “content” of the primary clause. The symbolic content may take the forms of either a locution or an idea depending on the semiotic phenomenon it constructs, for example, saying or thinking, whereas in expansion the secondary clause expands the primary clause via one of three ways: elaboration, extension or enhancement (see Figure 3.1).

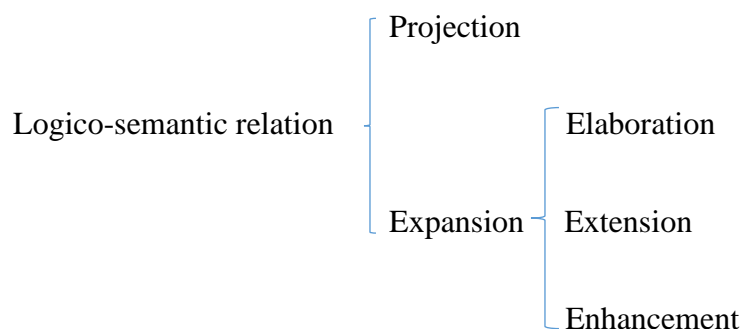


Figure 3.1: Logico-semantic relations between clauses

The system of conjunctions is “a complementary resource for creating and interpreting texts. It provides the resources for marking logico-semantic relationships that obtain between text spans of varying extent, ranging from clauses within clause complexes to long spans of a paragraph or more” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 538).

### 3.3 Conjunctions in English and Chinese

This section summarises conjunctions in English and Chinese following an SFL-based categorisation. Tables 3.1 and 3.2 present the system of conjunctions in parataxis and hypotaxis<sup>3</sup> that express elaboration, extension and enhancement in English and in Chinese, respectively. When looking at the two tables closely, one might notice that in Table 3.2, the column of “conjunctive adjunct” is missing. This is because Chinese does not differentiate adjuncts from parataxic conjunctions (Looi, 2013).

However, as can be seen from Table 3.2, Li’s (2007) work has been heavily based on that of Halliday and Matthiessen (2004). To get a more comprehensive and unbiased understanding of the Chinese conjunction system, other grammar books and dictionaries were consulted, including (现代汉语虚词词典 *xiàndài hànyǔ xūcí cídiǎn* *Modern Chinese Function Words Dictionary*, Wang, 1998; 现代汉语虚词词典 *xiàndài hànyǔ xūcí cídiǎn* *Modern Chinese Function Words Dictionary*, Zhu, 2007; 现代汉语常用虚词词典 *xiàndài hànyǔ chángyòng xūcí cídiǎn* *Modern Chinese Frequent Function Words Dictionary*, 1987; 现代汉语虚词例析 *xiàndài hànyǔ xūcí lìxī* *Modern Chinese Function Words Examples*, 1996). Among them, B. Zhang and Y. Zhang’s (2000) 现代汉语虚词 *xiàndài hànyǔ xūcí* *Modern Chinese Function Words* discusses conjunctions predominately according to their function whereas others more often than

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<sup>3</sup> According to Halliday and Matthiessen (2004), all clauses linked by logico-semantic relation are interdependent. The degree of interdependency is called “taxis”. “Hypotaxis” is the relation between a dependent element and its dominant, the element on which it is dependent, whereas “parataxis” is the relation between two like elements of equal status, one initiating and the other continuing (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, pp. 374-375).

not depart from traditional grammar and base their discussion on the parts of speech (see Wang, 1998; Zhu, 2007). Therefore, B. Zhang and Y. Zhang's (2000) framework also has been taken into consideration as a complementary reference. They formulated a comprehensive and detailed list of conjunctions in their book (see Appendix 1). Tables 3.1 and 3.2 serve as the pool of conjunctions from which the items discussed in this study were systematically selected.



Table 3.1: The system of conjunctions in English

logico-semantic relation types	subtype		meaning	cohesive	tactic (structural)			
					parataxis	hypotaxis		
					cohesive conjunction	structural conjunction: linker	structural conjunction: binder	
finite clause	non-finite clause: conjunction	Non-finite clause: preposition						
elaboration	apposition	expository	X i.e. Y	in other words, that is (to say), I mean (to say), to put it another way	i.e., viz.	4		
		exemplifying	X e.g. Y	for example, for instance, thus, to illustrate	e.g.		such as	
	clarificatio n	corrective		or rather, at least, to be more precise				
		distractive		by the way, incidentally				
		dismissive		in any case, anyway, leaving that aside				
		particularising		in particular, more especially				
		resumptive		as I was saying, to resume, to get back to the point				
		summative		in short, to sum up, in conclusion, briefly				
		verifactive		actually, as a matter of fact, in fact				
extension	addition	positive	X and Y	and, also, moreover, in addition	(both ...) and, not only ... but also	while; whereas		besides, apart from, as well as
		negative	not X and not Y	nor	(neither ...) nor	-		-
		adversative	X and conversely Y	but, yet, on the other hand, however		while; whereas		without
	variation	replacive	not X but Y	on the contrary, instead	but not, not ... but	-		instead of, rather than
		subtractive	X but not all X	apart from that, except for that	only, but, except	except that		except for, other than
		alternative	X or Y	alternatively	(either ...) or (else)	if ... not (...then)		-
enhancement		simple    following	A subsequently B	then, next, afterwards [including correlatives first ... then]	(and) then, and afterwards	after, since	since	after

<sup>4</sup> Hypotactically related elaborating clauses are “non-defining” relative clauses. Finite ones are introduced by a relative item, whereas non-finite ones are not – being unmarked conjunctively, with a non-finite verb form (v [infinitive], v-ing [present participle], v-en [past/passive participle]).

	spatio-temporal: temporal		simultaneous	A meanwhile B	just then, at the same time	(and) meanwhile, (when)	[extent] as, while	while	in (the course/ process of)
							[point] when, as soon as, the moment	when	on
							[spread] whenever, every time	-	-
			preceding	A previously B	before that, hitherto, previously	and/but + before that/first	before, until/ till	until	before
			conclusive		in the end, finally				
		complex	immediate		at once, thereupon, straightaway				
			interrupted		soon, after a while				
			repetitive		next time, on another occasion				
			specific		next day, an hour later, that morning				
			durative		meanwhile, all that time				
			terminal		until then, up to that point				
			punctiliar		at this moment				
		simple internal	following		next, secondly ('my next point is') [including correlatives first ... next]				
			simultaneous		at this point, here, now				
			preceding		hitherto, up to now				
			conclusive		lastly, last of all, finally				
	spatio-temporal: spatial	same place		C there D	there	and there	[extent] as far as		-
							[point] where	-	-
							[spread] wherever, everywhere	-	-
	manner	comparison	positive	N is like M	likewise, similarly	and + similarly, (and) so, thus	as, as if, like, the way	like	
			negative		in a different way				
		means		N is via/by means of M	thus, thereby, by such means	and + in that way, (and) thus	-	-	by (means of)
	causal-conditional	general		because P so result Q	so, then, therefore, consequently, hence, because of that, for	[cause^effect] (and) so, and + therefore			
						[effect^cause] for, (because)	because, as, since, in case,		with, through, by, at, as a result, because of, in case of

	specific	result		in consequence, as a result		seeing that, considering so that	-	to
		reason		on account of this, for that reason				
		purpose	because intention Q so action P	for that purpose, with this in view	-	in order that; so that	-	(in order/ so as) to, for (the sake of), with the aim of, for fear of
		conditional: positive	if P then Q	then, in that case, in that event, under the circumstances	(and) then, and + in that case	if, provided that, as long as	if	in the event of
		conditional: negative	if not P then Q	otherwise, if not	or else, (or) otherwise	unless	unless	but for, without
		conditional: concessive	if P then contrary to expectation Q	yet, still, though, despite this, however, even so, all the same, nevertheless	[concession^consequence] but, (and) yet, still, but + nevertheless [consequence^concession] (though)	even if, even though, although	even if, even though, although	despite, in despite of, without
	matter	positive		here, there, as to that, in that respect				
		negative		in other respects, elsewhere				

Table 3.2: The system of conjunctions in Chinese

logico-semantic relation types	subtype		meaning	parataxis	hypotaxis
elaboration	expository	positive	P i.e. Q	huàn yán zhī, huàn jù huà shuō 换言之, 换句话说	Nil
		negative	P in contrast to Q	fǎn guò lái shuō 反过来说	Nil
	exemplifying	phenomenal	P e.g. Q	bǐ fāng, hǎo bǐ, xiàng, bǐ rú, lì rú, pì rú 比方, 好比, 像, 比如, 例如, 譬如	Nil
	clarifying	specifying	P viz. Q	yě jiù shì shuō, jiù shì, jí shì, hé 也就是说, 就是, 即是, 和	Nil
		summative	Q summarises P	zǒng zhī, zǒng ér yán zhī 总之, 总(而)言之	Nil
extension	additive	positive	P and Q	bìng qiě, ér qiě, jiù, yǐ jí, zài shuō, 既...也/又, 此外...再有/还有	chú le ... (zhī wài) ... (lìng wài) hái yǒu 除了... (之外) ... (另外) 还有
			P to the extent of Q	nǎi zhì 乃至	
			P even Q	jiù shì, jiù lián, shèn ér, shèn zhì (yú) 就是, 就连, 甚而, 甚至(于)	

			not only P but also Q	岂但/不但...也/并且, 不单/不仅...而且 /并且/也/就是, 不管...还是, 不只/ 非但...并且/就是	
			not only P but even Q		慢说/别说...就是/就连
			even P then Q		也/都... (更) 何况, 尚且... 何况
		negative	not P and not Q	既非...又非	
		adversative	P but Q	但是, 而, 只是, 可是, 不过	
	varying	replacive	not P but Q	相反, 反之, 反而, 反倒	
			not even P but Q	非但不...反而/反倒	
			even P but not Q		宁可...而不, 宁可/宁肯/宁愿... (也不)
		subtractive	except P, Q		除了... (之外) ...也/都
	alternative		P or Q	还是, 或者, 或则	
			either P or Q	不是...就是	
			P or even Q	(再) 不然	
enhancement	spatial	simultaneous -extent	P as far as Q	(从) ...一直到/以致到	
		-point	P there Q	进而	当...在那里/地方
		-spread	wherever P, Q		不论...那里... (都)
	temporal	succession -later	P then Q	跟着, 此后	(在) ...以后
			P immediately follow by Q	接着	
			since P, then Q	从此	自从... (以后)
			until P, then Q		等到...以后
		-earlier	P precedes Q		在... (之) 前
		-combine	first P then Q	先...再, 最初...接着...最后/终	
		simultaneous -point/extent	when P then Q		当...的时候, 如果...的时候, ...时
		-spread	whenever P then Q		每逢... (的时候), (但) 凡... (的时候)
	manner	means	P is via/by means of Q		从, 透过, 由, 一经...就是/便
		comparison	positive	同样(的)	好像
			negative	P unlike Q	不像
	causal	reason	P so Q	所以, 因此, 因而, 以致, 故, 结果	因(为)... (所以/就/才), *所以...因为

		purpose	just because of P so Q		为其...才
			P so imply Q	可见	
			for the purpose of Q so P		为了... (甚至(于))
			action P for the purpose of Q		以(便)
			action P not for the purpose of Q		免得, 省得, 以免
	conditional	positive	if p then Q	则, (那)就	假如/假使/如(果)/要是/若(是)/设若/倘(若/或)... (的话)... (就/还/则/便)
			as long as P then Q		只要, 但凡... (就)
			whatever/no matter P then Q		无论/不论/不管/别管... (还是), 任, (任)凭
			even P then Q		万一
			if and only if P then Q		唯有/只有...才
		negative	not Q unless P		除非
			Q unless P		要...除非
			P otherwise Q	(要)不然, 不然的话, 要不, 否则	
			if not P then Q		若非...便是/则为
			if not P then not Q		若非/要不是
		concession	although P, then Q	但是, 可是, 却	虽然/虽说(是)/虽则... (但是/却/仍然/可是/ (然)而/还), 尽管... (可是/却/然而), 即(或/便/令)/就是... (也/还), 纵(然/令/使)...也, 按说...但是/不过/可是, 别看... (但是/可是), 果然...但是

### 3.4 Conjunctions and explicitation

Conjunctions function to “indicate relationships between propositions, sentences and parts of texts” and are “commonly thought to indicate relationships that are already there in the text” (Mauranen, 1993, pp. 159-163). This seems to mean that, as Lorés-Sanz (2003) interpreted, “they are not an essential part of the discourse as they do not add any propositional information to it; the kind of information they provide is already retrievable by the read of the text” (p. 293). By explicitly stating the relationships between propositions, writers on the one hand provide easier and more readable texts, thus saving readers from working out the logical relationships; on the other hand, the use of conjunctions may enable writers to manipulate readers’ interpretations of a text to see things “as the writer does, or as the writer wants them to see things” (Mauranen, 1993, p. 163).

A similar point is made by Fabricius-Hansen (2005) who describes the “optionality” of connectives in relation to the coherence of the discourse:

The connective, then, makes the discourse relations (in a broad sense) between ‘S and S and the information structure of the discourse more explicit by expressing overtly what might be inferred or implicated anyway; that is, what is already implicitly “there,” at least potentially; and by filtering out certain possibilities, it makes the discourse more informative or precise, thus guiding the reader or hearer towards the interpretation intended by the author or speaker. (Fabricius-Hansen, 2005, p. 18)

Conjunctions have been frequently used as a linguistic indicator of explicitation in corpus-based studies of translation. Table 3.3<sup>5</sup> presents a summary sample of studies that investigate conjunctive explicitation/explicitness.

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<sup>5</sup> This table does not cover all the studies on this topic. It merely aims to provide a general depiction of relevant studies that have been conducted over time, across languages and text types.

Table 3.3: Studies investigating explicitation phenomena using conjunctions

Study	SL	TL	Genre	Corpus
Chen (2004, 2006)	English	Traditional Chinese /	Popular science & information technology	Comparable & parallel
Becher (2011a,b)	English	German	Business	Parallel
Marco (2018)	English	Catalan	Literary	Comparable & parallel
Alasmri & Kruger (2018)	English	Arabic	Creative fictional narratives & legal	Comparable
Mauranen (2000)	English/non-English	Finnish	Academic prose & popular non-fiction	Comparable & bidirectional parallel
Puurtinen (2004)	English	Finnish	Children's literature	Comparable corpus
Abdul-Fattah (2010)	English	Arabic	Literary	Comparable & parallel
Baleghizadeh & Sharifi (2010)	Persian	English	Poems & stories	Parallel
Denturck (2012, 2014)	French/Dutch	Dutch/French	Novels	Bidirectional parallel
Øverås (1998)	Norwegian/English	English/Norwegian	Literary	Bidirectional parallel
Looi (2013)	English	Chinese	Institutional texts	Parallel & comparable
Pápai (2004)	English	Hungarian	Literary & non-literary	Comparable & parallel
Zufferey & Cartoni (2014)	English/English, German, Italian and Spanish	French/English	Political documents	Europarl

Conjunctions are a popular operationalisation for explicitation studies mostly because of their optionality in many languages; as Becher (2011a) noted, they are “regularly added or omitted by translators” (p. 30; also see Marco, 2018; Zufferey & Cartoni, 2014). The optional use of conjunctions thus reflects the translators’ choice. The use of conjunctions is considered to indicate explicitation because the semantic relations they convey could be left implicit or expressed by other lexical or syntactic means. Research has evolved from testing the explicitation hypothesis (or the asymmetry hypothesis), thus answering the question of *whether* explicitation exists, to exploring the questions of *when* and *why* explicitation happens and to investigating *who* would typically explicitate in translation.

Denturck (2012) investigated the tension between explicitation and implicitation in the language pair French and Dutch with the focus on causal conjunctions. The bidirectional parallel corpus used consisted of French and Dutch novel extracts along with their translations. In each language, four frequent and unambiguous causal connectives were selected. Explicitness/implicitness was measured at the lexicogrammatical level with the presence of connectives as the most explicit way of expressing causality. This study used a thorough method in identifying explicitation and implicitation. All the selected connectives were first concordanced in the STs and then their translation in the TTs were checked to see if any implicitation was involved; in order to find explicitation, the TTs acted as a commencement point, where the instances containing the chosen conjunctions were extracted and then compared to the STs to see if they corresponded to the SL conjunctions or had been rendered more explicit/implicit than the original. The study found that implicitation occurred significantly more frequently in the Dutch-French translations than in the reversed direction (22.5% and 16.8%, respectively) while the French-Dutch translations clearly demonstrated the tendency for explicitation. In terms of the portions of explicitation and implicitation in these two translation directions, the asymmetry was only found in the French-Dutch translations and not in the Dutch-French translation. In the French-Dutch corpus, explicitation (33.5%) largely outnumbered implicitation (16.8%). Furthermore, the implicitation in the French-Dutch (16.8%) was more frequent than explicitation in the Dutch-French (12.6%). Since causal conjunctions are more frequently used in Dutch than in French, Denturck (2012) ascribed the differences to the translators' intentions to adapt to the stylistic norms of the TL. Therefore, the results of this study contradict the asymmetry hypothesis but confirm Toury's (2012) law of standardisation. Clearly, language pairs and translation direction might have played a role in the realisation of explicitation.

Becher' (2011) study also departed from testing the asymmetry hypothesis; however, it found supporting evidence in that explicitation in one translation direction (either from English to German or from German to English) was not counterbalanced by implicitation in the reversed translation direction (namely, from German to English and English to German). Becher (2011b) explained that the tendency for translations to be more explicit than their STs was likely due to the translators' conscious or subconscious compensatory strategies to minimise the cultural distance between the SL author and TL reader (House, 1997) as well as their risk-aversion, or their use of strategies to avoid communication failure (Pym, 2005). Therefore, explicitation was not translation-specific, but was common to communicative situations in which cultural



distance and communicative risks were involved (Becher, 2010). More specifically, Becher (2011b, p. 170) identified five triggers that could account for the addition/omission of connectives. Translators add and omit connectives to:

1. comply with the communicative norms of the target language community
2. exploit specific features of the target language system
3. deal with specific restrictions of the target language system
4. avoid stylistically marked ways of expression
5. optimise the cohesion of the target text.

Furthermore, Becher (2011b) also found that there was a language factor influencing explicitation in that the connectives in German TTs were added more frequently and omitted less frequently compared to that in the English translated texts (additions: 114 vs. 48; omissions: 32 vs. 51).

Following the same line of explanation, Baleghizadeh and Sharifi (2010) found that structural and stylistic differences between the languages and the translators' efforts to create an acceptable TT by adding cohesive ties were potential reasons for intersentential and intrasentential explicitation of implicit logical links in English-Persian translations.

Inspired by Denturck's work (2012) and also focusing on causal conjunctions, Zufferey and Cartoni (2014) conducted a multifactorial analysis to assess the factors that may cause optional explicitation to occur in translated texts using subcorpora from the Europarl corpus. Four potential causes systematically investigated were the role of SL, the role of TL, the role of specific connectives, and the role of discourse relations they conveyed. The role of SL was tested in a subcorpus of French originals and translated French from English, German, Italian and Spanish. The hypothesis that translated texts consistently used more connectives than non-translated texts was rejected as only one connective (*étant donné que*) was systematically more frequent in translations than in the originals across all SLs while others showed more variation across SLs, suggesting influence from the SL. The second factor was assessed by comparing the occurrence of French connectives in translated French and English connectives (the closest translation equivalents of the French connectives) in translated English from the same SLs (except that English and French were the SL and TL in turn). When English was the TL, the overall frequency of all English connectives was significantly higher in the translated English than in the non-translations. However, the observed differences in explicitation of causal

connectives among SLs and between TLs was non-significant, that is, SL and TL did not influence explicitation. Specific connectives were strongly associated with explicitation, as some were more favoured in translations and thus resulted in explicitation while others were less preferred in the translations. These differences were found in the functions of causal connectives, that is, whether they expressing the subjectivity/objectivity of the relation, and the information status of the cause segment. The more frequently used connectives shared similar semantic properties across two TLs. As the authors argued, they seemed to be subjective connectives denoting a given cause as being part of the common ground between the interlocutors. The authors explained that connectives were added to signal the cause as being part of the common ground in order to “reinforce the argumentative stance of the source text by marking causal links as obvious and therefore indisputable” (Zufferey & Cartoni, 2014, pp. 379-380). This is because if not signalled by a connective, the readers from the TL and target culture may fail to perceive the obviousness of the causal relation, an explanation in line with Becher (2011b). A second explanation concerns the ease of inferring subjective relations. As the authors assumed, since these conjunctions denote common ground, they may be less explicit compared to other types of causal relations in the original texts, thus leaving more liberty for explicitation in the translations.

Furthermore, the pattern of a connective in relation to explicitation was closely related to the alternative lexical choices available in the TL. For the role of discourse relations, this study zoomed in on one particular French connective *en effet* (expressing causality) and in the English-French translation. *en effet* typically bears two discourse relations: justification and confirmation. The relation of justification occurs as a stronger trigger for explicitation and is often associated with a subjective relation. Therefore, explicitation is highly dependent on the discourse relation that a connective represents. Englund Dimitrova (2005) also found that the semantic relation played a role in explicitation of implicit logical links, that is, the tendency to explicate was weaker in the cases of causal and temporal than in additive and contrastive relations.

Marco (2018) was also interested in how the semantic relation expressed by connectives affected the occurrence of explicitation (if there was) in English-Catalan literary translations. Fifteen frequent connectives belonging to the two semantic relations of result/consequence and contrast/concession were searched in the comparable Catalan original and English-Catalan parallel corpus. Increased explicitness was not found in the translations in contrast to the non-

translations in Catalan. However, the two categories under scrutiny behaved differently in terms of their occurrence, with only result/consequence connectives occurring significantly more frequently in the translations. Parallel concordance analysis showed that explicitation accounted for 17.02% of the occurrence of consequence connectives but only 6.5% in the case of contrast connectives. The rest were triggered by SL interference. Following the quantitative comparisons, qualitative analysis was conducted to better understand the differences observed. It revealed that in line with Zufferey and Cartoni (2014), explicitation was strongly related to the semantic relation conveyed by the connectives and the prominence of the procedural function of the connective.

Rigorous analysis was carried out in identifying explicitation instances in Marco's (2018) study. For example, by applying the notion of a mirror image<sup>6</sup>, a range of translation solutions of a ST connective was established. This avoided the potential of an inflated count of explicitations that were translation equivalents. However, unlike bidirectional parallel studies reviewed so far (see Denturck, 2012), this study started from TTs only and thus could not detect implicitation. A balanced study which included English connectives, counterparts to the Catalan connectives investigated, may cast more light on the balancing of explicitation and implicitation as well as the asymmetry hypothesis.

Another factor that may account for explicitation is text type. Alasmri and Kruger (2018) investigated the 20 most frequent conjunctive markers in Arabic translated from English across creative narrative texts and legal texts. They found overall conjunctions were more markedly used in narrative fictional texts than legal texts, regardless of their translation status of either translations or non-translations. However, explicitation was only visible for one conjunction (ﻻ *lakin* 'but') in the register of fictional narrative. In this case, the conjunction occurred more frequently in translated Arabic texts than in original Arabic texts. Unexpectedly, the combined frequency of the 20 conjunctions was higher in the originals than in the translated texts, rejecting the hypothesised increased explicitness in translations. The differences in the conjunction systems of Arabic and English, and English stylistic preferences (for the use of less conjunctive language) influenced the Arabic translations, which reduced the frequency of conjunctions in Arabic translations (Alasmri and Kruger, 2018, p. 782).

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<sup>6</sup> The concept of a "mirror image" is used interchangeably with the "translation paradigm" in Marco's (2018) study, referring to a method of identifying the set of translation equivalents. It aims to determine "a set of lexical correspondences of the source item in the target language" (see more definition in Marco, 2018, p. 97).

Explicitation could be associated with the translators' experience, as investigated in Englund Dimitrova (2005). The explicitation of contrastive relations with an adversative connective was found to be influenced by the amount of experience. The professional translators tended to explicate implicit links by using adversative connectives where a contrastive relation was involved between the two sentences. However, Redelinghuys and Kruger (2015) did not find significant differences in the use of conjunctive markers between translations produced by expert translators, naïve translators and comparable non-translations. Moreover, there was no categorical differences in their frequency between the three subcorpora. Therefore, the translators' expertise was not likely to be at play in this dataset.

### **3.5 Corpus-based studies of conjunctive explicitation in English-Chinese translations**

In studies of translated Chinese, Chen (2004, 2006), Xiao and Yue (2009), Xiao, He and Yue (2010) and Xiao and Hu (2015) have used conjunctions to test explicitation in popular science texts, literary texts and in general Chinese. All of them found that connectives were significantly more common in the translations than in the originals. However, subtle differences in these findings require attention. In a pilot study and his PhD dissertation, Chen (2004, 2006) investigated connectives, including conjunctions and sentential adverbials, in translated Chinese texts published in mainland China and in Taiwan compared to non-translated Chinese and their source English texts in the text type of popular science writing. A comparison was first conducted between the translations and the non-translations in Chinese. Conjunctions were significantly more common in the translated texts compared to the texts originally written in Chinese across the two translation versions. Chen (2006) also found that some connectives, which were called "translationally distinctive connectives" (TDCs), were particularly more frequent in the translations. Furthermore, Chen (2006) compared the TDCs in the translations with their SLs using the English-Chinese parallel corpus to assess the extent to which explicitations identified in the translations from English to Chinese were driven by the STs. It showed that 75% of the occurrences of conjunctions were translated from STs whereas 25% were added in the translation process. The study thus concluded that the translated Chinese popular science texts tended to demonstrate a greater level of conjunctive explicitness compared to both the STs and the comparable non-translated Chinese texts (Chen, 2006). In line with the work done by Chen (2006), Xiao and Yue (2009) found that frequent conjunctions were used far more often in translated Chinese fiction than in original fiction. While there were 10 connectives whose frequencies were higher than 0.05% in the corpus of

translated Chinese fiction, there was only one such item in the corpus of native Chinese fiction. Moreover, as the most frequent item in both the translated and non-translated subcorpora, the conjunction 和 *hé* ‘and’ was used more than seven times more frequently in the translations than in the originals. Xiao and Yue (2009) also found a wider range of frequent conjunctions (frequency more than 0.001%, measured by their proportion of the total number of tokens in their respective corpus) were used in the translated Chinese literary texts. For instance, the total number of conjunction types used in the translations was 112, compared to 64 in the originals. Intending to expand the work of Chen (2006) and Xiao and Yue (2009) from specific genres, namely, popular science writing and fictional writing in Mandarin Chinese to general literature, Xiao, He and Yue (2010) and Xiao and Hu (2015) conducted a genre-based comparison using the ZJU Corpus of Translational Chinese and the Lancaster Corpus of Mandarin Chinese. They found that, in line with Xiao and Yue (2009), imaginative writing generally tended to use more connectives in translation. However, the patterns in expository writing were not so homogeneous. While in reports, official documents and press reportage, more connectives were used in translations than in native Chinese, in popular lore and academic prose the normalised frequency of connectives was observably greater in the non-translations than in the translations. After comparing the frequency of connectives in different usage bands, they found that within the high-frequency bands (with a proportion greater than 0.01%, 0.05%, and 0.1%), more types of connectives were used in translations. Furthermore, they also found that frequent connectives used in the translational corpus demonstrated more variability (Xiao, He and Yue, 2010), which confirmed the findings by Xiao and Yue (2009). This logical explicitation at the discourse level was believed to have enhanced cohesion as it explicated logical relationships between clauses with the help of the frequent use of conjunctions (Xiao & Hu, 2015).

While the studies mentioned above all focused on explicitation, they barely evaluated the balance between explicitation and implicitation, nor eliminated the impact of the SL. Without such evaluation it would be risky to claim any confirmation of explicitation since the increased use of conjunctions identified in the translations could potentially have involved cross-linguistic explicitation that was due to SL interference, especially when considering that conjunctions are typically more commonly used in English, as evident from Chen’s (2006) study (see further in Becher, 2011b). A case in point is Jing and Tao’s (2017) study who found intra-lingual implicitation of discourse markers in Russian-to-Chinese translations of academic texts for the humanities and social sciences. The ST discourse markers which did not have equivalents in the TT (Chinese) were frequently omitted. This provides clearly contradictory

evidence for explicitation. Therefore, in order to gain a more unbiased understanding of explicitation and implicitation, a more comprehensive corpus design is needed. Aware of this, Looi (2013) presented a parallel and comparable corpus study investigating shifts of conjunctions in institutional texts. The one million word parallel and comparable corpus in use consisted of English STs, translated Chinese TTs and non-translated texts in Chinese. Her comparable corpus analysis found that the use of conjunctions showed genre differences in that the most common conjunctions in the institutional texts were different from those in a corpus with mixed genres. The overall use of conjunctions, the top five conjunctions and the 21 most common conjunctions as well as other matrices investigated all had higher frequencies in the translated texts than in the non-translations. This could be taken as strong evidence of T-explicitation, which meant that translations were more “closely-knitted” via the frequent use of conjunctions (p. 225), echoing previous findings in this language pair (Chen, 2004, 2006; Xiao, He & Yue, 2010; Xiao & Hu, 2015). The translations tended to use more varied conjunctions more repeatedly and more distinctly. Looi’s (2013) parallel corpus analysis examined “pure explicitation”, “pure implicitation” and a “shift into” and “shift-out of” conjunctions (pp. 144, 169). She found that in the Chinese translations of English institutional texts, a substantial number of conjunctions had gone through lexical, structural and semantic changes. For example, a conjunction in the ST may have been translated into a preposition in the TT, and some double conjunctions (two conjunctions are used side-by-side) in the ST were shifted into single conjunctions. A combined investigation of Chinese translations with non-translated texts in Chinese and English found that there was T-explicitation and S-explicitation, and they overrode T-implication and S-implication<sup>7</sup>, supporting the views of Blum-Kulka (1986) and Baker (1993). The reasons behind these differences could be ascribed to not only SL influence and TL conventions but also the translators’ interpretations of the text. The study also explored the effects of T-changes.<sup>8</sup> Generally, these changes made the TTs more formal, official and serious. However, these changes may have been too subtle to be noticed by native readers (Looi, 2013, p. 238).

Also using a parallel corpus of English STs and Chinese TTs and a comparable corpus of Chinese TTs and Chinese non-translated texts, Wang and Qin (2010) investigated conjunctions

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<sup>7</sup> The use of “T-explicitation/implication” and “S-explicitation/implication” follows Chesterman (2004). While “T-explicitation/implication” is based on the comparison between translations and non-translations in the same language, “S-explicitation/implication” is based on the comparison between translated texts and source texts.

<sup>8</sup> “T-change” denotes differences in the TT from the non-translated text. Other related terms are T-explicitation and T-implication (see Looi, 2013, p. 49).

along with other function words. They found that the use of conjunctions was more common in translated Chinese than in the original Chinese but less than that in the English original STs. Comparing translated Chinese texts with original Chinese texts, 16 conjunctions were more frequently found in translations while there were only nine conjunctions associated with a higher frequency in the originals. They concluded that translational Chinese was more explicit than the original Chinese, but more implicit than the English STs. Based on the findings, they suggested the co-existence of explicitation and implicitation. However, their conclusion seems rather imprudent because they did not compare the ratio between explicitation and implicitation. It is highly likely that there was explicitation and implicitation in the translations in every language pair. What is interesting in the study of explicitation is to see how explicitation and implicitation interact in overall decision-making processes.

Taking a quite different approach from the above by conducting a case study of a particular English contrastive connector, *however*, in bidirectional parallel corpora of Chinese-English and English-Chinese classic literary texts, Wang (2010) aimed to investigate the source of the contrastive Chinese connectors of *however* in translated English, and how this English contrastive connector *however* was translated into Chinese. In the English-Chinese subcorpus, 96% of the time *however* was translated into Chinese contrastive connectors, such as 然而 *ránér*, 不过 *búguò* and other strong contrastive connectors, while in only 3.96% of the cases, the translation of *however* was implicitated. In contrast, in the Chinese-English subcorpus, 75% of cases of *however* corresponded to an implicit counterpart in Chinese. This study concluded that *however* was “more explicitly translated in English-to-Chinese translation than in the Chinese original” (Wang, 2010 p. 20). Therefore, the translating process produced more explicit target texts than the originals.

It is evident that there has been substantial support for the explicitation hypothesis and increased conjunctive explicitness. However, despite the research on explicitation in English-Chinese and Chinese-English translations and some studies on translated Chinese children’s literature, comprehensive and systematic investigations of explicitation in children’s literature translation between English and Chinese have remained limited. This is the limitation the current study aimed to address. Based on the above, the following three main research questions (RQ), with sub-questions, informed this study:

### **Research Question 1**

- a. Does Chinese children's literature translated from English, as well as English children's literature translated from Chinese demonstrate evidence of increased explicitness, in relation to non-translated texts in the same language, thus providing evidence for the feature of increased explicitness inherent to the translation process?
- b. Alternatively, is there evidence that increased explicitness takes place in only one translation direction, thus providing evidence for source-language influence as the main driving force for increased explicitness?

### **Research Question 2**

- a. Does Chinese children's literature translated from English, as well as English children's literature translated from Chinese demonstrate evidence of explicitation in relation to their source texts, thus providing evidence for the translation-inherent explicitation, thus confirming the asymmetry hypothesis?
- b. Alternatively, is there evidence that explicitation takes place in only one translation direction, thus providing evidence for language-specific and direction-specific explicitation, denying the asymmetry hypothesis?

### **Research Question 3**

- a. If the asymmetry hypothesis holds, what are the potential reasons causing the asymmetric pattern?
- b. More specifically, what are the triggers that motivate the more frequent use of explicitation than implicitation in translation?

## **3.6 Conclusion**

This chapter provided the background to the use of conjunctions as operationalisation in the search for explicitation. The aim of the chapter was to identify the current research gap and to provide a rationale for the current thesis. Based on the review of the relevant research, three research questions were formulated. In the next chapter, the methodology adopted in this study is discussed in more detail. It provides information about the corpus design, operationalisation of explicitation, and data collection and analysis.





## **Chapter 4 Methodology**

### **4.1 Introduction**

To answer the research questions set out in Chapter 3, corpus-linguistic methods were used to comprehensively investigate the occurrence of the hypothesised increased explicitness of translated language, specifically focusing on children's literature translations between English and Chinese, and exploit qualitative methods to explore the potential tendencies that could trigger the more explicit/implicit use of conjunctions. Section 4.2, therefore, opens the chapter with an overview of the methodologies that were used in this study. The corpus-based study is outlined in more detail in Sections 4.3 to 4.6. The corpus design is described in Section 4.3, including the corpus composition, compilation and processing (Sections 4.3.1 to 4.3.3); the choice of conjunctions as indicators of cohesive explicitness (Section 4.4), and the methods used for data collection and analysis (Sections 4.5 and 4.6, respectively) are subsequently discussed. Section 4.5 focuses on the corpus analysis software used in this study (Section 4.5.1) and the methods used for the extraction and analysis of conjunctions in each subcorpus (Section 4.5.2) while Section 4.6 discusses the quantitative and qualitative analysis of the comparable and parallel corpus data.

### **4.2 Overview of methods**

This product-oriented study used comparable corpus methods to answer, in the first instance, the question of whether Chinese children's literature texts translated from English, as well as English children's literature texts translated from Chinese, demonstrated evidence of increased explicitness in relation to non-translated texts in the same language, thus providing evidence for translation-inherent increased explicitness as a feature of translated language (RQ 1). Translated texts in Chinese and English were compared with non-translated texts in the TL in terms of cohesive explicitness. The purpose was to determine whether the translated texts demonstrated a higher level of textual cohesion in both language directions in comparison to the comparable non-translations. Cohesive explicitness was measured using the frequently investigated operationalisation of conjunctions. Based on Baker's (1996) proposal of increased explicitness as a recurrent feature of translated language, it was hypothesised that the translated Chinese and translated English would demonstrate increased explicitness to different degrees.

Following the comparable corpus analysis, parallel corpus analysis was carried out to answer the second research question of whether translated texts in both English and Chinese were more explicit than their STs (RQ 2). Translated texts were compared to their STs to identify the instances of explicitation and implicaiton. The aim of this bidirectional comparison was to determine whether explicitation occurred in translations to and from both languages. If explicitation happened in one direction, but corresponding implicitation did not happen in the reverse direction, it would provide evidence of the existence of asymmetrical explicitation as a universal feature of the translated language inherent in the translation process, and not resulting from language-specific factors. Alternatively, if explicitation occurred in the translated Chinese from English (or vice versa) and correspondingly implicitation occurred in the opposite translation direction, this was considered evidence of language-specific rather than translation-inherent explicitation. However, as evident in previous studies (Zhang et al., 2020; also see Chapter 2), the explicitation in translations might be a hybrid consequence of SL interference and the effects of the translation process, within which SL interference may be more dominant. To explore this complex situation, quantitative as well as qualitative analysis were used in the analysis of the corpus data.

If there was indeed evidence of increased explicitness in the form of the asymmetry hypothesis in the translated texts, the following question arose: What were the potential reasons for the asymmetric pattern? In other words, what were the triggers for the more frequent occurrences of explicitation than implicitation in translation? To answer this research question (RQ 3), a detailed qualitative analysis was conducted.

#### **4.3 Corpus design: An English-Chinese bidirectional parallel and comparable corpus**

This study makes use of an English-Chinese bidirectional parallel and comparable corpus containing translations and source texts in both translation directions (see Table 4.1).

Table 4.1: Corpus design

Chinese		English
Chinese target texts	parallel corpus ←	English source texts
comparable corpus ↑ ↓		comparable corpus ↑ ↓
Chinese source texts	parallel corpus →	English target texts

This corpus design thus included subcorpora in a configuration that allowed for multiple comparisons:

- The monolingual comparable Chinese corpus of translated and non-translated texts allowed for comparisons of the degree of explicitness in translated versus non-translated Chinese.
- The monolingual comparable English corpus of translated and non-translated texts allowed for comparisons of the degree of explicitness in translated versus non-translated English.
- The parallel corpus of Chinese translations and their English originals allowed for the investigation of whether explicitation occurred in the English-Chinese translation direction.
- The parallel corpus of English translations and their Chinese originals allowed for the investigation of whether explicitation occurred in the Chinese-English translation direction.

The monolingual comparable corpus analysis allowed the comparison between translations and non-translations in the same language, thus testing the hypothesised increased explicitness in translated language. That is to say, if the increased explicitness was found in both corpora, then it would provide supportive evidence for this claim. However, if there was no increased explicitness to be found, then the hypothesis that increased explicitness is a feature of translated

language inherent to the translation process would be rejected. Furthermore, if the translated languages demonstrated increased explicitness to different degrees, then there may have been other linguistic or cultural factors conditioning the manifestation of the increased explicitness in translated texts.

The use of this parallel corpus design enabled the study to determine the extent to which explicitation was inherent in the translation process, or whether it occurred as a consequence of language-specific impact. For instance, if explicitation occurred in the translated Chinese from English (or vice versa) and correspondingly implicitation occurred in the opposite translation (from Chinese to English) direction, this was categorised as language-specific rather than translation-inherent explicitation. On the other hand, if explicitation happened in both translation directions (English-Chinese and Chinese-English), then this indicated explicitation could be inherent in the translation production process.

#### **4.3.1 Corpus composition: Subcorpora**

The English-Chinese bidirectional parallel and comparable corpus is composed of four subcorpora: a comparable corpus of translated and non-translated Chinese and English children's books, and a parallel corpus of both English-Chinese and Chinese-English children's books.

The comparable corpus of translated and non-translated Chinese children's books is composed of a subcorpus of translated Chinese children's books (TCCB) and a subcorpus of original non-translated Chinese children's books (NCCB). Similarly, the comparable corpus of translated and non-translated English children's books is made up of a subcorpus of translated English children's books (TECB) and a subcorpus of non-translated English children's books (NECB).

The originally written English children's books, namely the NECB, aligned with their Chinese translations (TCCB) form the parallel corpus of English-Chinese children's books while the parallel corpus of Chinese-English children's books was obtained by aligning native Chinese children's books (NCCB) with their English translations (TECB).

#### **4.3.2 Corpus compilation: Text collection**

The corpus compilation process started with the collection of children's books translated into Chinese from English. Several considerations and criteria were used for the text collection.

## **Text availability and time constraints**

Both electronic and non-electronic books were included in the text collection, but due to time constraints, resources available on the internet were prioritised. These texts were already available in electronic format and could be easily converted to plain-text files, thus saving the corpus compiler the effort of scanning and converting books into editable texts using optical character recognition (OCR) software, which was a time-consuming, laborious and error-prone process. Most of the books were sourced from the internet and stored in text file format. However, these digitised files required proofreading and manual correction to ensure accuracy.

For other books without available digitised texts, either paper books or e-books were purchased and then these books were scanned and converted into a machine-readable format (a text file) using the OCR module CamScanner (INTSIG, 2018). CamScanner (INTSIG, 2018) is a smartphone application that features accurate and fast extraction of texts from images. All the electronic text files were then proofread and manually edited to ensure accurate reflections of the original texts.

## **Full texts**

Full texts, instead of sampled text extracts, were used in constructing the corpus. This was because of the risks in the use of text extracts of violating the integrity principle of the data and it was unsafe to assume that the sampled text was representative of the whole book. Based on Biber's (1993, p. 249) observation of the distributions of linguistic features, Saldanha and O'Brien (2013) summarised that:

few linguistic features of a text are evenly distributed throughout the text. Frequency counts for common linguistic features are relatively stable across small samples (1,000 to 5,000 words), while frequency counts for rare features are less stable and require longer text samples to be reliably represented. (p. 74)

As conjunctions are of mid-frequency range, larger text samples were needed. Moreover, the inclusion of full texts also had the advantage of making the corpora more useful for future studies, or, as Sinclair (1991) put it, "open to a wider range of linguistic studies than a collection of short samples" (p. 19).

## **Representativeness**

It could be said that translation has been intrinsically linked to children's literature from its early beginning (Alvstad, 2018). For example, the earliest children's books in English were dominated by translations (Lathey, 2010). In terms of children's literature in China, translations have occupied a significant position even in the contemporary era.

Partially because of the fact that China has a large population of child readers (more than 370 million) and partly because of the rise in the middle class population, who spends their disposable income on education and entertainment, children's books made up 26.53% of China's total book retail market in 2020 (Tan, 2020). Furthermore, the book market in China has witnessed an ongoing prosperity of translated Chinese children's books since the late 1990s, during which the scale of translations has grown and the content has diversified (Chen, 2015). Within the decade of 1995 to 2004, the number of translated children's books increased at an annual rate of 25%, from 1,664 to 10,040 (Gao, 2019). Many of these imported books were translations. While these imported books accounted for only 2.29% of the total number of the children's literary works in China in 1995, this percentage significantly climbed to 20.5% in 2004 (Gao, 2019, p. 12). This increase in the scale of imported children's books was even more notable for the following decade (2005-2015). According to the China Publishers Yearbook, the number of the imported children's books increased from 39,120,000 to 487,480,000 between 2005 and 2015 (Gao, 2019, p. 12).

In terms of the books that have been chosen to be translated into Chinese, classics and award-winning works have been particularly popular. For example, from 2000-2015, more than 90 translated Chinese children's books were translations of Newbery Medal winners and among them, more than 40 books have been reprinted (Chen, 2015). Translations done by experienced translators have been more welcomed in the market. A reason for this popularity of translated children's books from famous translators is that, as observed by several scholars (Chen, 2015; Sun & Shi, 2012), the primary concern in the children's book translation market in China has been the translation quality. This concern has been shared by educators and parents, as revealed from their comments about the unsatisfactory quality of translated books on the websites of online bookstores in China (Gao, 2019). Sun and Shi (2012) explained that this has been largely due to publishers who choose to use less professional translators to reduce production costs.

In contrast to the prosperous market for translated books in China, the notorious reputation of the Anglophone world for being unreceptive to fiction in translation has accounted for the relative paucity of children's book translations in English (Lathey, 2020; Parkinson, 2013). In

the UK, the resistance to translated children's literature since Mrs. Trimmer's (1803) warning against French literature has continued to influence the publication of translated English books, causing "a striking imbalance between the numbers of children's books translated from English into other languages and those translated into English" (Lathey, 2020, p. 42). English has been in a central position as the SL for the translations published worldwide in the hierarchical systems proposed by Heilbron (2010) that govern the world's translation flows. Furthermore, while English has been the most translated language, it has been one of the least translated into (Venuti, 1998). This cultural hegemony and the dominance of English has been well reflected in the percentage of translated books in the overall children's book markets in English-speaking countries. For example, in the UK and Ireland, only 3% of all publications of children's books were translated books in 2000, 2005 and 2008 (Donahaye, 2012). Lathey (2020) has posited explanations for the limited number of translated English books from other languages in the UK market. As the consequence of a strong tradition of English language children's literature and its dominance on the international stage, the British market has been saturated by English children's literature, squeezing the space left for imported books. English as a lingua franca has discouraged young readers to learn new languages, which in turn has caused them to be less interested in European or other literature (Lathey, 2020). Other commercial reasons from publishers, such as small sales and the high cost of production also have contributed to the small number of children's books that have been translated into English in the UK (Lathey, 2020).

Similarly, in the US, less than 2% of children's books on the market have been translations (O'Sullivan, 2005, p. 71). American publishers have held the opinion that "books in translation do not sell" and that "with all the good books are already written in English, there is no need to translate more" (Abós, 2016, p. 40).

As for the translation of Chinese children's books into English, the impetus usually has not been driven by the market, but by a diplomatic strategy from the Chinese government to disseminate Chinese culture. Following the "going global" strategy, the Chinese government inaugurated the China Book International Programme in 2004 to offer grants to promote the publication of Chinese books (CBI, 2021). The state-owned publishing houses have selected and produced a series of translated English children's books. The selection of these books has focused on popular fiction written by famous writers, such as Cao Wenxuan and Shen Shixi (Sun, 2020).



Xiu (2020) investigated the translation, publication and dissemination of contemporary Chinese children's books between 2000 and 2019. By searching Paper Republic (Chinese literature in translation, <https://paper-republic.org/>), Index Translationum (World Bibliography of Translation) and mainstream online bookstores in America and Britain (Amazon, Barnes & Noble, Baker & Taylor, and Book Depository), she found that 24 contemporary Chinese children's books were translated into English and disseminated abroad, most of which were famous works from well-known writers, including *Bronze and Sunflower*, *Mo's Mischief* and *Jackal and Wolf* (Xiu, 2020). However, even though most of them were popular children's books in China, they were not welcomed in the Western market (Xiu, 2020, p. 89; Zhang, 2020, p. 22). For example, Xiu's (2020) investigation of the reception of translated children's books in English-speaking countries through the customer reviews from Amazon (one of the biggest online bookstores) and community reviews from Goodreads (the world's largest site for readers and book recommendations) showed that more than half of the translated children's books from Chinese did not receive any comments or reviews with significantly fewer from child readers as most of these existing comments came from adult readers, reflecting a poor reception by target child readers (Xiu, 2020, p. 91).

The compilation of the corpus in the present study reflected the reality of translated books in Chinese and English. The books included in the subcorpus of translated and non-translated Chinese children's literature targeted child readers aged 11-14 years in mainland China. The rationale for choosing books targeting slightly older children was that books for older children rely less heavily on visual materials that form a part of the text. Thus, pictures and illustrations can be removed without causing a significant loss of meaning. Therefore, the corpora used in this study included written texts only. These books were suggested as suitable reading material for 11-14 year-old children according to the age-based categories presented by the online bookstores ([dangdang.com](http://dangdang.com); [jingdong.com](http://jingdong.com)).

Only bestsellers in bookshops both online and in store were included during the text collection. When searching the available translated Chinese children's books, it was noticed that some books had been retranslated and reprinted. These books were widely accepted as classics and bestsellers, and thus were included in the corpus to mirror this reality.

The selection of translated English books was constrained by the limited number of translated English children's books (24 books). Among the available choices, those suitable for older children were selected. However, since this information was not introduced by the publishers

of the book (which was not surprising considering that these translated books were not target-reader-oriented), the selection inevitably involved subjectivity as the criteria were based on the quantity of illustrations included in the books and their importance in meaning-making in the context.

## **Comparability**

The TCCB included 20 translated books in full texts, mostly republished during the period 2000-2018, amounting to 1,212,688 words<sup>9</sup> in total, with word counts varying from 22,254 to 122,694 in each text. To match the TCCB in terms of size and time span, the comparable NCCB contained 22 full books, reprinted in the same period, amounting to 1,282,087 words. Word counts of these books ranged from 24,474 to 168,857. It was important to note that in the selection of original Chinese texts, a priority was placed on books that had been translated into English for the sake of the construction of the English translation corpus of Chinese originals.

For the subcorpora of translated English children's books from Chinese (TECB) and their comparable non-translated original English children's books (NECB), the STs of the TCCB formed the content of the NECB. Therefore, there were 20 books of English original children's literature, with varying word counts from 17,081 to 110,019, totalling 1,040,532 words. However, as pointed out by Saldanha and O'Brien (2013), "because translation flows from and into any two languages tend to be unequal, representativeness and comparability are often conflicting goals" (p. 72). Comparability between the TECB and NECB and the representativeness of the TECB were difficult to achieve. This was particularly the case because the flow of translation from English into Chinese was much more substantial than in the reversed direction, the original English texts were predominantly classics and bestsellers, and their Chinese translations were usually done by well-known translators. In comparison, in the Chinese to English direction, until very recently, only a limited number of Chinese children's books had been translated into other languages, including English. Although this "reversed" tendency had been gaining popularity (Sohu, 2017, Sun, 2020), there were not as many English children's books translated from Chinese available in the market. According to Zhang (2020), the ratio of imported to exported children's literature in China had been 10:1 since the 1990s (see above discussions). As a consequence, the TECB was smaller in size and more recent (2010-2018) compared to the NECB. The word count of the TECB was 429,290

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<sup>9</sup> The word counts were computed in WordSmith Tools 8.0.

in total, with a minimum of 12,572 words and a maximum of 82,172 words. Differences in the size of the corpora were not a significant factor in the analysis, since all values/frequencies were normalised before comparison.

Another closely related concern that may have arisen from the construction of these subcorpora was that there was a timeframe mismatch between the original English classics and the original Chinese classics, as most of the English classic children's books included in this study were written before 2000, with the earliest dating back to 1856, while the majority of the classics in Chinese were produced after 2000. However, this was inevitable given the delayed history of modern Chinese children's literature. Although Chinese children's literature emerged in the late Qing Dynasty in the 19<sup>th</sup> century, ancient Chinese was used in these works, which is no longer used in modern Chinese and these books are barely readable to young readers nowadays. It was not until the late Qing Dynasty (1840-1911) that children's literature made its establishment as an "independent subdivision of the Chinese literature" (Zhang, 2018). During this period, upon the call of "learning from the west", children's books from Europe were introduced and translated to bring "advanced thoughts" to China (Wang, 1987, p. 74). As these books were translated to serve this political agenda and mainly targeted at adults, the educational and entertaining functions of children's literature had been largely neglected. Children's literature at this time mainly took the form of translations or rewritings (Gao, 2019). Under the circumstances of May Fourth Movement to resist Confusion ideas and traditional language, scholars and writers, such as Zhou Zuoren advocated strongly to produce children's books centring children and therefore, children's literature was established as an independent text type for the purpose of entertaining and educating children (Gao, 2019). Previously books translated had been retranslated to facilitate children's needs. During this time, the domestic writing of children's literature had been inspired by these translations. Renown writers including Zhang Tianyi, Ye Shengtao and Gu Jiegang emerged, and a large number of children's books were produced. After the New Culture Movement (1917-1921), children's literature was established as an independent text type for the purpose of entertaining and educating children and, thus, rapidly developed. However, during the chaos of the Cultural Revolution, the creation of children's literature more or less stagnated. This condition did not change dramatically until entering the 21st century. In particular, 2003-2013 has been commonly viewed as the "golden decade for children's publishing" in China (Peng, 2016). This is the period during which these books in the NCCB were written. The newly written English books were not included in the corpus because most of these books were generally

either not very popular in the mainland China market or they had not had a reputable translation, thus they were excluded from the selection.

All the books were selected in such a way as to ensure a balanced representation of authors, translators and publishers (see Appendices 2 & 3).

### **4.3.3 Corpus processing: Segmentation, alignment and part-of-speech tagging**

Segmentation or tokenisation refers to “the process of segmenting text strings into word tokens, i.e., defining words (as opposed to characters) in a running text” (Xiao & Hu, 2015, p. 47). Segmentation is necessary for Chinese to be identified and analysed electronically because, unlike English, which is orthographically written with spaces denoting words, Chinese is presented as strings of characters without separating spaces. Therefore, before the comparable subcorpora of TCCB and NCCB could be used for analysis in the corpus-analysis software, a segmentation process had to be conducted. For segmentation, the freeware segmenter SegmentAnt (Anthony, 2017) was used, which was specifically developed for segmenting Japanese and Chinese. SegmentAnt is compatible with different engines (including the jieba, NLPIR/ICTCLAS and Smallseg engines for Chinese) and can segment Chinese with full or half spaces. In this study, the NLPIR/ICTCLAS engine was chosen because of its high accuracy in segmenting Chinese and the “full space” formatting was used out of personal preference. The segmentation was conducted against its default dictionary and the output was manually spot-checked by the researcher drawing on the *Modern Standard Chinese Dictionary* (Li, 2010) to facilitate accuracy. All segmented texts were saved in Unicode Transformation Format 8-Bit (UTF-8) text format.

Alignment was fundamental for the successful search and analysis in the parallel texts. Alignment refers to matching-up “words or sentences that are judged to be translations of each other in a parallel corpus” (Kenny, 2001, p. 63). In this way, when a search word is inputted in a query system in one language, the system outputs all the concordance lines containing the search item, along with their aligned counterparts in another language or languages (Kenny, 2001). There are multiple approaches to align parallel texts, and in this study a sentence-by-sentence alignment was carried out using Tmxmall (Yizhe, 2018-2019). A “sentence” here referred to an orthographically denoted unit that ends in a full stop, question mark or exclamation mark (Downing, 2006; Pan, 2010). In general, a successful alignment requires the translation between source and target texts to be relatively literal. However, it is not always the

case in reality. In fact, some parts of a text could be translated rather literally while other parts could be quite free. A ST sentence could be translated into one or two TT sentences or be omitted altogether in the TT. Thus a reliable and user-friendly text aligner is necessary for manual editing and adjusting when this misalignment happens. Tmxmall (Yizhe, 2018-2019) operates on an interactive interface, allowing for online merging, splitting and moving up or down of a specific sentence or sentences. Parallel texts of STs and TTs were uploaded into Tmxmall separately and were automatically aligned. Adequate adjustment and corrections were followed to ensure accurate alignment. Aligned texts were saved in Excel spreadsheet with ST on the left and TT on the right.

After segmentation and alignment, the comparable and parallel corpora were ready for uploading to the software. Conjunctions are a closed set of lexical items and, therefore, can easily be identified by a concordancer. POS tagging was therefore not necessary.

#### **4.4 Operationalising explicitness: Conjunctions**

This study used corpus-linguistic methods to explore explicitness and explicitation in the children's literature translated from English to Chinese compared to non-translated children's literature in Chinese and the English STs, as well as the children's literature translated from Chinese to English compared to non-translated English children's literature and the Chinese STs. The degree of explicitness in realising cohesion, which is mainly achieved through the use of conjunctions, was used as an operationalisation (or indicator) to investigate explicitness and explicitation, to determine whether the translated English and translated Chinese were both more explicit than the non-translations in the same languages, and also to determine if the translated texts were more explicit than the source texts of the translations in both languages. As discussed in Chapter 3, what makes conjunctions appropriate indicators for investigating explicitness and explicitation is their optionality in use in many languages (Becher, 2011a; Fabricius-Hansen, 2005; Lorés-Sanz, 2003; Zufferey & Cartoni, 2014), including English and Chinese. Discourse relations do not need to be explicitly expressed by conjunctions in all cases, as they could be inferred from the situation or context by receivers or readers, or they are not always conveyed by conjunctions as there are other cohesive devices available in language, such as verb forms or non-finite structures that can also achieve cohesion and coherence in the text. In cases where conjunctions were not compulsory, it was the translators' choice to either make the relations explicit or leave them implicit. Furthermore, the choice was made for pragmatic reasons: conjunctions are a clearly defined set of highly frequent items, with widely

accepted agreement about their functions. These features make it possible to easily identify, retrieve and analyse them.

In the current project, the use of conjunctions in the original non-translated texts both in Chinese and English are considered as genuine and effective in terms of reaching understandability and readability since they are popular reading materials among children according to the readers' rating. The conjunctions investigated in this study were extracted from Tables 3.1 and 3.2, by using a set of criteria (see Section 4.5.2 for more detailed discussion).

## **4.5 Data extraction and collection**

### **4.5.1 Corpus analysis software**

Two corpus software environments were used in this study for data extraction and collection: WordSmith Tools 8.0 (Scott, 2019) and Sketch Engine (Kilgarriff et al., 2019).

WordSmith Tools 8.0 is used for extracting conjunctions for a preliminary examination in terms of frequency and distribution. As a multifunctional and powerful tool, WordSmith Tools 8.0 has been frequently used for corpus studies in linguistics and translation studies. The “concord” function makes a concordance list of all the occurrences of a specified search word or phrase so that a researcher can have access to the information about the context of the search word or phrase (Scott, 2019). This study used the “concord” function in the latest version of WordSmith Tools 8.0 to retrieve all the uses of a range of conjunctions to get a first impression of their frequency and distribution.

Apart from WordSmith Tools 8.0, part of the data collection was done using the “concordance” and “parallel concordance” functions in Sketch Engine (Kilgarriff et al., 2019), a sophisticated web-based corpus-analysis tool which has the advantage of being able to deal with both comparable and parallel corpora. The concordancing function retrieves all the occurrences of particular search terms or patterns in their immediate context and displays these in an easy-to-read format (Bowker, 2002). For parallel corpora, Sketch Engine displays the matching sentences next to each other with the search word highlighted in the first language and translation candidates also highlighted in the second language (Kilgarriff et al., 2019). The most outstanding feature of Sketch Engine is the CQL (Corpus Query Language) function. The

CQL is “a special code or query language used in Sketch Engine to search for complex grammatical or lexical patterns or to use search criteria which cannot be set by using the standard user interface” (Kilgarriff et al., 2019). It sets conditions for words (e.g., finds “for” which is preceded by a verb) and thus facilitates the searching and sorting of concordance lines. The CQL function works well with texts even without POS tagging. In this study this function was used to filter out cases in which a search item was not used as a conjunction.

## **4.5.2 Frequency of conjunctions**

### **4.5.2.1 An overview of the data extraction procedures**

The fact that both Chinese and English have rich systems of conjunctions and the corpus in use was relatively large in scale meant that a study of all conjunctions in both languages was too ambitious, considering the time constraints and limited scope of this study. Hence, a bottom-up approach to identify frequently used conjunctions was used.

In examining the use of conjunctions in the Chinese texts, including both those translated from English and those in the non-translated original Chinese texts, the following steps were used. First, a list of all the possible Chinese conjunctive items was compiled (see Appendix 4, and more discussion in Step I in Section 4.5.2.2) and uploaded to WordSmith Tools 8.0. This list was used as a search list for a concordance, to get an overall picture of their raw frequency and distribution in the combined corpus of TCCB and NCCB. Then, according to a set of selection criteria, the list was narrowed down to a manageable size (for a detailed description, see Step I in Section 4.5.2.2). Each of the conjunctions displayed in this list was then uploaded into Sketch Engine to retrieve all the concordance lines in each subcorpus of the comparable Chinese corpus of the translated and non-translated children’s texts, namely, the TCCB and the NCCB. Any irrelevant entries in which the lexical items were not used as conjunctive elements, such as linking words or phrases, were manually removed. The conjunctions were then tagged for their semantic meaning. After the cleaning, these concordance lines were used to calculate the normalised frequency (per 1,000 words) of each conjunction per text in the corpus. The overall normalised frequency of all these conjunctions per text was also calculated. These normalised frequencies were used as the basis for statistical analysis.

The frequency of each individual conjunction was compared in the TCCB and NCCB, using a *t*-test or Mann-Whitney *U*-test to determine conjunctions that demonstrated significant

differences in their frequencies. If the preliminary statistical findings showed that some of these items demonstrated statistically significant differences in frequency between the translations and non-translations, then in order to find out the reasons that these items occurred more/less frequently in translations while others did not, they were compared to their STs (comparing TCCB with NECB). In the parallel corpus analysis, both the presence and absence of conjunctions at corresponding positions in the texts were classified (see Step III in Section 4.5.2.2). These classifications were used for the analysis. The English “equivalence” of these Chinese conjunctive items (see Step III in Section 4.5.2.2 for the determination of these equivalent items) were extracted as English conjunctive items and investigated in the parallel corpus of English originals and their Chinese translations, this time from NECB to TCCB. This latter step was taken as a supplementary procedure predominantly to determine whether and when these English conjunctive items in the STs were shifted into other forms of expression or omitted in the translated texts, thus resulting in implicatures (see Step III in Section 4.5.2.2). These steps enabled the investigator to identify the instances of explicitation and implicature in the translated Chinese texts from English for evaluating the relation between explicitation and implicature. The evaluation aim was to reveal if the translations were more explicit than their corresponding STs. The data was also used to test the asymmetry hypothesis.

The same procedures were applied to the investigation of conjunctions used in the English corpora, including both the translated texts (from Chinese) and the non-translated original English texts. To put it another way, the selected English conjunctive items (the “equivalent” items of the Chinese items identified in the previous step) were compared in the comparable English corpus of the translated and non-translated texts in terms of their frequency and distribution (e.g., TECB & NECB; for further justifications of this approach, see Step V in Section 4.5.2.2). If the data analysis showed that some English conjunctive items demonstrated statistically significant differences in frequency between the translations and non-translations (TECB & NECB), a parallel corpus analysis of the English translations and their Chinese originals (TECB & NCCB) followed, with the aim of determining the reasons for the potential patterns of over-/underuse of these conjunctive items identified in the previous step – similar to the parallel corpus analysis of the TCCB and NECB. The comparison was thus conducted both from and into translated English (TECB→NCCB; NCCB→TECB). Figure 1 displays the data extraction and analysis process, followed by a detailed description of the steps taken to identify conjunctive items and clean irrelevant data in each sub-corpus.



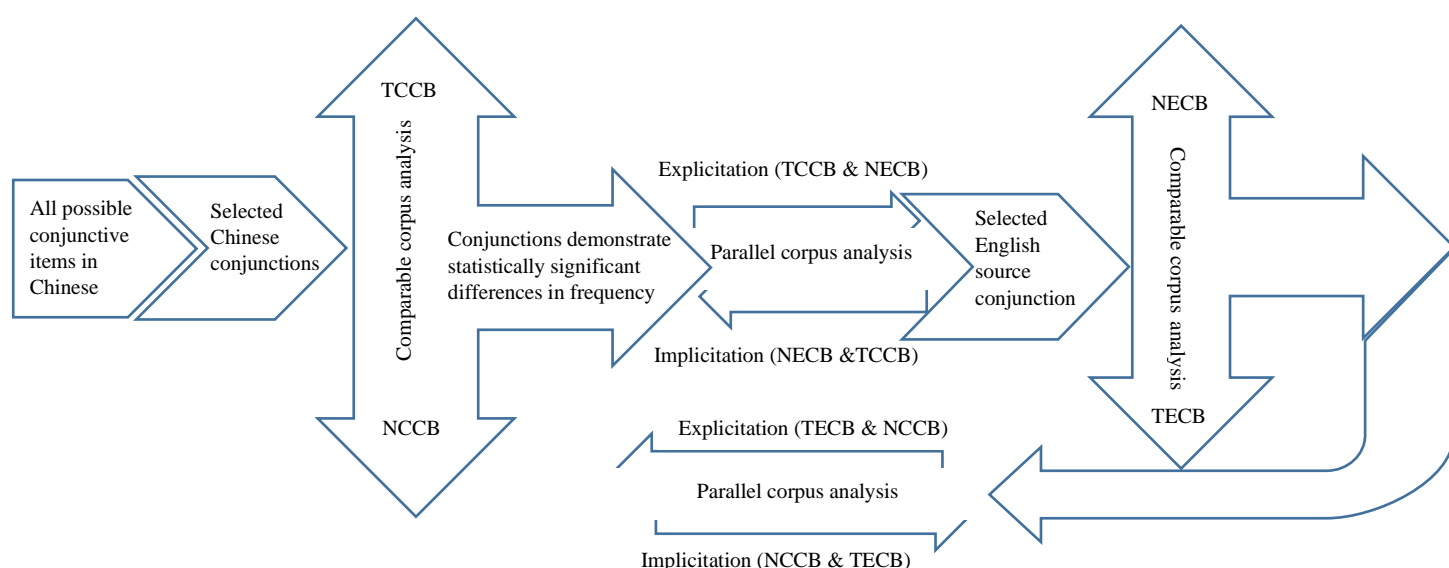


Figure 4.1: Identifying and analysing conjunctions in each subcorpus

#### 4.5.2.2 Steps in extracting data for the comparable and parallel corpus analysis

Altogether, six steps were taken to extract conjunctions from the four corpora (TCCB, NCCB, TECB and NECB). Details of the procedure are presented below.

##### Step I: Identifying conjunctions for the comparable corpus analysis of the TCCB and NCCB

For the analysis of the comparable corpus of the translated and non-translated Chinese children's literature (TCCB and NCCB), all the conjunctive items listed in Li's (2007) and B. Zhang and Y. Zhang's (2000) books (see Chapter 2 for the whole lists) were used as search items and listed in the search file. It needs to be mentioned that correlative conjunctions (conjunctive items that are used in pairs,<sup>10</sup> e.g, 因为 *yīnwéi* 'because'...所以 *suǒyǐ* 'so'; 虽然 *suīrán* 'though'...但是 *dànshì* 'but') could not be uploaded into the text analysis tools directly as there was no simple way to annotate them as correlatives. Therefore, each component of a correlative conjunction was treated as an individual search item. A search file containing 194 items was created and then uploaded to WordSmith Tools 8.0. Appendix 3 presents the frequencies of all the searched items. From this list, an array of items that were not typically used as conjunctions or to connect clauses were excluded.

<sup>10</sup> One of the two elements may be omitted in this pair.

First, the cut-off point for inclusion in the further analysis was set to a frequency of 243 counts, in other words, an occurrence of 0.1% (in 2,494,841 words). As a frequency was an indicator of prototypicality (Marco, 2018, p. 96), therefore, a frequency below this point was considered as an infrequent (untypical) use in this corpus. The remaining eligible conjunctions are listed in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Chinese conjunctions with more than 243 frequency counts

No.	Conjunctive item	Chinese phonetic alphabet	English translation from dictionaries <sup>11</sup>	Frequency <i>n</i> (%)
1	就	jiù	come towards, with regard to, at one, even if	15,983 (6.41)
2	像	xiàng	seem, be like	3,922 (1.57)
3	可	kě	but, yet, however	3,442 (1.38)
4	但	dàn	but, yet, still, nevertheless	3,032 (1.22)
5	因为	yīnwéi	because	2,813 (1.13)
6	时	shí	now...now..., sometimes...sometimes...	2,802 (1.12)
7	再	zài	again	2,644 (1.06)
8	时候	shíhòu	time, moment	2,489 (1.00)
9	可是	kěshì	but, yet, however	2,354 (0.94)
10	就是	jiùshì	precisely, just like, even if, even	2,286 (0.92)
11	而	ér	and, but	2,195 (0.88)
12	才	cái	just, only	1,969 (0.79)
13	不是	búshì	not	1,965 (0.79)
14	却	què	but, yet, however	1,906 (0.76)
15	如果	rúguǒ	if, in case (of), in the event of	1,867 (0.75)
16	不过	búguò	but, however, only	1,840 (0.74)
17	还是	háishì	or	1,826 (0.73)
18	那么	nàme	then, in that case	1,819 (0.73)
19	当	dāng	when	1,780 (0.71)
20	还有	háiyǒu	in addition	1,745 (0.70)
21	然后	ránhòu	then, after that, afterwards	1,708 (0.68)
22	但是	dànshì	but, yet, still, nevertheless	1,645 (0.66)
23	所以	suǒyǐ	so, as a result, therefore	1,235 (0.50)
24	一边	yībiān	while, at the same time	1,208 (0.48)
25	好像	hǎoxiàng	seem, be like	1,152 (0.46)
26	并	bìng	and, besides, moreover, furthermore	1,132 (0.45)
27	最后	zuìhòu	finally	1,080 (0.43)
28	要是	yàoshì	if, suppose, in case	1,072 (0.43)
29	当然	dāngrán	of course, without doubt, certainly, to be sure	1,060 (0.42)
30	只是	zhīshì	except that, only, but	1,014 (0.41)
31	而且	érqiě	and also; moreover; in addition, but also	990 (0.40)
32	便	biàn	just, then, in that case	952 (0.38)
33	于是	yúshì	so, then, thereupon, hence	901 (0.36)
34	接着	jiēzhe	after that, and then, next	879 (0.35)

<sup>11</sup> The dictionaries referred to are *Chinese-English Dictionary* (1997) and *A Chinese-English Dictionary* (2003).

35	倒	dào	reverse, on the contrary	873 (0.35)
36	虽然	suīrán	though, although, even if	835 (0.33)
37	后来	hòulái	afterwards, later	791 (0.32)
38	只要	zhǐyào	if only, as long as, provided	677 (0.27)
39	终于	zhōngyú	eventually, finally	659 (0.26)
40	先	xiān	first	654 (0.26)
41	或者	huòzhě	or; either...or...	527 (0.21)
42	边	biān	along, while	510 (0.20)
43	或	huò	or; either...or...	483 (0.19)
44	甚至	shènzhì	so far as to, so much so that, even	477 (0.19)
45	跟着	gēnzhe	followed by	470 (0.19)
46	就要	jiùyào	be about to, need to	437 (0.18)
47	因此	yīncǐ	so, therefore, for this reason, consequently	414 (0.17)
48	不管	bùguǎn	regardless of, no matter (what, who, etc.)	390 (0.16)
49	尽管	jǐnguǎn	in spite of, despite	356 (0.14)
50	即使	jíshǐ	even, even if, even though	345 (0.14)
51	一面	yīmiàn	at the same time	297 (0.12)
52	再说	zàishuō	what's more, besides	290 (0.12)
53	结果	jiéguǒ	result, finally, at last	290 (0.12)
54	同时	tóngshí	moreover, besides, furthermore, meanwhile	290 (0.12)
55	另外	lìngwài	in addition, besides	281 (0.11)
56	既	jì	both (...and)	251 (0.10)
57	果然	guǒrán	if needed, if really	250 (0.10)
58	并且	bìngqiě	and, besides, moreover, furthermore	248 (0.10)
59	然而	ránhé	but, however, yet	243 (0.10)

word count = 2,494,841

After this, items whose usage as a conjunction was not typical were also removed. First, 当然 *dāngrán* ‘certainly’, and 果然 *guǒrán* ‘as expected’ were excluded as they were typically used as mood and comment adjuncts, expressing the speaker’s attitude (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Li, 2007). Similarly, 跟着 *gēnzhe* ‘followed by’, 倒 *dào* ‘reverse’, 像 *xiàng* ‘be like’, 好像 *hǎoxiàng* ‘be like’, 就是 *jiùshì* ‘exactly be’, 不是 *búshì* ‘not be’, and 不管 *bùguǎn* ‘not care’ were not included in the analysis because they are typically used as verbs and their usage as conjunctions is not common (though possible). Determining their use as conjunctions would have been extremely time-consuming and unrewarding. Furthermore, conjunctions that are typically used to connect words and phrases were also excluded, as the focus of this study was on their function of linking clauses (or clause complexes). Therefore, 甚至 *shènzhì* ‘so far as to, even’, 或 *huò* ‘or’, 或者 *huòzhě* ‘or’, 并 *bìng* ‘and’, 既...又 *jì... yòu* ‘both...and’, (一)边...(一)边 *(yī)biān ... (yī)biān* ‘while, at the same time’, and 一面...一面 *yīmiàn ... yīmiàn* ‘at the same time’ were removed from the investigation. Finally, some of these items, for instance, 而 *ér* ‘and, but’ and 却 *què* ‘but, yet’, 就 *jiù* ‘move towards, with regard to’, 才 *cái* ‘just, only’, and 便

*biàn* ‘just, then, in that case’, are frequently used in combination with other conjunctive items, functioning to emphasise the logico-semantic relation in question. They are rarely used alone to express logico-semantic meaning as they are by nature adverbs. Therefore, this study focused on their use with other conjunctive items and the instances where they were used alone were not included in the analysis.

After this procedure, the investigation was narrowed down to the conjunctions listed in Table 4.3, which were used for extracting data from the comparable corpus of the TCCB and NCCB.

Table 4.3: Chinese conjunctions used as clause complex conjunctions analysed in this study

No.	Conjunctive item	Chinese phonetic alphabet	English translation	Frequency <i>n</i> (%)
1	可	kě	but, yet, however	3,442 (1.38)
2	但	dàn	but, yet, still, nevertheless	3,032 (1.22)
3	因为	yīnwéi	because	2,813 (1.13)
4	时	shí	now...now..., sometimes...sometimes...	2,802 (1.12)
5	再	zài	again	2,644 (1.06)
6	时候	shíhòu	time, moment	2,489 (1.00)
7	可是	kěshì	but, yet, however	2,354 (0.94)
8	如果	rúguǒ	if, in case (of), in the event of	1,867 (0.75)
9	不过	búguò	but, however, only	1,840 (0.74)
10	还是	háishì	or	1,826 (0.73)
11	那么	nàme	then, in that case	1,819 (0.73)
12	当	dāng	when	1,780 (0.71)
13	还有	háiyǒu	in addition	1,745 (0.70)
14	然后	ránhòu	then, after that, afterwards	1,708 (0.68)
15	但是	dànshì	but, yet, still, nevertheless	1,645 (0.66)
16	所以	suǒyǐ	so, as a result, therefore	1,235 (0.50)
17	最后	zuìhòu	finally	1,080 (0.43)
18	要是	yàoshì	if, suppose, in case	1,072 (0.43)
19	只是	zhǐshì	except that, only, but	1,014 (0.41)
20	而且	érqiě	and also; moreover; in addition, but also	990 (0.40)
21	于是	yúshì	so, then, thereupon, hence	901 (0.36)
22	接着	jiēzhe	after that, and then, next	879 (0.35)
23	虽然	suīrán	though, although, even if	835 (0.33)
24	后来	hòulái	afterwards, later	791 (0.32)
25	只要	zhǐyào	if only, as long as, provided	677 (0.27)
26	终于	zhōngyú	eventually, finally	659 (0.26)
27	先	xiān	first	654 (0.26)
28	就要	jiùyào	be about to, need to	437 (0.18)
29	因此	yīncǐ	so, therefore, for this reason, consequently	414 (0.17)
30	尽管	jǐnguǎn	in spite of, despite	356 (0.14)

31	即使	jíshǐ	even, even if, even though	345 (0.14)
32	再说	zàishuō	what's more, besides	290 (0.12)
33	同时	tóngshí	moreover, besides, furthermore,	290 (0.12)
34	结果	jiéguǒ	result, finally, at last	290 (0.12)
35	另外	lìngwài	in addition, besides	281 (0.11)
36	并且	bìngqiě	and, besides, moreover, furthermore	248 (0.10)
37	然而	ránhé	but, however, yet	243 (0.10)

word count = 2,494,841

## Step II: Data extraction from monolingual comparable Chinese corpus of translated and non-translated texts (TCCB and NCCB)

Each of the Chinese conjunctions listed in Table 4.3 was used as a query item to produce a concordance for the TCCB and NCCB. From there a cleaning process was carried out to remove irrelevant cases where the items were not used as clause conjunctions. The criteria that guided this process, which were developed mainly based on Halliday and Matthiessen's (2014) functionalist grammar, are listed as follows. To be retained, a conjunction had to be in:

- a. conjunctive use, and at the same time
- b. connecting clauses, clause complexes or sentences.

These criteria meant that cases that connected words and phrases were removed. Examples (1) to (4) below represent instances in which a search item was not used as a conjunction to connect two or more elements. In Example (1),<sup>12</sup> the item 因为 *yīnwéi* 'because' is used as a noun and in Example (2) the item 不过 *búguò* 'however' is used to modify the extent to which the speaker's belief is a dream. 同时 *tóngshí* 'besides' in Example (3) is used to stress the fact that the shadow and the grey mouse answered at the same time whereas 只要 *zhǐyào* 'if only' in Example (4) functions as a verb, meaning "only want" or "simply need". Examples (5) and (6) show examples where an item was used to connect elements that were not clauses or clause complexes, while in Example (5), 而且 *érqiě* 'moreover' is used to connect adjectives in additional relation, and 但 *dàn* 'but' is used to connect two adjectives in a concessive relation in Example (6).

<sup>12</sup> All the examples provided in this study were formatted as follows: for examples of translated Chinese (from the TCCB), the example in Chinese characters, a transcription in the Chinese phonetic alphabet, a translation gloss, and the corresponding English source text were provided; for examples of non-translated Chinese (from the NCCB), the example in Chinese characters, a transcription in the Chinese phonetic alphabet, a translation gloss, and English translation (from the TECB) were provided (when there is no English translation available, only a translation gloss was provided). The elements under discussion are in bold or underlined.

(1)

shíme yě bú yīnwéi

什么也不因为。 [CN\_TT]

Nothing at all because [Gloss]

Just for noth'n. [EN\_ST]

(2)

wǒ jīhū déchū le zhè yàng yīgè jiélùn hé kàngzhēng shì cuòwùde

我几乎得出了这样一个结论，和 IT 抗争是错误的，IT  
shíjìshàng shì zhèngquède ér wǒ suǒ qiánchéng xìnyǎng de dōngxī búguò shì yī gè  
实际上是正确的，而我所虔诚信仰的东西，不过是一个

jīngshén bìngguàn de mí mèng

精神病患的迷梦。 [CN\_TT]

I almost drew such a conclusion, fighting with IT was wrong, IT actually was right, while  
the thing I worshiped was nothing but a madman's dream. [Gloss]

I had almost come to the conclusion that I was wrong to fight, that IT was right after all,  
and everything I believed in most passionately was nothing but a madman's dream.

[EN\_ST]

(3)

yǐngzǐ hé huī lǎoshǔ tóngshí huídá duì xiàcì

影子和灰老鼠同时回答：“对，下次。…” [CN\_ST]

The shadow and the grey mouse simultaneously answered: “Yes next time. … [Gloss]

(4)

wǒ búyào xiàlín guǒ shuō wǒ zhǐyào yībēi bīngshuǐ jiù kěyǐ le

“我不要。”夏林果说，“我只要一杯冰水就可以了。” [CN\_ST]

“I don't want.” Xia Linguo said, “I only want a cup of iced water, that's alright.” [Gloss]

“I'll just have water, please,” said Lily. [EN\_TT]

(5)

rújīn wǒ kàn zhè

biànlì fùzá qīngkuài ér qiě huópō zhēnshì yīgè zuì kěàide yuèqì

如今我看这 violin，便利、复杂、轻快，而且活泼，真是一个最可爱的乐  
器。 [CN\_ST]

Now I see this violin, convenient, complicated, light and vivid, really is a most adorable  
instrument. [Gloss]

After seeing the violin, which was convenient, complicated, brisk and animated, I started to think of it as the loveliest instrument. [EN\_TT]

(6)

qiáozhì jiāndìng dàn nàixīn de dǎduàn tāde huà  
乔治 坚定 但 耐心地 打断 她的 话。 [CN\_TT]

George firmly but patiently interrupted her sentence. [Gloss]

George interrupted firmly but patiently. [EN\_ST]

A further caveat that was kept in mind was that some of the Chinese conjunctions shared the exact same form as prepositions, which also expressed a causal relation but typically connected a noun or noun phrase to a clause. For example, while 因为 *yīnwéi* ‘because’ could be used as a conjunction connecting two clause complexes, it could also be used as a preposition to introduce a causal object. In these latter circumstances, 因为 *yīnwéi* ‘because’ could be considered as the equivalent of “because of”. For instance, in Example (7), Teacher Yang’s chest was heaving up and down because of anger. Example (7) and similar cases were singled out because they were used to connect a noun or noun phrase with a clause or clause complex, rather than two clauses or clause complexes. This was done to maintain the consistent application of the above criteria. Whenever these items were used as prepositions, they were discarded.

(7)

yáng lǎoshī shuāngshǒu chāzhe yāo yīnwéi shēngqì xiōngpú yīshàngyīxià de jùliè qǐfúzhē  
杨 老师 双手 叉着 腰, 因为 生气, 胸脯 一上一下 地 剧烈 起伏着。 [CN\_ST]

Teacher Yang both hands crossed hips, because of anger, chest ups and downs violently fluctuated. [Gloss]

During this process, ambiguous cases were double-checked and analysed by a second investigator (a native speaker of Chinese with SFL background), based on the same principles, and a consensus was reached between the two researchers for each case to stay on the list. After annotating the data, an inter-annotation reliability test was conducted to validate the reliability of the identification. In this process, an independent annotator (the second investigator) was involved. Both the author of the thesis and the independent annotator were asked to annotate a

sampled concordance sheet containing 1,000 entries<sup>13</sup> based on the same linguistic principles. They were asked to annotate if an item was used as a conjunction or not. Cohen’s Kappa test was used to test the inter-rater reliability. A “substantial agreement” was reached as indicated by K scoring 0.72 (Landis & Koch, 1977, p. 165).<sup>14</sup> After this, the two annotators discussed the controversial cases until an agreement was reached. For example, for the conjunctive item 后来 hòulái ‘afterwards’, the two annotators held diverging opinions, with one believing it was typically used as a circumstantial element,<sup>15</sup> denoting time. However, this was kept as a conjunctive use since in most cases in this corpus 后来 hòulái ‘afterwards’ connected clauses and sentences, stating sequences, as in Examples (8) and (9).

(8)

tā pǎo ya pǎo ya jiǎn zhí xiàng fēi yīyàng hòulái tā tūrán tīngdào yīgè shēngyīn xiǎo  
他跑呀，跑呀，简直像飞一样，后来，他突然听到一个声音：“小  
xī kuài kàn diànyǐng qù ba  
西，快看电影去吧！” [CN\_ST]

He runs, runs, almost like flying the same, afterwards, he suddenly heard of a voice:  
“Xiaoxi, quickly watch movie go!” [Gloss]

(9)

hòulái yànchūn jiā de nǎinǎi qùshì le wǒ jiù zài méi chīguò línshàng miánzǐyóu sāshàng  
后来，燕春家的奶奶去世了，我就再没吃过淋上棉籽油撒上  
yán shuǎishàng cōnghuāér de tiēbǐngzi  
盐甩上葱花儿的贴饼子。 [CN\_ST]

Later, Chunyan’s granny passed away, I then never again eat pancakes dressed with  
cottonseed oil and sprinkled with spring onion chips. [Gloss]

Later, the granny passed away. I haven’t had chance to eat that kind of baked corncake  
ever since. [EN\_TT]

Once the discussion finished, the Cohen’s Kappa test was conducted again and this time K scored 0.88, which suggested an “almost prefect agreement” (Landis & Koch, 1977, p. 165). The inter-rater reliability test allowed the author to proceed with confidence to the data analysis. For the rest of the data, the author annotated all of them.

<sup>13</sup> All the samplings in this study were done in R studio using the built-in “sample” function.

<sup>14</sup> In Cohen’s Kappa test, the statistic range of 0.61-0.80 means “substantial agreement”; 0.81-1.00 means “almost prefect agreement” (Landis & Koch, 1977, p. 165).

<sup>15</sup> Circumstantial elements are generally adverbial groups or prepositional phrases that are used as “circumstances associated with” or “attendant on the process” to denote the time, place, manner, or cause etc. of an event; see Halliday and Matthiessen (2014, p. 310) for more information.



After the data cleaning process, the list was shortened further, as some of the items in the list needed to be removed because their frequency dropped below the cut-off point of 243 after cleaning.<sup>16</sup> The remaining items are displayed in Table 4.4. Altogether, 19 conjunctive items were investigated. The correlatives were recovered in their original forms (i.e., in pairs). The cleaned frequencies were normalised to occurrence per 1,000 words by using the formula of cleaned frequency/overall words\*1,000.

Table 4.4: Selected Chinese conjunctions for investigation

No.	Conjunctive item	Chinese phonetic alphabet	Frequency <i>n</i> (%)
1	但(是)	dàn(shì)	4076 (1.63)
2	可(是)	kě(shì)	3894 (1.56)
3	因为…(所以/于是/因此/那么/而/就/才)	yīnwèi…(suǒyǐ/yúshì/yīncǐ/nàme/ér/jiù/cái)	2807 (1.13)
4	如果…(的话)…(那(么/就)/就/还/则/便)	rúguǒ…(dehuà)…(nà(me/jiù)/jiù/hái/zé/biàn)	1847 (0.74)
5	然后	ránhòu	1629 (0.65)
6	(只)不过	(zhǐ)búguò	1631 (0.65)
7	要是…(的话)…(那(么/就)/就/还/则/便)	yàoshì…(dehuà)…(nà(me/jiù)/jiù/hái/zé/biàn)	1128 (0.45)
8	所以	suǒyǐ	1062 (0.43)
9	当…(时)/(的时候)/的一刹那间/的一瞬间/的那一刹那/的那一刻	dāng…(shí)/(deshíhòu)/deshíjiān/deyīchànnàjiān/deyīshùnjiān/den	1011 (0.41)
10	虽(然)…(但(是)/可(是)/倒/却/不过/仍(然)/(然)而/还)	suī(rán)…(dàn(shì)/kě(shì)/dào/què/búguò/réng(rán)/rán(ér)/hái	937 (0.38)
11	于是	yúshì	887 (0.36)
12	而且	érqiě	861 (0.35)
13	只要	zhǐyào	659 (0.26)
14	(紧)接着	(jǐn)jiēzhe	641 (0.26)
15	后来	hòulái	605 (0.24)
16	因此	yīncǐ	404 (0.16)
17	即使…(…(也yě/还hái/(仍)然réng(rán)/但(是)dàn(shì)/却què/依然yīrán))	jíshǐ	341 (0.14)
18	只是	zhǐshì	263 (0.11)

<sup>16</sup> These items were 还有 *háyǒu* ‘in addition’ (*n* = 146), 再说 *zàishuō* ‘what’s more’ (*n* = 141), 同时 *tóngshí* ‘meanwhile’ (*n* = 164), 另外 *lìngwài* ‘besides’ (*n* = 87), 结果 *jiéguǒ* ‘at last’ (*n* = 152), 先 *xiān* ‘first’…再 *zài* ‘again’… (*n* = 65), 最初 *zuìchū* ‘first’…接着 *jiēzhe* ‘next’…最后 *zuìhòu* ‘finally’… (*n* = 0), 然后 *ránhòu* ‘then’…终于 *zhōngyú* ‘eventually’… (*n* = 4), 然而 *ránér* ‘however’ (*n* = 236) and (是 *shì* ‘be’…) 还是 *háishì* ‘or’… (*n* = 224).

19	并且	bìngqiě	243 (0.10)
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word count = 2,494,841

When this list of conjunctions was configured using the frameworks of Halliday and Matthiessen (2012) and Li (2007) of logico-semantic types, Table 4.5 was obtained.

Table 4.5: Classification of Chinese conjunctions by logico-semantic relations

logico-semantic relations	subtype	parataxis		hypotaxis
elaboration	expository	—		—
	exemplifying	—		—
	clarifying	—		—
extension	additive	并且bìngqiě, 而且érqiě		—
	varying	—		—
	alternative	—		—
enhancement	spatial	—		—
	temporal	于是yúshì, (紧)接着(jǐn)jiēzhe, 后来hòulái, 然后ránhòu		当dāng... (时)(shí)/(的时候)(deshíhòu)/的时间deshíjiān/的一刹那deyīchànà/的一瞬间deyīshùnjiān/的那一刹那denàiyīchànà/的那一刻denàiyīkè
	manner	—		—
	causal	reason	所以suǒyǐ, 因此yīncǐ	因为yīnwèi... (所以suǒyǐ/于是yúshì/因此yīncǐ/那么nàme/而ér/就jiù/才cái)
		purpose	—	—
	conditional	positive	—	如果rúguǒ... (的话dehuà)... (那nà(么me/就jiù)/就jiù/还hái/则zé/便biàn)); 要是yàoshì... (的话dehuà)... (那nà(么me/就jiù)/就jiù/还hái/则zé/便biàn)); 只要zhǐyào
		negative	—	—
		concession	但(是)dàn(shì), 可(是)kě(shì),	虽(然)suī(rán)... (但(是)dàn(shì)/可(是)kě(shì)/倒dào/却què/不过búguò/仍(然)réng(rán)/然(而)rán(ér)/还hái); 即使

			只是zhǐshì, (只) 不过(zhǐ)búguò	jíshǐ... (也yě/还hái/(仍)然réng(rán)/但 (是)dàn(shì)/却què/依然yīrán)
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### Step III: Identifying conjunctions for the parallel corpus analysis of TCCB and NECB

The frequency of each conjunction was compared in the TCCB and NCCB, using a *t*-test or Mann-Whitney *U*-test to determine and extract those conjunctions that demonstrated significant differences in their frequencies (see Table 4.6). This list of conjunctions were then used to generate a list of corresponding English conjunctive items. These conjunctions, although allowing for other possibilities at the same time, were generally assumed to be translations of a set of English conjunctive items in the STs (see discussion in the next section). In other words, the translated Chinese conjunctive items and the corresponding source English conjunctive items were supposed to be equivalent in a broader sense.

Table 4.6: Chinese conjunctive items used for identifying English conjunctive items

No.	conjunction	Chinese phonetic alphabet	English translation from dictionary
1	而且	érqiě	and also; moreover; in addition, but also
2	(紧)接着	jǐn(jiēzhe)	after that, and then, next
3	然后	ránhòu	then, after that, afterwards
4	于是	yúshì	so, then, thereupon, hence
5	当* <sup>17</sup>	dāng	when
6	因此	yīncǐ	so, therefore, for this reason, consequently
7	因为*	yīnwéi	because
8	如果*	rúguǒ	if, in case (of), in the event of
9	但(是)	dàn(shì)	but, yet, still, nevertheless
10	(只)不过	(zhǐ)búguò	only, just, merely, but, however
11	即使*	jíshǐ	even, even if, even though

Here the concept of ‘mirror image’ is used, which refers to “the set of translation equivalents for a given word or expression yielded by a parallel corpus” (Marco, 2018, p. 97). Following this concept, all the ST segments that triggered the occurrences of these conjunctions in the Chinese TTs were retrieved. They included not only conjunctive items in the ST but also the

<sup>17</sup> The “\*” means that a conjunctive item is in its abbreviated form.

triggers that accounted for the use of a Chinese conjunction as a translation solution. From these equivalent correspondences, the English conjunctive items were identified.

Since a full list of triggers of each of the 11 conjunctions would take up too much space, as an exemplification of how this works, the list of triggers for the Chinese conjunctive item 因为 *yīnwéi* ‘because’ is presented in Table 4.7. 因为 *yīnwéi* ‘because’ was chosen for illustration based on its complicated usage in Chinese and its high frequency, and to facilitate comparison with existing literature, which frequently has focused on causal connectives (Denturck, 2012; Marco, 2018; Zufferey & Cartoni, 2014). After the data cleaning conducted in Step II, each of the remaining translation concordances containing 因为 *yīnwéi* ‘because’ were compared to their ST segments and labelled accordingly, for instance, reflecting the use of ST items “because”, “since” and “as”. In this way, all the possible correspondences in the English STs were identified, with an indication of their frequency (see Table 4.7). After all the possible correspondences in the English STs were identified, they were further classified into the grammatical groups including conjunctive items, prepositional phrases, and nouns/verbs. The classification was made to locate these correspondences on a scale of explicitness (see Step IV for the scale and more discussion). It was evident that 因为 *\*yīnwéi* ‘because’ could be the translation mirror image of any of these items. Only these conjunctive items in the first column of Table 4.7 were taken as proper English equivalents of the Chinese conjunctive items. All the remaining renditions were considered as instances involving shifts, in that a conjunction had been shifted into other, relatively less explicit forms of expression (see the explicitness cline in Step IV). Furthermore, the translation equivalence relation was confirmed from their dictionary explanations<sup>18</sup>.

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<sup>18</sup> The same dictionaries as referred to in Footnote 3: *Chinese-English Dictionary* (1997) and *A Chinese-English Dictionary* (2003).

Table 4.7: All the possible correspondences of 因为 \*yīnwéi ‘because’ in NECB

Source text English correspondence that have been translated into 因为 *yīnwéi																		
conjunctive item	count	prepositional phrase	count	noun/verb	count	non-finite	count	relative clause	count	language-specific constructions <sup>19</sup>	count	non-causal conjunction	count	non-causal paraphrase	count	punctuation	count	addition
because/ becuz/ because/ cos/ cuz/ kaze	763	because of	33	cause	9	v-ing	30	who/whom	15	it is...(that) ...	7	(and) that	12	now that	3	;	1	154
for	522	on account	10	reason	4	to v	10	when	11	it is that	1	and	6	along of	1	:	8	
(and) as	53	for fear of	3	why	3	for	17	where	5	too...to	5	but	6	leastway	1	-	3	
since	28	due to	2			by	13	which	5	so...that...	3	if	5	come of	4			
so	5	owing to	2			with	11	whose	1	so that	1	after	2					
as a result	1	for the sake of	1			from	4			something to do with	1	before	1					
considering that	1	as a result of	1			as	2					as if	1					
		on the strength of	1			at	2					until	1					
						again	1					as long as	1					

<sup>19</sup> Following Zufferey and Cartoni (2014), language-specific constructions refer to structures in the ST that do not have a parallel structure in the grammar of the TT.

In this way, the English conjunctive items that could have been used in the further analysis were identified, which are shown in Table 4.8. All the conjunctive items in Table 4.8 were retrieved in the same manner and might be used for the data collection from the parallel corpus of TCCB and NECB.

Table 4.8: Identified English conjunctive items

Chinese conjunctive item	Chinese phonetic alphabet	Source text English conjunctive item	Frequency of being translated from <i>n</i>
因为*	yīnwéi	because/becuz/bekase/cos/cuz/kaze	763
		for	522
		(and) as	53
		since	28
		so	5
		as a result	1
		considering that	1
于是	yúshì	and	120
		(and) then	93
		(and) thereupon	3
		and thus	1
		thereafter	1
因此	yīncǐ	(and) so	193
		(and) therefore	24
		for	5
		because	3
		(and) as	2
		for that reason	1
		accordingly	1
		and consequently	1
		in consequence	1
如果*	rúguǒ	so then	1
		if/ef	1036
		(and) then	6
		or	4
		in which case	2
		otherwise	2
		unless	2
		if ever	2
		if only	2
		as long as	1
		in case	1
		in that case	1
		but	2158
		yet	51
		though	26

但(是)	dàn(shì)	however	23
		although	10
		only	8
		still	5
		even if	3
		nevertheless	3
		even though	1
		even so	1
然后	ránhòu	(and) then	714
		(and) after	6
		(and) after that	6
		(and) afterwards	5
		next	2
		and then afterwards	1
		and then after that	1
		and the next thing	1
		and later	1
(紧)接着	(jǐn)jiēzhe	(and) then	350
		(and) (the) next moment/minute/second/thing	20
		(and) next	15
		(and) after that	6
		after	2
		and presently	2
		and soon	1
		and soon after	1
		immediately after	1
而且	érqiě	and	410
		(and) also	9
		and besides	5
		and what's more	2
		furthermore	2
		moreover	1
		What's more	1
当*	dāng	when	485
		as	160
		while	38
		by the time	5
		as soon as	4
		the second	1
		the moment	1
(只)不过	(zhǐ)búguò	but	942
		though	64
		however	45
		(and) yet	39
		only	30
		although	19
		still	16
		all the same	6

		nevertheless	4
		except that	1
即使*	jíshǐ	even if	29
		even though	5
		if...even	3
		(and) even then	3
		though	2
		however	2
		for all that	1
		yet	1
		but	1

These items were used as a starting point to select conjunctions for the subsequent analysis. This decision of not using all these conjunctive items was made based on two pragmatic reasons: first, some of these conjunctive items were either not typically translated into a certain Chinese conjunctive item, as indicated by their low frequencies ( $n < 10$ , see Table 4.8) or were not typically used as conjunctions (see the following discussion); second, dealing with all these items presented an unmanageable workload for the researcher. Therefore, to be selected for the subsequent analysis, a conjunctive item had to be first consistently translated into a particular Chinese conjunctive item in the TTs (evidenced by a high frequency in the parallel corpus).

After this, items that were polysemous, such as “only”, “still”, “next” and “also” were excluded. These four have multiple functions, among which the conjunctive use failed to achieve typicality in the current data and resulted in too many unwanted concordance lines needing to be manually analysed and discarded.

The most frequent conjunction “and” was also discarded, based on practical reasons. As a conjunctive item, “and” is used in various cases, linking words, phrases, clauses, sentences and even paragraphs. The identification of “and” that connected clauses and sentences was likely to be extremely laborious and time-consuming because it needed the investigator to read every concordance and judge its individual use case-by-case. The raw frequency of “and” reached 52,805, a number too large for researchers to conduct manual analysis.

After the scaling down, these English conjunctions which are the counterparts of Chinese conjunctions, were used in the data extraction for the parallel corpus analysis of the English-Chinese translations (NECB and TCCB), the comparable corpus analysis of the TECB and NECB, and the parallel corpus analysis of the Chinese-English translations, namely the NCCB and TECB (see Table 4.9).



Table 4.9: Selected conjunctive items that are identified as translation equivalences in Chinese and English

Chinese conjunctive item	Chinese phonetic alphabet	Source text English conjunctive item	Frequency of being translated from <i>n</i>
因为*	yīnwéi	because	763
		for	522
		(and) as	53
		since	28
于是	yúshì	and	120
		(and) then	93
因此	yīncǐ	(and) so	193
		(and) therefore	24
如果*	rúguǒ	if	1036
但(是)	dàn(shì)	but	2158
		yet	51
		though	26
		however	23
		although	10
然后	ránhòu	(and) then	714
(紧)接着	(jǐn)jiēzhe	(and) then	350
而且	érqiě	and	410
当*	dāng	when	485
		as	160
		while	38
(只)不过	(zhǐ)búguò	but	942
		though	64
		however	45
		(and) yet	39
		although	19
即使*	jíshǐ	even if	29

#### Step IV: Data extraction from the parallel corpus of Chinese translations and their English originals (TCCB and NECB)

To answer the question of whether the Chinese children's literature translated from English demonstrated evidence of increased conjunctive explicitness in relation to their English STs, in other words, whether the occurrence of these conjunctions in the TTs were the result of interference from the STs rather than translation-inherent explicitation or other factors, a parallel corpus analysis was necessary. This involved a twofold search process. Firstly, as had already been done in Step III, the textual locations of these Chinese conjunctions in question in the TT were compared to the ST to identify the elements in the ST that prompted the use of

conjunctions in the TT. Secondly, these equivalent English conjunctions from Step III in the ST were compared to their corresponding points in the TT to see how these conjunctions were translated. This dichotomous process aimed to identify and classify all the possible cases of explicitation and implicitation from STs to TTs without missing any. Searches starting from the TT components could identify instances where preservation or explicitation had occurred whereas searches starting from the ST components were targeted to discover cases of preservation of a similar degree of explicitness or of implicitation (Denturck, 2012; Marco, 2018, p. 94).

Before engaging in finding explicitation and implicitation, the boundaries of explicitation needed to be established to avoid miscalculating explicitation cases or including irrelevant information. Revisiting the concept of explicitation, it was noticed that the various definitions listed in Chapter 2 point to a similar prerequisite that whatever has been explicated has to be inferred from the context in the ST. This has been frequently emphasised in the research on explicitation (Becher, 2011b; Marco, 2012; Øverås, 1998). For example, in Vinay and Darbelnet's (1995 [1958], p. 342) definition, what has been made explicit is "apparent" from the situation and circumstances in which the message in communication is produced and received. Nida (1964) for his part, stated that explicitation does not mean an actual adding to the semantic content of the message because what it changes is the manner in which the information is expressed, that is, from implicit to explicit. Similarly, Steiner and his colleagues (2007, 2008) tightened the boundaries of "explicitness" and "explicitation". For "explicitation", a distinction needed to be drawn between simply added information or meaning and explicitation (in line with Nida, 1964). In order to qualify as explicitation, there must be "implicit information" in the ST to be shifted to linguistically explicitly encoded information, making a piece of discourse "complete and coherent". However, the notion of implicit information is not always methodologically operationalisable, because the linguistic clues for implicitness could be absent. Lexicogrammatically encoded types of implicitness are methodologically identifiable. Examples of such could be found on grammatical level, in unrealised participant roles in non-finite constructions, logico-semantic relators (e.g., conjunctions, prepositions), tense, aspect, number, and on word-level, in the optional omission of complementisers (e.g. *that*), relative pronouns, and copulas from complement clauses. For the latter, their grammatical meaning implied by the missing of the word is still latent in the features of the constructions and can be drawn out when confronted with its agnates.

Additionally, Steiner (2008) excluded “non-local translation” and “increasing specificity” from the notion of explicitation. “Increasing specificity” refers to cases where no addition of structure is necessitated but, rather, the same structure with more specific features has been chosen. This principle can be explained by the German translation “jahrzehntelang” (decade-long) of the English “more than a quarter of a century ago”. Non-local translations happen when an added piece of information is not triggered by its immediate context, but translated non-locally and frequently as a “compensation”. Since the identification of “non-local” depends on the translation unit, this study treated a sentence with a full stop as a translation unit. Overall, the exclusion applied to additions with no clear triggers in the original.

This study closely followed these criteria to classify all the concordances from the parallel corpus. Cases where conjunctions were simply added or shifted into without traceable motivations in the ST to do so were considered as meaning distortion and were excluded. For example, in Example (10), as can be seen from the back-translation, the whole sentence of the Chinese translation does not have the same meaning as the original sentence and, therefore, can be considered as meaning distortion. Similarly, in Example (11), the second sentence 但阿瑟却从来没有听说过什么“奥列佛”，也不知道狄更斯 *dàn āsè què cónglái méiyǒu tīngshuō guò shíme àolièfó yě bú zhīdào dígèngsī* ‘But Arthur never heard of anything about Oliver, or knew Dickens’ was added by the translator as there was no such trigger in the English ST.

Apparently, there is a difference between adding information that is not present in the ST (see Examples (10) & (11)) and explicitly stating a meaning that is clearly implied in the ST (see Example (22)). These may be seen as two kinds of explicitation. However, this study focused on the second kind only and the cases that belonged to the first kind were excluded from the analysis because they were clearly a kind of elaboration of things that were not present in the immediate textual environment, which violated the above-mentioned criteria.

(10)

zhè yěshì búdéyǐ de ya rúguǒ yīzhí zhèyàng yóuyù xiàqù wǒ huì bèi zhémó  
 这也是不得已的呀，如果一直这样犹豫下去，我会被折磨  
 chū xīnbīng de  
 出心病的。 [CN\_TT]

This is forced to be, if this hesitation constantly going on, I will be tortured to have heart disease. [Gloss]

I've been thinking over the idea until I've got kind of used to it. [EN\_ST]

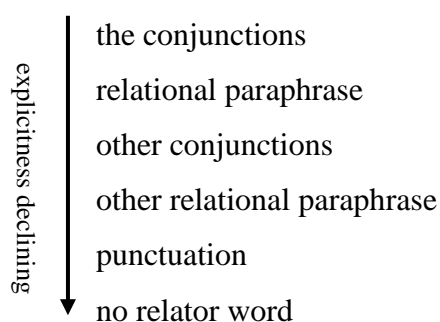
(11)

shíjìshàng wǒ yǐjīng kāishǐ huáiyí āsè jiùshì àolièfó huòzhě zhìshǎo dígèngsī shì ànzhào  
实际上，我 已经 开始 怀疑 阿瑟 就是 奥列佛，或者 至少 狄更斯 是 按照  
āsè de jīnglì biān de gùshi dàn āsè què cónglái méiyǒu tīngshuō guò shíme àolièfó  
阿瑟 的 经历 编 的 故事。但 阿瑟 却 从来 没有 听说 过 什么 “奥列佛”，  
yě bù zhīdào dígèngsī wǒ xiǎng bú yīyàng de dìfāng jiùshì àolièfó hòulái zhǎngdà le  
也 不 知道 狄更斯。我 想，不 一样 的 地方 就是，奥列佛 后来 长大 了，  
shǔyú nàzhǒng kǔjìngānlái de rén zuìhòu yòu guò shàng le xìngfúměimǎn de shēnghuó dàn āsè  
属于 那种 苦尽甘来 的 人，最后 又 过 上 了 幸福美满 的 生活。但 阿瑟  
méiyǒu  
没有。[CN\_TT]

In fact, I already started to suspect Arthur was Oliver, or at least Dickens was based on Arthur's experience narrated the story. But Arthur however never ever heard something of "Oliver", neither knew Dickens. I think, the difference was, Oliver later grew up, belonging to that kind of person who have happy ending after suffering, finally again lived a happy life. But Arthur didn't. [Gloss]

In fact, I started to wonder if he was Oliver, or maybe the model for him. But I suppose the difference was that Oliver sort of got rescued in the end and went on to live happily ever after. But Arthur didn't. [EN\_ST]

After establishing the boundaries of explicitation, the next thing to deal with was the scale of explicitness. Expanding the scale used in Denturck (2012) and Zufferey and Cartoni (2014) for causal conjunctions, generally logico-semantic explicitness could be proposed to follow a cline:



However, according to Denturck (2012), this cline rests on the assumption that the two languages are similar in syntax, semantics and pragmatics in terms of the use of conjunctions. Otherwise, obligatory explicitation or implicitation cannot be excluded. Chinese and English are dramatically different from one another in this respect. As discussed in Chapter 3, the system of conjunctive expression in Chinese does not have a one-to-one correspondence with the English conjunctions. In comparison, a kind of relation can be conveyed by various means

in English, while it has to be converted into one of a limited number of expressions in Chinese (see the extract of causal relation in English and Chinese in Table 4.10 for an example).

Table 4.10: English causal conjunctions vs. Chinese causal conjunctions

	meaning	cohesive conjunction	Parataxis	Hypotaxis		
			structural conjunction: linker	finite clause	non-finite clause: conjunction	non-finite clause: preposition
English	because P so result Q	so, then, therefore, consequently, hence, because of that, for	[cause^effect] (and) so, and + therefore			
			[effect^cause] for, (because)	because, as, since, in case, seeing that, considering		with, through, by, at, as a result, because of, in case of
Chinese	P so Q		所以suǒyǐ, 因此yīncǐ, 因而yīnér, 以致yǐzhì, 故gù, 结果jiéguǒ	因yīn (为wéi) ... (所以suǒyǐ/就jiù/才cái), *所以suǒyǐ... 因为yīnwéi		

There is, therefore, a many-to-one asymmetrical relation between English and Chinese equivalents. As a consequence, a modified scale of explicitness was developed for the language pair of English and Chinese. Based on the level of explicitness of these equivalences achieved in the TT, the translation choices were categorised into three groups. Table 4.11 shows this revised scale of explicitness. As before, causal conjunctions were used for the exemplification, but the same principle applied to other categories of conjunctions.

Table 4.11: Explicitation scale for investigated conjunctions

Source language equivalent	Explicitation
conjunction category A	no explicitation
prepositional phrases/nouns/verbs in same category (A) syntax: a. relative clause b. non-finite c. language-specific constructions	light explicitation

conjunctions not in same category (A)	strong explication
paraphrase not in same category (A)	
punctuation	

When the source was a causal conjunction, such as in Example (12), there was no explication involved. If the conjunction in the TT was translated from a paraphrase, as in Example (13), that expresses the causal meaning in the form of a prepositional phrase, it was categorised as a light explication. If a conjunction was retrieved from syntactic structures, it was also considered to be a light explication since the implied causal meaning has been explicitly realised. Such constructions included relative clauses (Example (14)), non-finite verbs (Example (15) and (16)) and language-specific constructions (Example (17)). Strong explication happened in cases where a non-causal conjunction (Example (18)), a paraphrase (Examples (19) and (20)) or a punctuation (Example (21)) were translated into a causal conjunction. Finally, the absolute case of explication were cases where the SL contained no tangible correspondence but the logico-semantic meaning was inferable, while a conjunction was added in the TT, such as in Example (22).

(12)

tāmen cónglái gēn shénmìgǔguài de shì bù zhānbīan yīnwéi tāmen gēnběn bù xiàngxìn nàxiē xié  
他们 从来 跟 神秘 古怪 的 事 不 沾边 ， 因为 他们 根本 不 相信 那些 邪  
ménwāidào  
门歪道。 [CN\_TT]

They never involved with mysterious and strange things, because they didn't believe that nonsense at all. [Gloss]

They were the last people you'd expect to be involved in anything strange or mysterious, **because** they just didn't hold with such nonsense. [EN\_ST]

(13)

nà shì fǎguān tā duì zìjǐ shuō yīnwéi tā yǒu jiǎfā  
“ 那 是 法官 ， ” 她 对 自 己 说 ， “ 因 为 他 有 假 发 。 ” [CN\_TT]  
“That is the judge,” she said to herself, “because he has wig.” [Gloss]

That's the judge,” she said to herself, “**because of** his great wig.” [EN\_ST]

(14)

yǒurén jiùshì zhèyàng tāmen fǎnduì yī jiàn shì zhīshì yīnwéi duì zhè shì yīdiǎnér yě bù  
有人 就是 这样，他们 反对 一 件事，只是 因为 对 这事 一点儿 也 不  
dǒng  
懂。 [CN\_TT]

Someone are like this, they reject one thing, only because don't understand this thing at all.  
[Gloss]

That is just the way with some people. They get down on a thing **when** they don't know  
nothing about it. [EN\_ST]

(15)

qìchē jiù tíngzài yuànzǐ dāngzhōng méirén kànguǎn yīnwéi mǎjiù gōngrén hé qítā suícóng dōu  
汽车 就 停在 院子 当中， 没人 看管，因为 马厩 工人 和 其他 随从 都  
jìnwū chīfàn qù le  
进屋 吃饭 去 了。 [CN\_TT]

Car just stopped in the middle of the yard, no one looking after, because stable workers and  
other servants all get in the room to eat dinner. [Gloss]

The car stood in the middle of the yard, quite unattended, the stable-helpers and other  
hangers-on **being** all at their dinner. [EN\_ST]

(16)

tā gǎndào fàngxīn yīnwéi nà hēihúzi de shēngyīn háishì hěn róngyì tīngdào  
他 感到 放心，因为 那 黑胡子的 声音 还是 很 容易 听到。 [CN\_TT]

He felt relieved, because that black beard's voice still is very easy to hear. [Gloss]

He was relieved **to find** that the bearded man's voice was still easy to hear.  
[EN\_ST]

(17)

wǒ rènwéi tāde yìsī shì héshuǐ búzài gānjìng wèishēng géwēn yímā shuō zhè dōu  
“我 认为，它的 意思 是 河水 不再 干净 卫生，” 格温 姨妈 说，“这 都  
shì yīnwéi zhōuwéi jiànle zhème duō zhùfáng hé gōngchǎng  
是 因为 周围 建了 这么 多 住房 和 工厂。 ... [CN\_TT]

“I think, its meaning is the river no longer clean and healthy,” Aunt Gwen said, “This all  
because in the surroundings built so many houses and factories ... [Gloss]

“I know it means that the river isn't pure and healthy any more,” said Aunt Gwen. “It's  
**something to do with** all the houses that have been built, and the factories... [EN\_ST]

(18)

wēndí zhīdé wò le wò tāde shǒu yīnwéi bǐdé méiyǒu biǎoshì tā xiǎngyào yīzhī dǐngzhēn  
温迪 只得 握 了 握 他的 手，因为 彼得 没有 表示 他 想要 一只 “顶针”。  
[CN\_TT]

Wendy had to shake his hand, because Peter didn't indicate he wants a “thimble”. [Gloss]

She had to take his hand, **and** there was no indication that he would prefer a thimble.  
[EN\_ST]

(19)

xiànzài tā xīnpíngqìhé le yīnwéi tā juéde zìjǐ zuò le jiàn shízài cōngmíng de shì  
现在他心平气和了，因为他觉得自己做了件实在聪明的事。 [CN\_TT]  
Now he peaceful, because he thought himself did one extremely smart thing. [Gloss]

He had quite recovered his temper, **now that** he had done something he thought really clever; [EN\_ST]

(20)

bù búshì wǒ xīěrfú shuō fúlintè shì chuánzhǎng wǒ shì duòshǒu yīnwéi wǒ zhètiáo  
“不，不是我，”希尔弗说，“福林特是船长，我是舵手，因为我这条  
tuǐ shì mùtóu zuò de wǒde zhètiáo tuǐ shì zài yīcì zāodào xiánpào gōngjī shí shīqù de  
腿是木头做的，我的这条腿是在一次遭到舷炮攻击时失去的，  
píwǔ shī qù le liǎngzhī yǎnjīng  
皮武失去了两只眼睛。 [CN\_TT]

“No, not me,” Silver said, “Flint was captain, I was quartermaster, because my leg was wood made, my leg was lost when attacked by a broadside, Pew lost two eyes. [Gloss]

“NO, not I,” said Silver. “Flint was cap’n; I was quartermaster, **along of** my timber leg. [EN\_ST]

(21)

zài jiālǐ zhè zhǒng shì hěn pǔtōng yīnwéi zhèshì tā hé bǐdé de náshǒuhǎoxì  
在家里，这种事很普通，因为这是他和彼得的拿手好戏。 [CN\_TT]

At home, this kind thing very common, because this is he and Peter’s signature. [Gloss]

This would have been a routine move at home; he and Peter had often done it. [EN\_ST]

(22)

kě tā méiyǒu zhēngkāi yǎn yīnwéi nàgè mèng shízài tài hǎo le  
可他没有睁开眼，因为那个梦实在太好了。 [CN\_TT]

But he didn’t open eyes, because that dream fairly too good. [Gloss]

But he still didn’t open his eyes. It had been such a good dream. [EN\_ST]

For implicitations, the identification principle was opposite to the identification of explicitations. If a conjunctive item in the ST was translated into a conjunctive item in the TT, then no implicaiton was involved; otherwise, an implicating shift might have happened during translation process if a ST conjunction was translated into a non-conjunction form in the TT (see Table 4.12).

Table 4.12: Implication scale for investigated conjunctions

Target language equivalent	Implication
conjunction category A	no implication



prepositional phrases/nouns/verbs in same category (A) syntax: a. relative clause b. non-finite c. language-specific constructions	light implicitation
conjunctions not in same category (A) paraphrase not in same category (A) punctuation zero source correspondence	strong implicitation

As before, after all the parallel concordances had been classified, an inter-rater annotation agreement test was conducted to make sure the identification and classification attained the required reliability. Cohen's Kappa test was used to determine the inter-rater reliability, setting the K score to 0.81-1.00 to reflect an "almost perfect agreement" (K = 0.90, Landis & Koch (1977, p. 165).

All the raw frequencies of explicating and implicating shifts were calculated and normalised. These normalised frequencies were used in the subsequent data analysis.

#### **Step V: Data extraction from the monolingual comparable English corpus of translated and non-translated texts (TECB and NECB)**

At this point in the method, the translated Chinese texts were compared to both the non-translated texts in the same TL and their English STs. To answer the research question of whether English children's literature translated from Chinese also demonstrated evidence of increased explicitness, both in relation to the non-translated texts in the same language and their STs, the same procedure was repeated, but this time focusing on English as the non-translated and translated texts. Steps V to VI compared the translated English children's books with the non-translated English children's books and with their Chinese STs.

From Step III, a list of English conjunctive items was obtained (see Table 4.9). These items were used in the comparable corpus analysis of the translated and non-translated English children's literature (TECB and NECB). The decision was made to facilitate the testing of the asymmetry hypothesis, which required a comparison between the instances of explicitation in one translation direction with implicitation in the reversed translation direction. To ensure the comparison was based on the same footing, the same logico-semantic types of conjunctions were needed. These logico-semantic types could be realised by a range of conjunctions, among which those conjunctions that demonstrated a significant difference in the comparison between the translated and non-translated Chinese texts were of interest in the current study.

It might be argued to draw the English conjunctions from the English texts, which seems reasonable at first glance. However, in doing this, the comparisons between explicitation in one translation direction and implicitation in the reversed could not be ensured within the same logico-semantic meaning on which the identification of explicitation and implicitation were supposed to be based, as the frequent conjunctions used in the two languages were highly likely not to be the same types.

Based on Table 4.9, all the concordances containing these items were extracted using Sketch Engine and from there a meticulous data cleaning process was undertaken. The process aimed to remove entries in which a potential conjunctive item was not used as a conjunction. Only cases in which a search item was used to connect clauses, clause complexes and sentences were retained. All the cases failing to meet this criterion were deleted. For instance, some cases with “however” in Example (23), “so” in Example (24), “yet” in Example (25) and “for” in Example (26) were all excluded.

(23)

Sisi's father had bought their new house from the university, where he worked as a professor. He decided to let Sisi have the room with the best view, and allowed her to decorate it **however** she liked. [EN\_TT]

zhè shì zuòwéi dàxué jiāoshòu de bàbà gāng cóng xuéxiào mǎidào de jízīfáng bàbà zuòzhǔ bǎ shìyě zuìhǎo de yījiān fángzi gěi sīsī zhù bìngqiě sīsī fángjiān de zhuāngxiū yě shìtīng cóng le tāde xīnyuàn de [CN\_ST]

This is a fundraising house Dad, as university professor, just bought from the university, Dad decided to give the room with the best view to Sisi to live, and Sisi's room decoration,

also listened her wishes. [Gloss]

(24)

He muttered to himself, “**So** many beggars, how terrible!” [EN\_TT]

tā zìyányǔ de shuōdào jiàohuàzǐ zhèyàng duō bú dé le  
他 自言自语 地 说道: “叫化子 这样 多, 不得了!” [CN\_ST]

He muttered to himself: “So many beggars, terrible!” [Gloss]

(25)

Ma, don’t interrupt, I haven’t finished **yet**! [EN\_TT]

mā nín bié jiǎo wǒ zhèr hái méi shuōwán ne  
妈, 您 别 搅, 我 这儿 还没 说完 呢! [CN\_ST]

Mom, you don’t interpret, I here haven’t finished talking yet! [Gloss]

(26)

The young man fled **for** his life. [EN\_TT]

nàgè shǎonián kě méimìng de táopǎo le  
那个 少年 可 没命 地 逃 跑 了。 [CN\_ST]

That young man desperately ran away. [Gloss]

After cleaning the data, an inter-rater annotation assessment was conducted to ensure the reliability of the identification. As before, an independent annotator and the primary researcher both annotated a sampled concordance sheet containing 1,000 entries extracted in R studio. Cohen’s Kappa test was used to test the agreement between the two raters. An “almost perfect agreement” agreement was reached with a K score of 0.89 (Landis & Koch, 1977, p. 165).<sup>20</sup>

These concordance entries were then used to calculate the normalised frequency of each conjunctive item, per text in the TECB and NECB. The aggregated normalised frequency of all the conjunctions per file was also computed. These normalised frequencies were used as the basis for statistical analysis. Table 4.13 shows the configuration of these selected English conjunctions with their logico-semantic relations.

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<sup>20</sup> Similar to the identification of cases belong to conjunctive use in the Chinese texts. The result of the Cohen’s Kappa test was  $K = 0.64$  for the first time. However, when analysed closely, the author found that the disagreement between the two inter raters consistently occurred on some particular items. Then, the two inter raters discussed these cases and made corrections to their judgements. After this, the Cohen’s Kappa test was run again and this time it scored 0.89, which meaning an “almost perfect agreement” according to Landis and Koch (1977).

Table 4.13: Classification of English conjunctions by logico-semantic relations

logico-semantic relations	subtype		meaning	cohesive	tactic (structural)			
					parataxis	hypotaxis		
				cohesive conjunction	structural conjunction: linker	structural conjunction: binder		
	finite clause	non-finite clause: conjunction						
elaboration	apposition	expository						
		exemplifying						
	clarification	corrective						
		distractive						
		dismissive						
		particularising						
		resumptive						
		summative						
		verifactive						
extension	addition	positive	X and Y		and	while		
		negative	not X and not Y			-		
		adversative	X and conversely Y	<i>but</i> , yet, however		while		
	variation	replacive	not X but Y			-		
		subtractive	X but not all X		but			
		alternative	X or Y			if ... not (...then)		
enhancement	spatio-temporal: temporal	simple	following	A subsequently B	then	and, (and) then	since	since
			simultaneous	A meanwhile B		(when)	[extent] as, while	while
							[point] when, as soon as	when
								-
						preceding	A previously B	
			conclusive					
		complex	immediate					
			interrupted					
			repetitive					
			specific					
			durative					

			terminal					
			punctiliar					
		simple internal	following					
			simultaneous					
			preceding					
			conclusive					
	spatio-temporal: spatial	same place		C there D				
								-
								-
	manner	comparison	positive	N is like M		(and) so	as, as if	
			negative					
		means		N is via/by means of M			-	-
	causal-conditional	general		because P so result Q	so, then, for, therefore	[cause^effect ] (and) so, and therefore		
						[effect^cause ] for, (because)	because, as, since	
		specific	result					-
			reason					
			purpose	because intention Q so action P		-		-
			conditional: positive	if P then Q	then	(and) then		
			conditional: negative	if not P then Q				
			conditional: concessive	if P then contrary to expectation Q	yet, though, however	[concession^consequence ] but, (and) yet	although, even if	although, even if
						[consequence^concession] (though)		
	matter	positive						
		negative						

## Step VI: Data extraction from the parallel corpus of English translations and their Chinese originals (TECB and NCCB)

Step VI duplicated Step IV, but this time for the English translations. This step was intended to answer the question of whether the English translations were more explicit than their Chinese STs in terms of conjunctive explicitness. A parallel corpus analysis comparing English translated conjunctions with their corresponding points in the Chinese ST was conducted. The criteria and processes were exactly the same as in Step IV, so they are not discussed in detail here again. The following discussion only focuses on the differences that need to be paid attention to in this translation direction (Chinese-English).

The cases in which meaning was dramatically altered were excluded. For example, the conjunction in the segment “because she was so full of herself” in Example (27) was excluded because the corresponding Chinese ST reads 马小跳想干什么就干什么, *mǎxiǎotiào xiǎng gàn shénme jiù gàn shénme* ‘Mo could do whatever he wants to do.’ It was evident that there was a change in meaning. Categorising an example like this according to the explicitation scale would have introduced a degree of subjectivity that the method aimed to minimise. As a consequence, instances like this were removed from the analysis.

The explicitation scale was revised to fit in the analysis between the translated English texts and their Chinese STs. Table 4.14 reflects these modifications. As before, the identification of implicitation was based on the changes made when translating conjunctions into other forms of expressions.

Table 4.14: Explicitation scale for investigated conjunctions in Chinese-English translation

Source language equivalent	Explicitation
conjunction category A	no explicitation
prepositional phrases/nouns/verbs in same category (A)	light explicitation
language-specific constructions	
conjunctions not in same category (A)	strong explicitation
paraphrase not in same category (A)	
punctuation	
zero source correspondence	

(27)

If Lily was his desk mate, instead of Man-Man, she wouldn't notice any of his pranks **because** she was so full of herself! He would never get in trouble again. [EN\_TT]

rúguǒ xiàlínguǒ shì mǎxiǎotiào de tóngzhuō tāde yǎnjīng lǐ gēnběn jiù búhuì yǒu mǎxiǎotiào mǎ  
如果 夏林果 是 马小跳 的 同桌，她的 眼睛 里 根本 就 不会 有 马小跳，马  
xiǎotiào xiǎng gàn shénme jiù gàn shénme gānle shénme yě búyòng dānxīn qín lǎoshī zhīdào  
小跳 想 干 什么 就 干 什么，干了 什么，也 不用 担心 秦 老师 知道。

[CN\_ST]

If Xia Linguo is Mo's desk mate, then there would be no Mo in her eyes at all, Mo wants to do something then do something, did something, no need to worry Qin teacher will know. [Gloss]

In the first group of no explicitation, a conjunction in the TT corresponded to a source conjunction in the same logico-semantic category (Example (28)).

(28)

“My father told me to come and tell Uncle and Aunt Lin that if Lan I-niang comes, do not let her stay **because** my father has already driven her out.” [EN\_TT]

wǒbà jiào wǒ lái gēn línāshū línāshěn shuō rú guǒ wǒjiā lánýiniáng lái le búyào liú  
“我爸 叫 我 来 跟 林阿叔 林阿婶 说，如果 我家 兰姨娘 来 了，不要 留  
tā yīnwéi wǒbà bǎ tā gǎnchūqù le  
她，因为 我爸 把 她 赶出去 了。” [CN\_ST]

“My father told me to come and say to Uncle Lin and Aunt Lin, if my Lan I-niang comes, don't keep her, because my father has kicked her out. [Gloss]

(29)

There was a very important reason why she had let Sweetie live so long, and that was **because** she was a new mother and she was lactating. Her milk was flowing thick and fast, and if she didn't suckle and lease it, her swollen teats became unbearably painful. [EN\_TT]

shuō shíhuà tā zhīsuǒyǐ ràng tiándiǎnxīn huódào jīntiān yǒu yīgè hěn zhòngyào de yuányīn jiù shì  
说 实话，它 之所以 让 甜点心 活到 今天，有 一个 很 重要的 原因，就是  
zìjǐ zhèng chùzài bǔrǔqī nǎishuǐ wàng rú bù jíshí shǔn xī rǔfáng zhàngtòng de lìhài  
自己 正 处在 哺乳期，奶水 旺，如 不 及时 吮吸，乳房 胀痛 得 厉害。 [CN\_ST]

To be honest, why she kept Sweetie alive till today, there is one important reason, that is she is in breastfeeding period, milk flourishes, if not be suckled in time, teats swell to unbearable pain. [Gloss]

The second group of light explicitation involved the translation of a paraphrase that preserved the same logico-semantic meaning but not in the form of a lexicalised conjunction into a conjunction (Example (29)). The second category also included syntactic constructions, such

as in Example (30). The Chinese ST contained two parallel segments using the same structure 做得 *zuòde* ‘made like’, which meant they could and were supposed to be translated into parallel structures to preserve the rhythm. However, as can be seen from the translation, while the second 做得 *zuòde* ‘made like’ was converted into a gerund construction that closely resembled the feature of the ST, the first 做得 *zuòde* ‘made like’ was translated into a clause introduced by a conjunction “because”. Here, a tendency to explicate the causal relation was detected.

(30)

sometimes they sang praises of Gumu **because** her works were so delicate, and they giggled, saying Mother had just created a crumbled pie. [EN\_TT]

yǒushí shèngchēng gūmǔde zuòde dà línglóng yǒushí xiàozhǐ mǔqīnde zuòde xiàng gè guōbǐng  
有时 盛称 姑母的 做得 太 玲珑, 有时 笑指 母亲的 做得 像 个 锅饼。 [CN\_ST]  
Sometimes, highly praise Gumu’s being too delicate, sometimes pointing at Mother’s with giggle for being like a pancake. [Gloss]

The third group of strong explication included the use of conjunctions (Examples (31) and (32)) and paragraphs (Example (33)) that did not express logico-semantic meaning in the same category, and punctuation marks that indicated a kind of logico-semantic relation. Example (34) illustrates a punctuation mark, where the semicolon, which indicates that what follows is a contrastive situation, is replaced by a conjunction “but” in the translation. Finally, cases where a conjunction stems from a zero equivalent marked the most explicating tendency. For example, in Examples (35) and (36), the STs contain a comma and the TTs use the conjunction “because”.

(31)

I stopped after a few steps **because** she had stayed still and was speaking kindly about Fang Baiyu. [EN\_TT]

wǒ zǒu le liǎngbù nà jiāhuǒ què méi dòng húlihútú de měihuà qǐ fāngbǎiyǔ lái  
我 走了 两步, 那 家伙 却 没 动, 糊里糊涂 地 美化 起 方百羽 来。 [CN\_ST]  
I walked for two steps, that guy however didn’t move, foolishly beautifying Fang Baiyu. [Gloss]

(32)

His neck was long and slender, the best place to target her attack, **because** one bite-one crunch-would be enough to break it, to kill it. [EN\_TT]



hēitiāné de bózi yòuxì yòuzhǎng shì zuìjiā gōngjī mùbiāo zhīyào yǎozhù ébózi yòng lì yī  
黑天鹅的脖子又细又长，是最佳攻击目标，只要咬住鹅脖子用力一  
nǐng kāchā jiùnéng jiāng jǐngzhuī nǐngduàn hēitiāné biànchéng hēisǎi  
拧，咔嚓，就能将颈椎拧断，黑天鹅变成黑死鹅。 [CN\_ST]

Black Swan's neck was thin and long, was the best attack target, as long as bite swan neck twist with strength, click, then can break the neck, the black swan became a black dead goose. [Gloss]

(33)

The people of Jiangnan weren't too bothered about getting a good price, **because** the nuts would be left to rot on the trees otherwise. [EN\_TT]

nàbiān de rén bù jìjiào fǎnzhèng fàngzài shùshàng làn yě lǎndiào le  
那边的人不计较，反正放在树上，烂也烂掉了。 [CN\_ST]  
The people over there don't care about it, anyway, left on the tree, they will rot. [Gloss]

(34)

At first he was petrified and grief-stricken, but then he thought, I am ready to die! [EN\_TT]

tā zuìchū jiàodé fēicháng kǒngbù érqǐ bēishāng hòulái tā xiǎng zhǔnbèi sǐ le  
他最初觉得非常恐怖而且悲伤；后来他想：准备死了！ [CN\_ST]  
At first he felt very terrified and sad; then he thought: ready to die! [Gloss]

(35)

Ba Ha was so happy that he tried to hug JiJi. But he couldn't **because** they each had such a huge belly. [EN\_TT]

bāhā gāoxìng dé yàobǎ jījī lǒu qīlái kěshì lǒu búqǐ liǎnggè rén de dùzi dōu tài dà le  
叭哈高兴得要把唧唧搂起来，可是搂不起，两个人的肚子都太大了。  
[CN\_ST]

Baha was so happy that he wanted to hug Jiji, but he couldn't, both persons' bellies were too big. [Gloss]

(36)

Most children didn't like this old man, **because** he spoke bluntly and often roared at them.  
[EN\_TT]

zhègè lǎotóu suǒyǒu de xiǎohái dōu bù xǐhuān tā tā shuōhuà hěn chòngde ài hǒu  
这个老头，所有的小孩都不喜欢他，他说话很冲的，爱吼。 [CN\_ST]  
This old man, all the kids don't like him, he speaks aggressively and loves to roar. [Gloss]

## 4.6 Data analysis

### 4.6.1 Overview

In order to answer RQ 1, a comparison of the frequency/value of conjunctions (on aggregate, in different semantic categories, and individually) for each subcorpus was needed. For comparisons of the comparable corpora, an independent samples *t*-test was used for the normally distributed data, with  $p < 0.05$  set as the level of significance. Alternatively, the non-parametric two-samples Mann-Whitney *U*-test was used to assess the differences between subcorpora, with  $p < 0.05$  regarded as a significant result. The Mann-Whitney *U*-test is a signed rank test suitable for non-normally distributed data (Baayen, 2008). For parallel comparisons, a different analysis was used, which compared the number of implicating and explicating shifts in the two translation directions. In addition to the quantitative analysis, a qualitative analysis of particular conjunctions was done to better understand the quantitative findings, and to further explore possible explanations for the results.

### 4.6.2 Comparable corpus analysis

To determine whether the Chinese children's literature translated from English, as well as the English children's literature translated from Chinese demonstrated evidence of increased explicitness in relation to the non-translated texts in the same language, which could provide evidence for translation-inherent explicitation, comparisons of the frequency/value of conjunctions (on aggregate, in different semantic categories, and individually) for the two subcorpora (TCCB & NCCB; TECB & NECB) were conducted. A statistical test was required to determine whether there was a significant difference between the two independent groups (TCCB & NCCB; TECB & NECB) and whether a difference occurring between two groups was because of random chance in the sample selection. As one of the most commonly used tests, the independent samples *t*-test asks not only whether there is a significant mean difference in the dependent variable between two group samples, but also "whether there is a mean difference in these two samples in the wider populations from which these two samples were drawn" (Laerd, 2019). Before conducting an independent-samples *t*-test, the data needed to be checked to make sure that the underpinning assumptions of this test were met. Generally, there are three assumptions that needed to be met (Laerd, 2019):

- a) independence of the observations: there is no relationship between the two groups and

between observations in each group of the independent variable

- b) normal distribution of the data: the dependent variable should closely follow a normal distribution in each group of the independent variable, without problematic outliers
- c) homogeneity of variance: the variance for each group of the independent variable is the same.

The first assumption was satisfied in all cases, and to check the second assumption a quantile-quantile (Q-Q) plot was first produced to visually check whether these two groups were approximately normally distributed to run an independent-samples *t*-test. The Shapiro-Wilk test of normality was also carried out in cases where visual inspection proved insufficient. The Shapiro-Wilk test of normality is a numerical means of assessing normality more suitable for sample sizes less than 50 (Laerd, 2019). If the test statistic (*p*-value) was greater than 0.05, then the null hypothesis of normal distribution of the data could not be rejected. To assess the third assumption, Levene's test for homogeneity of variances was conducted. If the *p*-value was larger than 0.05, then the assumption of equal variances of the data could not be rejected.

If the data approximately followed a normal distribution and the assumption of homogeneity of variance was not violated, means were subsequently used as measure of central tendency and standard deviation as measure of dispersion to report descriptive statistics. The independent samples *t*-test was used to assess whether the difference in the means in the two subcorpora was statistically significant, setting  $p < 0.05$  as the level of significance.

If the data failed to meet one or more of these assumptions, the non-parametric two-samples Mann-Whitney *U*-test<sup>21</sup> was used to test the differences between the two groups, with  $p < 0.05$  set as significant. The descriptive statistics present medians as measure of central tendency and the interquartile range as measure of dispersion.

#### **4.6.3 Parallel corpus analysis**

To answer the question of whether Chinese children's literature translated from English, as well as English children's literature translated from Chinese demonstrated evidence of increased explicitness or implicitness in relation to their SL, which can provide evidence for language-specific explicitation, comparisons of the frequency/value of explicitating and implicitating shifts for the two sets of subcorpora (TCCB & NECB; TECB & NCCB) were

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<sup>21</sup> The Mann-Whitney *U*-test is called the Wilcoxon Rank Sum test in R studio.

conducted. The frequencies were calculated to evaluate the relation between them. If explicating shifts outnumbered implicitating shifts, it was safe to draw the conclusion that explicitation happened in this translation direction. If explicating shifts in one translation direction were counterbalanced by implicitating shifts in the other translation direction, then it might provide evidence for language-specific explicitation. Otherwise, the asymmetry hypothesis could not be rejected if explicitation happened in both translation directions.

Following this, a qualitative analysis of particular conjunctive items was conducted to better understand the quantitative findings. All the potential reasons that may have caused these shifts were also explored in the qualitative analysis.

## **Chapter 5 Investigating explicitness: Results from the comparable corpus analysis**

### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter reports the findings from the comparable corpus analysis of the translated and non-translated Chinese children's books (TCCB & NCCB) as well as the translated and non-translated English children's books (TECB & NECB). The hypothesis to be tested was that both the translated Chinese children's literature (from English) and the translated English children's literature (from Chinese) would demonstrate an increased level of explicitness in conjunctive cohesion when compared to the comparable non-translations in the same language. To test the hypothesis, the translated children's books in Chinese were compared to the non-translated original Chinese books of the same text type in terms of the frequency of the conjunctions being used. In particular, the comparison focused on the overall use of conjunctions, the use of conjunctions by logico-semantic categories, and the use of conjunctions by individual conjunctive item. Following this, the same procedures were repeated in the corpus of the translated and non-translated English children's books to investigate if increased explicitness also existed in the other translation direction. Section 5.2 focuses on the comparison between the TCCB and NCCB, while Section 5.3 focuses on the comparison between the ECB and NECB. If the increased explicitness was found in both translational corpora (which was highly possible based on the findings from previous studies), then it would provide supportive evidence for the hypothesis that translation-inherent increased explicitness was a universal feature of translated language in that, regardless of the translation directions, the process of translation had resulted in more explicit renditions as reflected in the more frequent use of conjunctions. If the increased explicitness was not found in either corpora of the translated texts or was found in only one corpus but not the other, then potential reasons needed to be further explored by taking language-related factors into account. The possible reasons that may have caused an increased explicitness to occur or not to occur in the translations are briefly discussed in Section 5.4. Section 5.5 concludes this chapter by summarising the key findings and conclusions.

## 5.2 In search of increased explicitness in the translated Chinese (TCCB vs. NCCB)

### 5.2.1 Conjunctive explicitness: The overall tendency of Chinese conjunctions

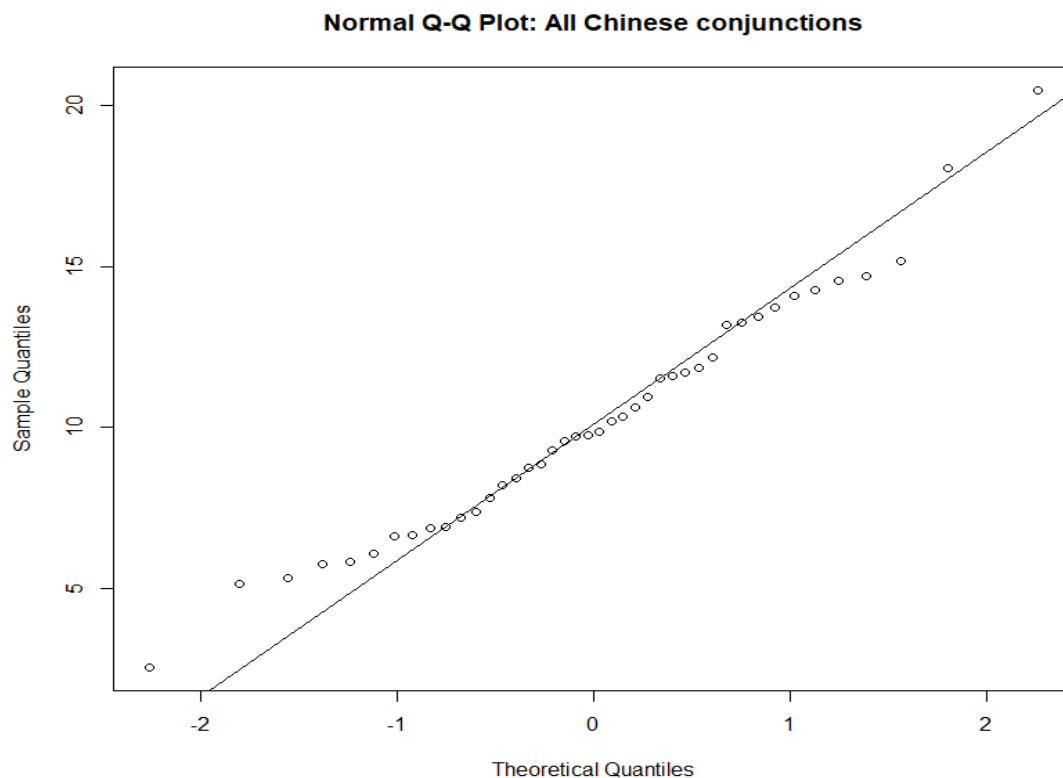


Figure 5.1: Quantile-quantile plot to assess normality: All Chinese conjunctions

Based on the hypothesis that translated texts would demonstrate increased conjunctive explicitness compared to non-translated texts, a more frequent use of conjunctions in the TCCB (the translated Chinese corpus) was expected, as these conjunctions would make the connections between clauses clear and explicit to the readers. In order to test if this reflected the real situation, statistical tests were adopted. The quantile-quantile plot for all the selected conjunctions in both corpora (the TCCB and NCCB) in Figure 5.1 indicates a normal distribution of the data, thus meeting the assumption of normality. Levene's test for equality of variances showed that the principle of equal variance was not violated for the present analysis ( $F(1, 40) = 0.67, p = 0.42$ ). As a result, the independent samples  $t$ -test was used to test whether the differences between the two groups were significant. The results of a two-sample  $t$ -test showed that the differences in the means were highly significant ( $t(40) = -6.53, p < 0.001$ ).

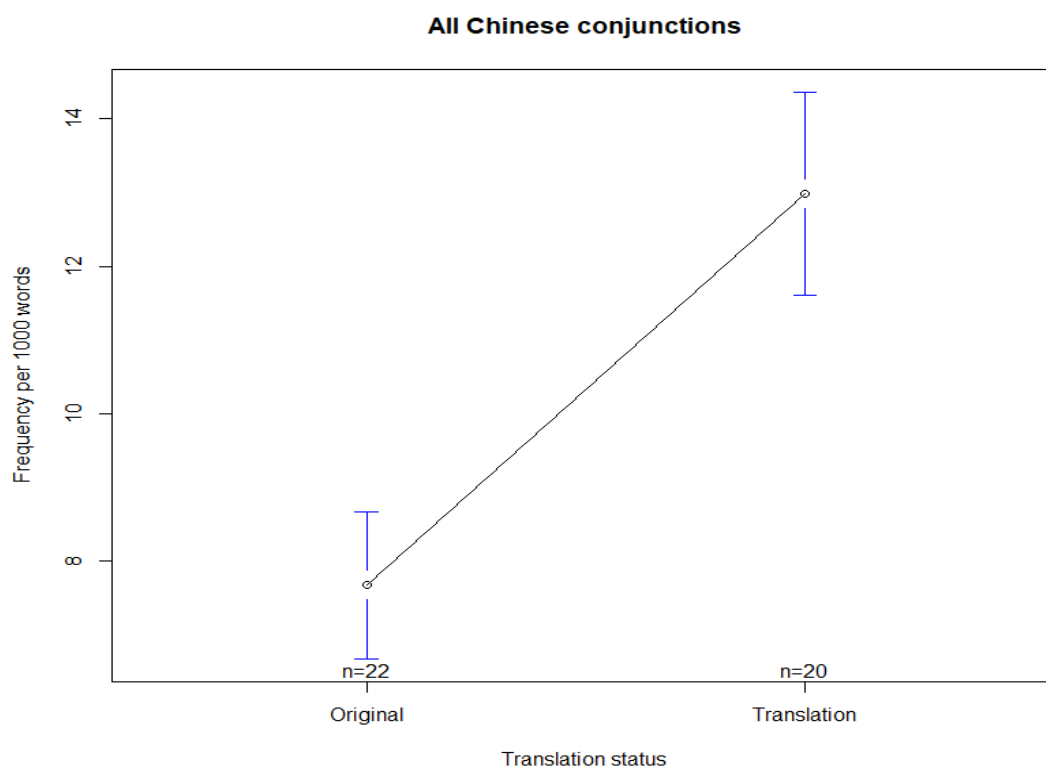


Figure 5.2: Normalised frequency of all Chinese conjunctions (per 1,000 words) by translated status

As it can be seen from Figure 5.2, the overall use of conjunctions demonstrated a significantly larger frequency in the translation corpus of TCCB than in the original corpus of NCCB. Conjunctions occurred at a mean normalised frequency of 7.68 per 1,000 words in the NCCB, whereas they occurred at a significantly higher mean normalised frequency of 12.99 per 1,000 words in the TCCB.

While the findings clearly showed supportive evidence of increased conjunctive explicitness in the translated Chinese children's books, in line with the findings of the previous studies of Chen (2004, 2006), Hu (2006), Hu and Zeng (2009), Huang (2007), Ke (2005), Wang (2010), Wang and Qin (2010), Xiao (2010), Xiao and Hu (2015), Xiao, He and Yue (2010) and Looi (2013) in translated Chinese, a further question was: what are the potential driving forces that affected the increased use of conjunctions to occur in translations?

While there has been general agreement in existing literature that translated texts tend to demonstrate increased explicitness when compared to non-translated texts (Zanettin, 2013),

there has been considerable disagreement about why this increased explicitness is a translation-inherent feature. Corpus-based studies have offered several potential explanations.

The first explanation relates to the cognitive effort that a translation task involves (Kruger, 2019; Kruger & Van Rooy 2016; Olohan & Baker 2000; see more discussion in Section 2.7 in Chapter 2). The cognitive complexity of translation lies in the nature of the bilingual language processing and text production. Translators are involved in a cognitively highly demanding working environment, which requires swift shifting between two languages all the time. The translators may opt for more explicit marking when they have a choice because the more explicit grammatical option could facilitate cognitive processing and ease cognitive load (Kruger & Van Rooy, 2016). However, the complexity of lexis and syntax may add additional processing complexity and create extra cognitive load to this already demanding situation. If the cognitive complexity hypothesis holds, then in these cases, where the effortful bilingual text production happens in a lexically and/or syntactically complex environment (added complexity), one may expect to see a strong tendency to mark the logico-semantic relations clear between clausal constituents. In the present study, a small-scale qualitative analysis offered some insights in this regard. Example (37) illustrates how cognitive complexity might have exerted an effect on the translator's choice of conjunction over non-conjunction in the translation.

(37)

xiāngshēn tèlǎowéiní lìwéisāi dàifu hé qítā jǐwèi xiānshēng qǐng wǒ bǎ yǒuguān bǎodǎo de quánbù  
乡绅 特劳维尼、利维塞 大夫 和 其他 几位 先生 请 我 把 有关 宝岛的 全部  
xìjié cóng tóuzhiwěi yuányuánběnběn de xiěxiàlái zhǐ yǐnqù bǎodǎo de wèizhì yīnwéi nàlǐ hái yǒu bǎozàng  
细节 从头至尾 原原本本 地 写下来，只 隐去 宝岛的 位置，因为 那里 还有 宝藏  
méiyǒu bèi wājué chūlái yúshì wǒ biànyú yīqī nián náqǐ bǐ lái huí dào yáoyuǎnde guòqù  
没有 被 挖掘 出来。(于是，)我 便于 一七×× 年 拿起 笔 来，回到 遥远的 过去  
nàshí wǒfùqīn kāile yījiā míngjiào běnbào jiāngjūn de xiǎo lǚdiàn ér nàwèi hèsè pífu  
——那时 我父亲 开了 一家 名叫 “本鲍 将军” 的 小 旅店，而 那位 褐色 皮肤、  
liǎnshàng yǒu yīdào dāobā de lǎo hángǎijiā yě jiùzài nàshí zhùjìn le wǒmen diànlǐ  
脸上 有 一道 刀疤 的 老 航海家 也 就 在 那时 住进 了 我们 店里。 [CT\_TT]

The squire Trelawney, Dr. Livesey and several other gentlemen asked me to write down all the details about the treasure island from beginning to end, only to hide the location of the treasure island, because there are still treasures that have not been unearthed. (So,) I picked up the pen in seventeen XX years and went back to the distant past-at that time my father opened a small hotel called “General Benbow”, and the old navigator with brown skin and a cut scar in his face also started to live in our hotel at that time. [Gloss]



Squire Trelawney, Dr. Livesey, and the rest of these gentlemen having asked me to write down the whole particulars about Treasure Island, from the beginning to the end, keeping nothing back but the bearings of the island, and that only because there is still treasure not yet lifted, I take up my pen in the year of grace 17\_\_ and go back to the time when my father kept the Admiral Benbow inn and the brown old seaman with the sabre cut first took up his lodging under our roof. [EN\_ST]

The language pair of English and Chinese are genetically distinct languages, as remarked by Xiao (2010, p. 7). They are different in various linguistic aspects, including lexicogrammar. Specifically, they use different syntactic structures in constructing meaning. The bilingual linguistic production encountered in translation between this language pair is likely to be extremely complex and particularly so when faced with an SL structure that does not have a direct equivalent in the TL. Studies have shown that in translating between languages with different linguistic systems, the syntactic processing might be more difficult and less efficient than when the two languages are typologically very similar, because translators may be more likely to resort to restructuring in the former case. For example, Ruiz, Paredes, Macizo, and Bajo (2008) showed that reading times for translation were facilitated when the source and target text had congruent syntactic structures. In the case of English and Chinese, one of the incongruent constructions is the English non-finite structure *-ing*, which requires structural reorganisation when translated into Chinese, as the lexicogrammar of Chinese does not have a similar construction that is syntactically and semantically equivalent to this. Furthermore, the adjunct *-ing* offers a wide spectrum of meaning interpretations ranging from temporal sequence to concession (Becher, 2011b; Quirk, 1985, p. 1124). The vague meaning that this construction covers may pose extra working load for translators when they try to figure out what meaning this construction invites in a given context.

Example (37) is used to explore a potential cognitive complexity effect. It displays a paragraph-length sentence with 90 words, containing an *-ing* structure. Figure 5.3 presents the reading ease score of Example (37) in terms of various criteria from the Coh-Metrix Common Core Text Ease and Readability Assessor (T.E.R.A., Coh-Metrix, 2020). As Figure 5.3 shows, this piece of text has extremely low syntactic simplicity (1%), meaning it has a complex sentence structure and is hard to be processed (see T.E.R.A. for more information about the analysis of this text). For lexical diversity, the type-token ratio in Table 5.1 shows a relatively higher score (0.76 out of 1). The higher a type-token ratio, the more difficult the comprehension should be because more “unique words need to be decoded and integrated with the discourse context” (Coh-Metrix, 2020). The overall mean frequency for all words indicated that the vocabulary in

this text was mostly made up of high-frequency words (Mean CELEX Log frequency = 2.99, nearly 1,000 per million words) and easy to understand. This is not surprising considering that this example was from a children’s book targeting child readers aged 11-14 years. However, the Flesch reading ease scored 0 (0-100, a higher score indicating easier reading), and the Flesch-Kincaid Grade level scores 35.64, meaning that the difficulty level of the text was for college students. In translating this complex text, it could be assumed that the translator would opt for more explicit forms for efficient processing, as a consequence of cognitive complexity effects. The translator’s use of strategies to reduce cognitive processing load may be inferred from two observations. On the one hand, the ST was chunked into two shorter sentences in the translation, which decreases mean sentence length and structural complexity. On the other hand, to connect the second sentence, a conjunction 于是 *yúshì* ‘then’ was added, even though a sentence without the conjunction is acceptable in Chinese and would be even preferred in this case of a first-person narration (reads as marked by round brackets). However, the inclusion of a conjunction has certainly increased the cohesion of the translated text compared to a text without the conjunction.

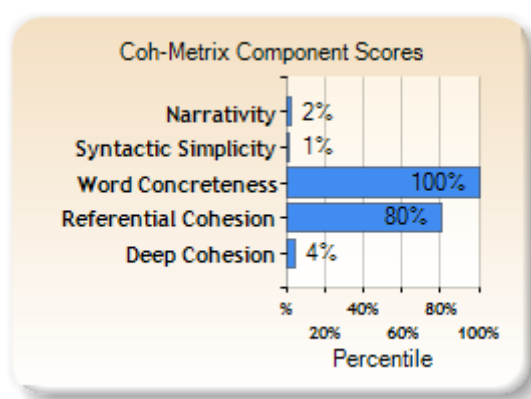


Figure 5.3: Text reading ease of Example (37) from T.E.R.A.

Table 5.1: Summary of the text profile of Example (37) from Coh-Metrix

Example (37)	Text profile
Sentence number	1
Mean sentence length	90
Type-token ratio of all words	0.76
Mean CELEX log frequency for all words	2.99
Flesch Reading Ease	0
Flesch-Kincaid Grade level	35.64

From the above, it is evident that the use of a conjunction showed a tendency to ease cognitive complexity in translated Chinese.

From a socio-cognitive perspective, the second explanation ascribes the increased explicitness of translated language to translators' risk management strategies (Pym, 2005; 2015, see Section 2.7 in Chapter 2). It could be said that there is a higher risk of misunderstanding involved in the communication of translation than other types of communication because there are fewer shared references between the ST author and the TL audience (Kruger & Van Rooy, 2016; Pym, 2005). In the case of the translation of children's literature, the need to avoid risks might have been particularly strongly felt by translators because of the strong emphasis on target-audience acceptability for this text type. The language used in children's literature has been described as "a 'scaled-down' version of 'language in general', simplified to be made accessible to these young readers" (Thompson & Sealey, 2007, p. 2). This is because:

The specific feature of communication between a children's writer and a young reader is that it is asymmetrical. A young reader's cognitive capacity, life experience, and linguistic skills are normally different from those of an adult writer.... Some scholars claim therefore that children's literature is always adapted to the needs of its audience... involving subject matter as well as form. (Nikolajeva, 2005, p. xv)

This asymmetrical communication also happens in the translation of children's literature as translators are usually adults. The aim to fulfil the demand of accessibility might cause the feature of increased explicitness to manifest itself more obviously in the translation of this text type than in the translation of adult literature (Čermáková, 2018).

Following this line of reasoning, if translators explicitate for their readers, then traces of the selection of conjunctions in their translations may be seen when the cultural distance is significant and/or the communication risk is high. In other words, without the use of the conjunctions, the understanding of a passage would be at risk. The following discussion explores how translators work out if successful understanding might be at risk, and thus deal with this "dilated" communication uncertainty through the use of conjunctions (Saldanha, 2008, p. 28).

(38)

dìèrtiān yīdàzǎo hāli jiù xǐng le tā míngmíng zhīdào tiān yǐjīng liàngle kě háishì bǎ yǎnjīng

第二天 一大早 哈利 就 醒 了。他 明 明 知 道 天 已 经 亮 了，可 还 是 把 眼 睛  
 bìdé jǐnjinde zhèshì yīgè mèng tā quèdìngwúyí de duì zìjǐ shuō wǒ mèngjiàn yīgè  
 闭得紧紧的。“这是一个梦，”他确定无疑地对自己说，“我梦见一个  
 jiào hǎigé de jùrén tā lái duì wǒ shuō yào wǒ jìn yīsuǒ mófǎ xuéxiào děng wǒ yīzhēngyǎn  
 叫海格的巨人，他来对我说，要我进一所魔法学校。等我一睁眼，  
 wǒ zhǔn zài jiālǐ zài wǎnguǐlǐ tūrán chuánlái yīzhèn pāpā de xiǎngshēng yòushì pèinǚ yímā  
 我准在家里，在碗柜里。”突然传来一阵啪啪的响声。“又是佩妮姨妈  
 zài chuímén le hǎli xīnlǐ xiǎng tāde xīn yīchén kě tā méiyǒu zhēngkāi yǎn yīnwéi nàgè  
 在捶门了。”哈利心里想，他的心一沉。可他没有睁开眼，因为那个  
 mèng shízài tàihǎo le pā hǎole hǎli dūnóng shuō wǒ zhè jiù qílái  
 梦实在太好了。啪。“好了，”哈利嘟囔说，“我这就起来。” [CN\_TT]

Harry woke up early the next morning. He knew that the sky was already bright, but still closed his eyes tightly. “This is a dream,” he said to himself with certainty, “I dreamed of a giant named Hagrid. He came and said to me that he wanted me to enter a magic school. When I opened my eyes, I must be at home, in the cupboard.” Suddenly there was a Bang-bang noise. “It must be Aunt Petunia knocking the door again.” Harry thought, his heart sinking. But he didn’t open his eyes, because that dream was so good. Bang. “Okay,” Harry muttered, “I’m getting up.” [Gloss]

Harry woke early the next morning. Although he could tell it was daylight, **he kept his eyes shut tight**. “It was a dream, he told himself firmly. “I dreamed a giant called Hagrid came to tell me I was going to a school for wizards. **When I open my eyes** I’ll be at home in my cupboard.” There was suddenly a loud tapping noise. And there’s Aunt Petunia knocking on the door, Harry thought, his heart sinking. **But he still didn’t open his eyes**. It had been such a good dream. Tap. “All right,” Harry mumbled, “I’m getting up.” [EN\_ST]

As can be seen in Example (38), the conjunction 因为 *yīnwéi* ‘because’ is added in the TT, which was originally not used in the ST. It is important to note that the translation could have used the exact same structure as the ST without inserting the conjunction; for example 可他没有睁开眼。那个梦实在太好了。 *kě tā méiyǒu zhēngkāi yǎn nàgè mèng shízài tàihǎo le* ‘But he still didn’t open his eyes. It had been such a good dream.’. However, the translation transforms the two short sentences into one subordinating sentence, connected by a conjunction 因为 *yīnwéi* ‘because’. In fact, even if in the form of a single sentence, the TL syntax and convention do not require the use of a conjunction in this case. For example, the sentence 可他没有睁开眼，那个梦实在太好了。 *kě tā méiyǒu zhēngkāi yǎn nàgè mèng shízài tàihǎo le* ‘But he still didn’t open his eyes, it had been such a good dream’ reads well in Chinese and the causal relation could be implicitly interpreted from the logico-semantic relation between the two clauses, as the second clause provides an explanation for the event of the first clause. Then, why does the translator choose to add a conjunction? According to Pym’s (2005) theory, the tendency to use a conjunction to mark the causal relation explicitly could be the consequence

of risk management strategies. Since the causal relation is present rather weakly in this text, the interpretation of this causal relation needs to take the overarching coherence into account. In this text, the fact that Harry didn't want to open his eyes has been mentioned three times (marked by bold font). It seems only reasonable and coherent to give an explanation after the third mention. Without the conjunction, the interpretation of the sentence could deviate from its normal expectation because the readers would be children. Furthermore, the causal relation occurs after a concessive relation (see "But"). The causal relation could be easily neglected without a conjunction signaling its existence. The translator may have estimated that these kinds of delicate interpretations may overload child readers' comprehension abilities. Against this background, it may be that the translator chose to include this causal conjunction to clarify the semantic relations for child readers.

Lastly, translators' choice for the more explicit form, and thus increased explicitness in translation, might be primed by cross-linguistic influence (CLI, also called transfer or interference, SLI). In particular, at the pragmatic and discourse level, as reported by Kruger and Van Rooy (2016), the preference for more explicit lexicogrammatical encodings of the ST may be carried over to the TL texts, resulting in increased explicitness in the translated texts in comparison to the non-translated texts in the same language.

According to Xiao and Hu (2015), Chinese is generally considered to be a grammatically implicit language

because of its lack of inflections or infrequent and non-compulsory use of referential components, intra-sentential and inter-sentential conjunctions in contrast to English and other Indo-European languages which usually have strong and rigid grammatical rules for inflections, reference markers and conjunctions. (Xiao & Hu, 2015, p. 28)

Based on the CLI effects, it seems reasonable to assume that when translating from English to Chinese, this grammatical and stylistic explicitness of English might be shining through to translated Chinese. And since the ST is ever-present before the translators' eyes during a translation task, this cross-linguistic priming effect may not be completely eliminated even for experienced translators. This hypothesis can be supported by Example (39) which was extracted from the translation corpus of the TCCB, with the ST retrieved from the NECB.

(39)

a  
wǒ cóngwèi gēn nánrén shuō guò huà chùle gèbié lǐshì dàn tāmen búsuàn duìbúqǐ shùshū dāng wǒ

我从未跟男人说过话(除了个别理事,但他们不算),对不起,叔叔,当我  
 nà yàng tán lǐ shì men de shí hòu bìng bú shì gù yì yào mào fàn nín  
 那样谈理事们的时候,并不是故意要冒犯您。 [CN\_TT]

I have never spoken to a man (except for individual Trustees, but they don't count), sorry, uncle, when I am talking about Trustees like that, I don't mean to offend you. [Gloss]

I never talked to a man before (except occasional Trustees, and they don't count). Pardon, Daddy, I don't mean to hurt your feelings when I abuse Trustees. [EN\_ST]

b

wǒ cóng wèi gēn nán rén shuō guò huà chū le gè bié lǐ shì dàn tā men bú suàn duì bú qǐ shū shū dāng wǒ nà yàng  
 我从未跟男人说过话(除了个别理事,但他们不算),对不起,叔叔,我那样  
 tán lǐ shì men de shí hòu bìng bú shì gù yì yào mào fàn nín  
 谈理事们,并不是故意要冒犯您。

I have never spoken to a man (except for individual Trustees, but they don't count), sorry, uncle, I talk about Trustees like that, I don't mean to offend you. [Gloss]

This example is an extract from the book *Daddy-Long-Legs*, in which the protagonist, Judy, (Jerusha Abbott) regularly writes letters to her “Daddy”, the sponsor of her college education, as requested by him in the form of “a letter as you would write to your parents if they were living” (Webster, 1912, p. 9). In these letters, little Judy mainly describes her daily routines and her study progress. They are intimate and informal correspondences as they are supposed to be. In Example (39a), the conjunction 当...的时候 *dāng...deshíhòu* ‘when’ is not strictly required by the lexicogrammar of the TL as the sentence without the conjunction is still grammatically correct. Also, it does not seem to be motivated by cultural or pragmatic reasons, as with the omission of this conjunction, the sentence reads more naturally and native-like from the point of view of a native Chinese speaker (see Example (39b)). The SL text itself does not present as a cognitively complex case, either lexically or syntactically, as can be seen from the text matrix (Table 5.2) and the risk of misinterpreting the passage is close to non-existent (see Figure 5.4 and Table 5.2).

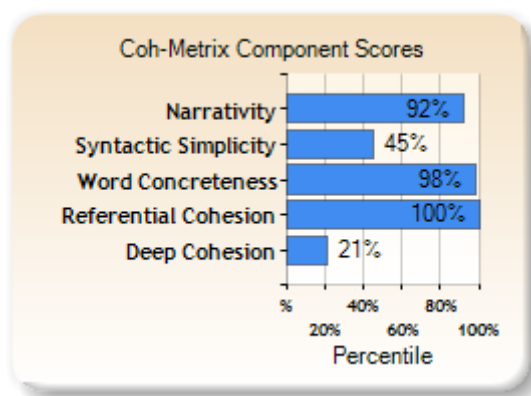


Figure 5.4: Text reading ease of Example (39) from T.E.R.A.

Table 5.2: Summary of the text profile of Example (39) from Coh-Metrix

Example (39)	Text profile
Sentence number	2
Mean sentence length	14.5
Type-token ratio of all words	0.79
Mean CELEX log frequency for all words	2.22
Flesch Reading Ease	72.49
Flesch-Kincaid Grade level	6.75

Therefore, it seems safe to claim that the inclusion of the conjunction does not help much with the understanding of the passage; rather, the redundant explicitness caused by this unnecessary conjunction may impact the comprehensibility of the text as young readers may be confused by the less natural sentence. Then, the question is: in this case where there is little complexity and a low communicative risk, why does the translator use the conjunction when it is redundant in the TL and could have been left out without causing consequence? The answer can be found in the CLI effect as the conjunction 当... 的时候 *dāng...deshíhòu* corresponds to the conjunction “when” in the ST and there is no other reason not to omit it.

Although the overall analysis showed that the translated Chinese texts used conjunctions significantly more frequently than the non-translated Chinese (see Figure 5.2), it did not necessarily support for the conclusion that the higher level of explicitness in the translated texts was the result of translation-inherent explicitation. Another possible explanation for the increased cohesive explicitness in the translations comes from language/culture-related perspectives. This argument ascribes the increased explicitness to the consequences of cross-linguistic differences and cross-cultural pragmatics between the languages involved, rather than translation-inherent features of translated language (Becher, 2010). This is because English and Chinese have different lexicogrammatical resources in realising logico-semantic relations due to their cross-linguistic differences. The use of certain conjunctions might be compulsory in representing a type of logico-semantic relation in English. However, due to the language differences, their use in Chinese could be optional in order to maintain the same type of relations. The more frequent use of conjunctions in translated Chinese texts could be related to the more explicit lexicogrammatical encoding of English. Therefore, it was necessary to take a step further to evaluate whether the tendency towards increased explicitness in the translated texts cut across all types of logico-semantic types evenly or whether there were significant

categorical differences, which may suggest that its sensitivity to logico-semantic types may potentially be ascribed to SL transfer. If the more frequent use of conjunctions was found across all logico-semantic types of conjunctions, it is possible to argue that this may have been a generic feature that exists in the translated Chinese texts despite linguistic differences between SL and TL, which, in turn, would provide some evidence to support the hypothesis that increased explicitness was a translation-inherent feature. However, if the more frequent use of conjunctions was only found for some types of logico-semantic relations and not others, it would be imprudent to conclude that the increased explicitness was likely a feature of translated language, as linguistic differences between SL and TL might also have increased the use of certain conjunctions in the translated texts if the translator hoped to achieve equivalence in terms of logico-semantic relations and the use of such conjunctions was grammatically essential in achieving the equivalence in the TL. To further tease these two reasons apart, the set of conjunctions was investigated by categories of logico-semantic relations.

### 5.2.2 Conjunctive explicitness: Types of logico-semantic relations

Five types of logico-semantic relations were identified in the data, namely, additive, temporal, causal, and conditional positive and conditional concessive.

Table 5.3 summarises the results from the analysis. It shows that all the types of conjunctions demonstrated a significantly higher degree of explicitness in comparison to their comparable non-translation counterparts (in all five cases,  $p < 0.05$ ), in line with the overall tendency, which was not surprising.

Table 5.3: Conjunctive subtypes demonstrating significant difference in frequency

Conjunction subtype	Mean/median NCCB	Mean/median TCCB	Result of statistical test
Additive	Median 0.24	Median 0.61	W = 125, $p < 0.05$
Causal	Median 1.21	Median 1.91	W = 110, $p < 0.05$
Temporal	Median 1.11	Median 2.39	W = 76, $p < 0.001$
Conditional positive	Mean 0.98	Mean 1.84	t = -6.11, $p < 0.001$
Conditional concessive	Mean 3.53	Mean 5.63	t = -5.93, $p < 0.001$

The statistical analysis above indicates significant differences between the translated and non-translated texts across all the logico-semantic types under discussion, suggesting that the



increased explicitness was highly likely to be a translation-inherent feature of translated Chinese.

### 5.2.3 Conjunctive explicitness: Individual conjunctive items

To further explore these two possible explanations for the significantly higher frequencies of conjunctions in the TCCB, each conjunction was analysed individually. Table 5.4 summarises the findings for the individual conjunctions that demonstrated no significant difference in their frequencies, while Table 5.5 summarises the findings for conjunctions that demonstrated a significant difference in their frequencies between the two sub-corpora (TCCB & NCCB). Following Table 5.5, a brief discussion of the significant differences in frequency for individual conjunctions is provided.

Table 5.4: Conjunctions demonstrating no significant difference in frequency

Conjunction	Chinese phonetic alphabet	English translation from dictionaries	Median NCCB	Median TCCB	Result of statistical test
并且	bìngqiě	and, besides, moreover, furthermore	0.01	0.07	W = 166, p = 0.17
后来	hòulái	afterwards, later	0.22	0.11	W = 290.5, p = 0.08
所以	suǒyǐ	so, as a result, therefore	0.37	0.48	W = 201, p = 0.64
只要	zhǐyào	if only, as long as, provided	0.20	0.26	W = 165, p = 0.17
要是	yàoshì	if, suppose, in case	0.23	0.37	W = 162, p = 0.15
可(是)	kě(shì)	but, yet, however	1.17	1.63	W = 199, p = 0.61
只是	zhǐshì	except that, only, but	0.59	0.54	W = 254, p = 0.40
虽然	suīrán	though, although, even if	0.34	0.28	W = 252, p = 0.43

Table 5.5: Conjunctions demonstrating significant difference in frequency

Conjunction	Chinese phonetic alphabet	English translation from dictionaries	Median NCCB	Median TCCB	Result of statistical test
而且	érqiě	and also; moreover; in addition, but also	0.15	0.43	W = 123, p < 0.05
(紧)接着	jǐn(jiēzhe)	(right) after that, and then, next	0.12	0.30	W = 101, p < 0.05
然后	ránhòu	then, after that, afterwards	0.36	0.85	W = 106, p < 0.05
于是	yúshì	so, then, thereupon, hence	0.15	0.31	W = 110, p < 0.05

当*	dāng	when	0.14	0.52	W = 72, P < 0.001
因此	yīncǐ	so, therefore, for this reason, consequently	0.06	0.09	W = 133, p < 0.05
因为*	yīnwéi	because	0.94	1.40	W = 102, p < 0.05
如果*	rúguǒ	if, in case (of), in the event of	0.36	0.97	W = 77, p < 0.001
但(是)	dàn(shì)	but, yet, still, nevertheless	0.90	1.82	W = 137.5, p < 0.05
(只)不过	(zhǐ)búguò	but, however, only	0.18	0.95	W = 47, p < 0.001
即使*	jíshǐ	even, even if, even though	0.05	0.15	W = 142, p = 0.05

As can be seen from Tables 5.4 and 5.5, 11 of the 19 conjunctions demonstrated significant differences in their frequencies between the translated and non-translated Chinese texts. Furthermore, for these 11 conjunctions, the significant difference between the two subcorpora was in the hypothesised direction, that is, they were significantly more frequent in the translated texts than in the non-translated texts. It was also found that the tendency towards increased explicitness did not play out across all of the 19 conjunctions that were investigated, but instead was an effect associated with 11 of them. This finding suggests that although increased explicitness was an overall feature of the translated texts, it was not equally demonstrated in all the conjunctions. Rather, this identified feature was specific to some of the conjunctions only, and such a non-uniform effect indicated that, despite being a seemingly translation-inherent tendency, increased explicitness could also be counteracted or neutralised by other factors that may have also played a role in the translation process. For example, the lexically specific increased explicitness could be potentially ascribed to transfer effects from the SL, if these conjunctions were highly frequently used in the STs. Further investigation of this finding was needed by using parallel corpus analysis with the STs involved. Discussion of the results of this analysis is presented in Chapter 6.

In sum, the findings showed that the translation corpus of TCCB demonstrated a highly significantly increased level of explicitness in terms of the overall use of conjunctions compared to the non-translation corpus of NCCB. However, the tendency of increased explicitness did not cut across all the conjunctions more generally, but varied by specific conjunctions.

The next question was whether the increased conjunctive explicitness also existed in the reversed translation direction, from Chinese to English. A positive answer would provide

further evidence to support the hypothesis that increased explicitness was a translation-inherent feature irrespective of the translation direction.

### **5.3 In search of increased explicitness in the translated English (TECB vs. NECB)**

According to the hypothesis of translation-inherent explicitation, the increased explicitness that characterises translated language should exist in all translations between different language pairs, regardless of the translation directions. Ideally, to test this hypothesis, a study needs to involve, if not all, as many language pairs as possible. However, this is nearly impossible to be achieved in one single study and was beyond the scope of the current thesis. Therefore, the comparison was limited to translated and non-translated Chinese texts from English and translated and non-translated English texts from Chinese. The same testing procedure that was conducted for the translated and non-translated Chinese children's literature was repeated for the translated and non-translated English. The following three subsections discuss the results from a comparison of the use of conjunctions in English translations and non-translated English originals by the overall frequency, the logico-semantic types and by each individual conjunction.

### 5.3.1 Conjunctive explicitness: The overall tendency of English conjunctions

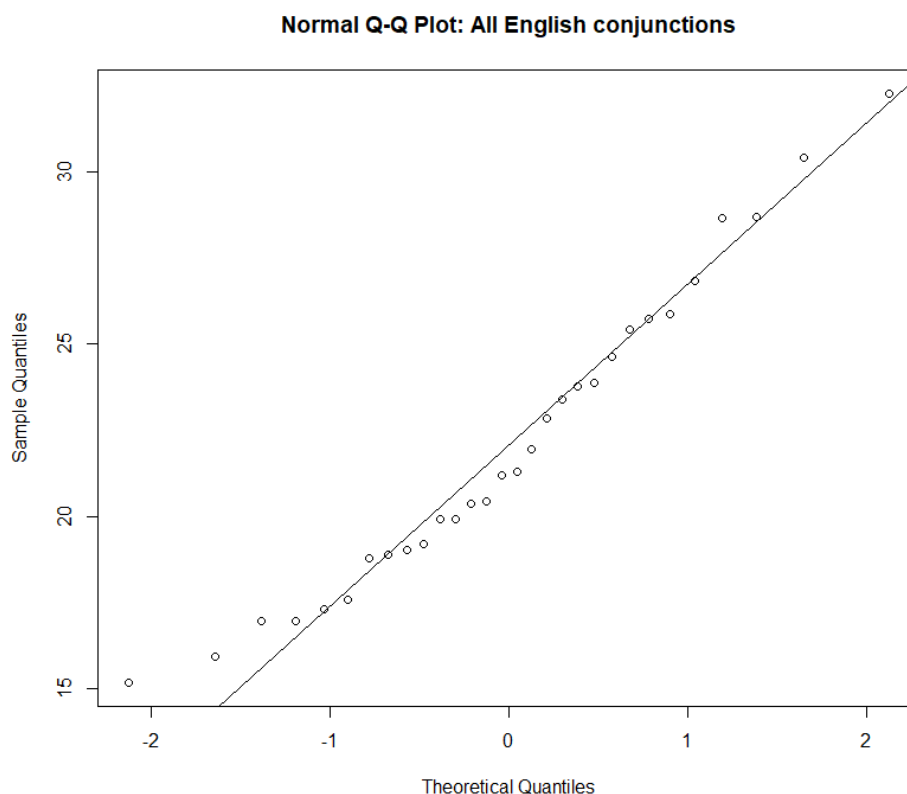


Figure 5.5: Quantile-quantile plot to assess normality: All English conjunctions

As before, the assumptions of the statistical tests were tested first. The quantile-quantile plot for all the selected English conjunctions in both corpora in Figure 5.5 indicates a normal distribution of the data, thus meeting the assumption of normality. Levene's test for equality of variances shows, however, that the assumption of equal variances was violated for the present analysis ( $F(1, 28) = 4.51, p < 0.05$ ). As a result, the non-parametric, two-samples Mann-Whitney  $U$ -test was used to test whether the differences between the two groups were significant. The results of the Mann-Whitney  $U$ -test showed that the differences in the medians were non-significant ( $W = 123, p = 0.33$ ).

As it can be seen from Figure 5.6, the overall use of conjunctions demonstrates a median normalised frequency of 23.10 per 1,000 words in the NECB, whereas the use of conjunctions occurs at a median normalised frequency of 20.40 per 1,000 words in the TECB. It is clear that the non-translation corpus had more frequent use of conjunctions than the translation corpus, and the difference between the two corpora failed to achieve statistical significance. Therefore,

increased explicitness was not found in the translated English, contradicting the hypothesis of translation-inherent increased explicitness. This is an interesting result given that increased explicitness should be expected in translated English as it is welcomed by the TL lexicogrammar or stylistic features. However, the similar degree of explicitness found in the translated texts to that of the non-translated texts suggested that the tendency towards increased explicitness might have been suppressed by the SLI from Chinese, which prefers less explicit lexicogrammatical encoding.

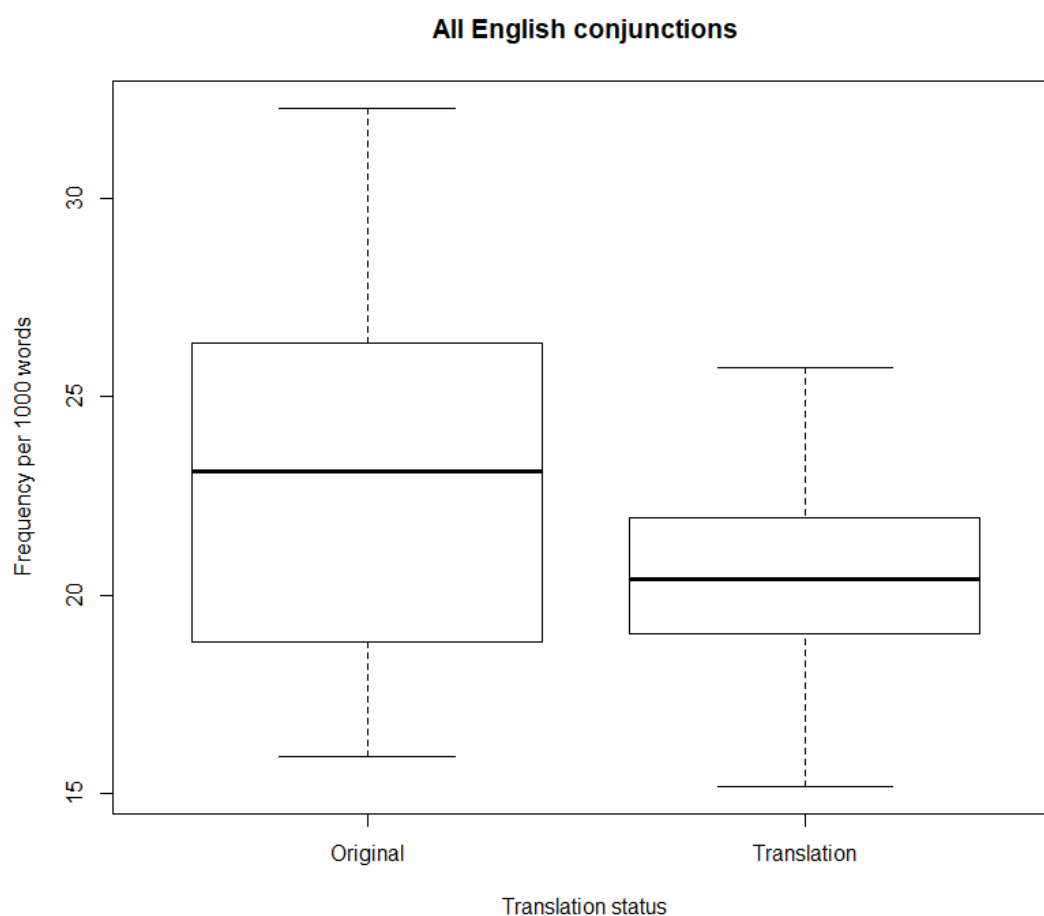


Figure 5.6: Normalised frequency of all English conjunctions (per 1,000 words) by translated status

Even though the overall frequency of conjunctions in the translated English did not demonstrate significant differences when compared to the non-translated English, it was worth exploring whether this tendency of maintaining a similar level of explicitness to the non-translated texts happened universally across all the conjunctions of all logico-semantic types or only with

certain particular conjunction(s) or particular logico-semantic types. To explore these questions, the following comparisons were conducted.

### 5.3.2 Conjunctive explicitness: Types of logico-semantic relations

The procedure that was used for the translated Chinese, as presented in Section 5.2.2, was repeated by comparing the translated English to the non-translated English by logico-semantic types and by each individual conjunction (in Section 5.3.3). Table 5.6 displays the results for the logico-semantic types demonstrating no significant differences in frequency.

Table 5.6: Logico-semantic subtypes demonstrating no significant difference<sup>22</sup>

Conjunction subtype	Median NECB	Median TECB	Result of statistical test
Causal	3.09	2.99	$W = 111, p = 0.65$
Temporal	8.86	8.17	$W = 104, p = 0.88$
Conditional positive	2.83	2.33	$W = 134, p = 0.14$

However, one logico-semantic type demonstrated significant differences in the two subcorpora: conditional concessive conjunctions were significantly more frequent in the originals than in the translations ( $W = 148, p < 0.05$ ), which is in line with the overall trend (see Figure 5.7 and the following discussion).

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<sup>22</sup> Note that the logico-semantic types were refined to four kinds. The additive conjunctions were excluded because of their outstandingly large size and complexity in this dataset (see Chapter 4 for more reasons).

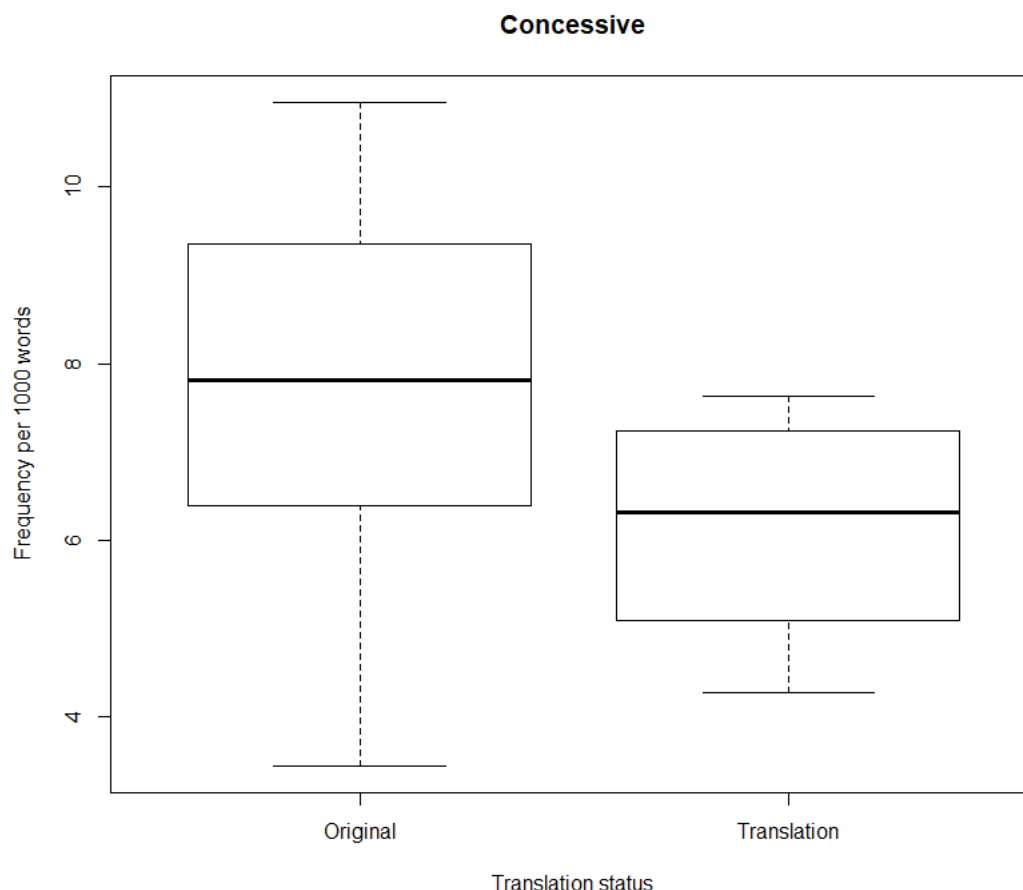


Figure 5.7: Normalised frequency of concessive conjunctions (per 1,000 words) by translated status

The boxplot in Figure 5.7 shows that the median value for the (relatively frequent) concessive conjunctions in the TECB was 6.32 per 1,000 words, whereas the NECB has a significantly higher median value of 7.81 per 1,000 words.

The interpretation of this finding gains meaning when combined with the overall result from Section 5.3.1. Although there were no significant differences in the frequencies between the TECB and NECB in the overall data, the TECB, demonstrated a less frequent use of conjunctions compared to the NECB (see Figure 5.6). When compared by logico-semantic relation, all the types showed a slightly lower frequency in the TECB (see Table 5.6), conforming to the overall tendency. In particular, the concessive conjunctions are significantly less frequently used in the TECB than in the NECB. These results suggest that in the translations from Chinese to English, SLI might have played a role in influencing the less frequent use of conjunctions in translated English as the SL (Chinese) lexicogrammar prefers

a less explicit encoding. However, while this SLI from Chinese had a perceptible effect, it was not strong enough to cause the translated texts to demonstrate significantly reduced explicitness compared to the non-translated texts. To further test this hypothesised explanation, each individual conjunctive item was analysed.

### 5.3.3 Conjunctive explicitness: Individual conjunctive items

Following the categorical comparisons in Section 5.3.2, a subsequent question was whether there were any differences in using individual conjunctions in the two comparable corpora. This might shed light on potential explanations for the findings in Sections 5.3.1 and 5.3.2 that, except for a significant difference in the conditional concessive conjunctions, the conjunctions for all the other logico-semantic types and in the overall use showed a slightly lower frequency in the translated texts than in the non-translations. The comparisons used the same protocol as for the overall and categorical analysis.

Table 5.7 displays the results for the individual conjunctions that failed to achieve a significant difference in the frequencies between the two comparable English corpora, while Table 5.8 summarises the findings for those conjunctions that were found to be significantly different in frequency between the two comparable corpora.

Table 5.7: Conjunctions demonstrating no significant difference in frequency

Conjunction	Median NECB	Median TECB	Result of statistical test
therefore	0.03	0.00	W = 120, p = 0.37
as_reason	0.16	0.16	W = 107, p = 0.77
since_reason	0.06	0.18	W = 67, p = 0.15
because	0.91	0.88	W = 96, p = 0.88
so	1.06	1.68	W = 72, p = 0.23
as_time	1.33	1.00	W = 126, p = 0.27
then_time	2.70	2.45	W = 102, p = 0.95
when	3.53	4.00	W = 81, p = 0.42
while	0.47	0.46	W = 109, p = 0.71
as soon as	0.16	0.21	W = 62, p = 0.10
then_condition	0.16	0.27	W = 59, p = 0.07
if	2.75	2.04	W = 140, p = 0.08
even if	0.08	0.09	W = 86, p = 0.55
though	0.48	0.07	W = 102, p = 0.95
however	0.18	0.13	W = 93, p = 0.77
yet	0.16	0.09	W = 119.50, p = 0.40



Table 5.8: Conjunctions demonstrating significant difference in frequency

Conjunction	Median NECB	Median TECB	Result of statistical test
for	0.60	0.01	W = 189, p < 0.001
but	6.50	4.20	W = 148, p < 0.05
since_time	0.10	0.74	W = 152, p < 0.05
although	0.10	0.28	W = 42, p < 0.05

As Tables 5.7 and 5.8 show, in general there were no significant differences in the frequency of the majority use of conjunctions in the TECB and the NECB, which is in line with the overall tendency. However, four individual items demonstrated a significant difference in frequency in the two subcorpora (TECB & NECB). Moreover, the four conjunctions had different frequency patterns, with two of them significantly more frequent in the TECB (“since\_time” and “although”) while the other two were significantly more frequent in the NECB (“for” and “but”). This result is highly suggestive of a tension between two competing forces towards increased and decreased explicitness. The causes of these contradicting patterns are further discussed in the parallel analysis in Chapter 6.

In sum, the findings showed that the translation corpus of TECB was not significantly more explicit in the overall use of conjunctions when compared to the non-translation corpus of NECB, refuting the hypothesis of translation-inherent increased explicitness. On the contrary, the overall tendency showed a slightly decreased explicitness in the translated English texts (TECB), suggesting the effects of SLI. The comparisons of the frequencies of conjunctions between the TECB and NECB across logico-semantic types confirmed the overall tendency. The tendency towards a reduced level of explicitness reached significance for the category of conditional concessive conjunctions. This could be interpreted as a manifestation of the effects of SLI. When analysed by individual conjunctions, the influence from the SL was evident from the non-homogenous tendencies across all of the conjunctions investigated, indicating that SLI was always at play (see Tables 5.7 & 5.8). With two conjunctions significantly more frequent in the TECB and two significantly more frequent in the NECB, the tension between the tendency towards increased explicitness as required by the TL and the tendency towards decreased explicitness as influenced by the SL was clearly visible.

In sum, it appeared that the increased explicitness in the translated Chinese combined with a lack of increased explicitness in the translated English was more likely related to a source-

language transfer interference effect, instead of an overall tendency towards increased explicitness (translation-inherent explicitness). In the next section, the two tendencies found in translated texts are briefly explained.

#### **5.4 Explaining the asymmetry in increased explicitness in translated texts**

Based on the analysis presented in the previous sections, two major findings can be extracted: the translated Chinese texts from English showed an increased level of explicitness when compared to the non-translated Chinese texts; while translated English texts from Chinese exhibited a similar degree of explicitness to that of the non-translated English texts. This section explores explanations for these findings.

Toury (2012) proposed two laws of translational behaviour. The law of growing standardisation posits that “in translation, source-text textemes tend to be converted into target-language (or target-culture) repertoremes” (Toury 2012, p. 304). The strong tendency to conform to conventions or norms in the TL is also referred to as “normalisation”, “conventionalisation”, “standardisation” or “conservatism”. The law of interference, in its most general form reads: “phenomena pertaining to the make-up of the source text tend to force themselves on the translators and be transferred to the target text” (Toury 2012, p. 310). Such interference has also been described in other terms, such as transfer, “source-language shining through” (Teich 2003), or “cross-linguistic influence” (Terence, 2003), which refers to the idea that translations show influence from the SL or ST, as an opposing power to the “pull” of TL conventions. As explicitness differentials exist in almost every language pair, there is, therefore, usually a tension between SLI and normalisation in respect of explicitness of grammatical encoding in translation. They can be considered as two constantly competing tendencies affecting the degree of explicitness of a translation. The relationship between these two forces has been found to be complex, and influenced by numerous variables (e.g., sociocultural norms, text type conventions, translator style; Lefer & Vogeleer, 2013). As a consequence, normalisation may be counterbalanced and sometimes overruled by SLI (Capelle & Loock, 2013; Lefer & Vogeleer, 2013; Volansky et al., 2015). Their interaction could be described by points along a cline, where normalisation (or over-normalisation) and SLI are positioned at each pole.

Ideally, for example, when translating from a language that conventionally prefers less explicitness (e.g., Chinese) into a conventionally more explicit language (e.g., English), the translator may feel the need to follow the convention of explicitness in the TL and, therefore,

explicitate the language in order to achieve a similar degree of explicitness to the comparable non-translated texts in the TL. This is what happened in the translation from Chinese to English in the present study, as reflected in the almost identical degree of explicitness found in the translated and non-translated English corpus (23.10 per 1,000 words in the NECB; 20.20 per 1,000 words in the TECB). The working mechanism behind this ideal explicitness in the English texts translated from Chinese is demonstrated in Figure 5.8.

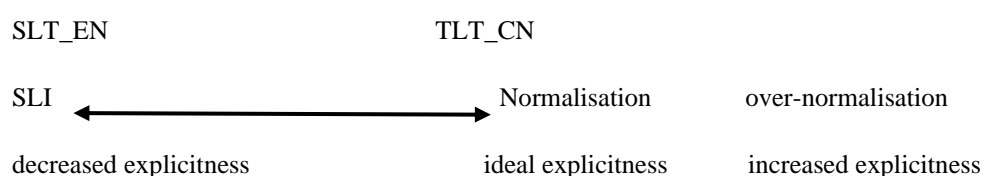


Figure 5.8: The cline of the interaction between the SLI and normalisation in effecting the degree of explicitness in translated English from Chinese

However, the ideal degree of explicitness seldom happens. An increased use of conjunctions in translated language could be promoted by their use in the STs as a consequence of the shining-through effect during the translation process, if the SL has contrastively more frequent use of conjunctions than the TL; alternatively, the increased explicitness could be the result of an exaggeration of the TL conventionality of explicitness as a consequence of over-normalisation (or hyper-conventionalisation), when the TL prefers a higher degree of explicitness and has the convention to use more conjunctions than the SL. The same applies to decreased explicitness.

In terms of the translation from English to Chinese, when translating from a language that conventionally prefers more explicitness into a conventionally less explicit language, increased explicitness has been found in translated texts. SLI has been assumed to play a role in determining the increased level of explicitness in translated Chinese in that the translated texts bear the traces of the more explicit SL features as a consequence of the source-language shining through effects during translation. Therefore, when the translation direction changes and Chinese becomes the SL, the infrequent use of conjunctions in Chinese, which is a conventional feature of the language, would not trigger the more frequent use of conjunctions in the translated English.

However, if the interference from the SL of English is so influential, then in the reversed translation direction, the tendency to follow the conventional norms of the TL English would not be any weaker and, thus, there is a high possibility of increased explicitness in the translated

texts from Chinese to English. However, in the present study an expected increased explicitness was non-existent, which means the SLI from Chinese may have been influential in pulling the conformity towards the TL of English back to an appropriate point. However, if the SLI of Chinese holds in the instance of Chinese-English translation as much as the SLI of English does in the translation direction from English into Chinese, then, accordingly, one would assume that the translated English texts would have a significantly decreased level of explicitness with less frequent use of conjunctions compared with the non-translated original English texts. However, this did not happen either in the present study. Instead, the results suggested that the tendency to follow the law of normalisation in the translated English texts was so strong that the SLI failed to counterbalance or overrule normalisation as it did in the other direction (from English to Chinese), yet not too strong to cause the translated texts to be over-explicitated because of over-normalisation.

It became clear that in the translation from English into Chinese, the SLI exacted a significant effect on the translated texts, as demonstrated by the increased explicitness, a tendency close to the conventions of the SL; at the same time, normalisation won out in the translation from Chinese to English, causing the degree of explicitness to be identical to the TL. In both directions, the English language was given more “respect” as a SL and TL than Chinese.

Van Oost et al. (2016) found a similar asymmetry in the translation between German and Dutch, where SLI was strongly present in the German-Dutch translation and normalisation was more dominant in the reverse direction. They interpreted such asymmetry as supporting evidence for Toury’s (2012) hypothesis that the tolerance of interference tends to increase when a translation happens from a highly prestigious language (e.g., German) to a less prestigious language (e.g., Dutch; see Toury, 2012; Van Oost et al., 2016). According to Toury (2012):

tolerance of interference — and hence the endurance of its manifestations — tend to increase when translation is carried out from a ‘major’ or highly prestigious language/culture, especially if the target language/culture is ‘minor’, or ‘weak’ in any other sense. (Toury, 2012, p. 278)

The relative prestige of the cultural and linguistic status for English and Chinese, and the power relations between these two languages, could account for this asymmetrically increased explicitness in translated language. English has been considered to be a more prestigious and powerful language compared to Chinese. With its global dominance, English has been one of the leading SLs in the translation market, as also reflected in the large population learning

English as a second language (Huang, 2002). Chinese, on the contrary, has been one of the least frequently SLs in the English market, and when translated, the focus has been largely limited to literature (He, 2007). This has been particularly so in children's literature translation, a text type in which Chinese has rarely been an SL except for diplomatic purposes for the dissemination of Chinese language and culture (also see Chapter 3). For example, some of the translated English children's books included in this study were translated as a series of "Classics of Modern Chinese Literature" published by the China Intercontinental Press for the purpose of "going to". Therefore, translation from English to Chinese and from Chinese to English has been unbalanced in both volume and variety (He, 2007). The unequal power relation of the two languages has led to different attitudes towards a translation strategy that is directly related to the production of translated texts:

In China, English is much better respected. In translation into English, people tend to restructure the idiomatic Chinese expressions to meet the reading expectations of the English readers. In translation into Chinese, however, translators take little care of the readers. The English structure is hardly changed, or translators risk a blame of being "unfaithful". In other words, it is always English that is respected, whether as a source or target language. The two languages are not equal in the minds of Chinese translators and critics. (Gao, 1994, p. 5)

Based on these reasons, it was not surprising to find that in the translations of the present study, a less prestigious language, such as Chinese, was more tolerant towards higher frequencies of linguistic features that were typical of highly prestigious source languages such as English than the other way around.

## **5.5 Conclusion**

This chapter discussed the results of the investigation of the increased explicitness in translated Chinese (Section 5.2) and translated English (Section 5.3). The comparisons were conducted to compare the overall use of conjunctions, by logico-semantic types and by individual conjunctive items in the translation and non-translation corpora in both languages. Increased explicitness was only found in the Chinese translated from English and not in the reverse direction. Therefore, the hypothesis of translation-inherent increased explicitness was not confirmed in this language pair. Instead, the findings suggested taking linguistic and cultural related factors into consideration. However, a comparable corpus analysis, without the

inclusion of STs could not offer a clear answer in support of the language-specific explanations. Parallel corpus analysis, including STs and TTs, needed to be carried out.

In the next chapter, the analysis thus focuses on the comparison between TL and SL to gain more insight into the increased explicitness in translated Chinese. Also, the reasons behind the non-significant differences in explicitness between the translated and original English are explored.

## Chapter 6 Investigating explicitation: Results from the parallel corpus analysis

### 6.1 Introduction

Chapter 5 compares the frequency of conjunctions used in the translations with those in the non-translations in both Chinese and English. It was found that the translations were not necessarily more explicit than the non-translations in the same TL, as this tendency was found only in the one translation direction of English to Chinese. The next question was whether the translated texts were more explicit than their STs in both English-Chinese and Chinese-English translation directions (RQ 2). According to Klaudy and Károly (2005, p. 14), translators may prefer the use of more explicit forms to the more implicit forms in a language pair, regardless of their translation direction. This proposal is referred to as the *asymmetry hypothesis*. To bring more specification and precision to the hypothesis, Becher (2011b) modified *the asymmetry hypothesis* (see Section 2.2.4 in Chapter 2). This chapter aims to test the asymmetry hypothesis following Becher (2011b), using the operationalisation of conjunctions and seek answers to the above research question.

This time, the comparisons were conducted between the translations and their SL texts in both translation directions, using a parallel corpus analysis of the original non-translated English children's books (NECB) and their Chinese translations (TCCB) on the one hand, and the original non-translated Chinese children's books (NCCB) and their English translations (TECB) on the other. According to the asymmetry hypothesis, the instances of explicitation in English-Chinese translation direction should not be counterbalanced by the instances of implicitation in the reversed direction (i.e., from Chinese to English); based on the same hypothesis, explicitations in Chinese-English translation should also be more frequent than implicitations in the translation from English to Chinese. In this sense, explicitation is a direction-independent, universal strategy of translation. The exploration in this chapter focuses on testing the validity of this hypothesis in the case of the translations between English and Chinese.

Section 6.2 focuses on the comparison between the translated Chinese texts and their STs in English, in other words, between the TCCB and the NECB, thus identifying explicitation and implicitation in the English-Chinese translations. Section 6.3 focuses on the comparison between the translated English and their STs in Chinese, in other words, between the TECB

and the NCCB, thus identifying explicitation and implicitation in the Chinese-English translations. The bi-directional comparisons between explicitation and implicitation are conducted in Section 6.4. If the occurrences of explicitation in one translation direction was not paralleled with the occurrences of implicitation in the reversed translation direction, (which was highly possible based on the findings from the previous study of Klaudy and Károly, 2005), then this result provides new evidence for the asymmetry hypothesis for the language pair of English and Chinese. Alternatively, if the explicitations in one translation direction entailed implicitations in the other direction, in other words, if there was a symmetric relation between explicitation and implicitation, the asymmetry hypothesis is rejected. Section 6.5 concludes this chapter by summarising the key findings and conclusions.

## **6.2 Explicitation and implicitation in the English-Chinese translations (TCCB & NECB)**

The following analysis involved a twofold procedure. On the one hand, by comparing the conjunctions in translated texts to their corresponding STs, the study aimed to identify cases that were not directly triggered by the use of conjunctions in the ST. They represented instances of explicitation, as the less explicit logico-semantic relation in the ST had been explicitly marked through the use of conjunctions in the TT. On the other hand, by comparing the conjunctions used in the SL corpus of the NECB and the translated TL corpus of the TCCB, the study aimed to explore the instances of implicitation in which an ST conjunction had been replaced by other, less explicit forms of expression in the TT without losing the logico-semantic meaning.

Furthermore, the comparisons between TTs in the TCCB subcorpus and STs in the NECB subcorpus carried an extra function of identifying SLI-related explicitation, as this study found (see Chapter 5) that the feature of increased explicitness was only in the translated Chinese from English, but not in the translated English from Chinese. The conclusions from the results discussed in Chapter 5 showed that the translated texts did not necessarily exhibit increased explicitness when compared to the non-translated texts in the same TL and that source-language interference may have played a strong role in accounting for the increased explicitness in the translated Chinese. To further test if the increased explicitness in the translated Chinese could be ascribed to SLI, the translated texts needed to be aligned to the English STs and examined. Only when most of the conjunctions in the TL corpus faithfully



represented the conjunctions in the SL corpus could one assume that the increased explicitness in the translated texts might be related to the SLI impact.

### 6.2.1 In search of explicitation in the TCCB translated from the NECB

Based on a comparison between the TCCB and NECB, Table 6.1 summarises the translation of all conjunctions in terms of explicitation. In general, the translation of the conjunctions reflected two types of situation: as “equivalence” or as “explicitation”. In the case of equivalence, the logico-semantic relation, which is realised by a conjunction in the ST, was directly translated in the target language through the use of an equivalent conjunction. In the case of explicitation, the logico-semantic relation, which is less explicitly represented in the ST, has been translated in the target language as a more explicitly represented relation, resulting in a translation shift from an expression conveying logico-semantic relations with a non-existent conjunction in the ST to a conjunction or an added conjunction in the TT which had no equivalent in the ST. Depending on the degree of translation shift, cases of explicitation were further categorised into “light explicitation”, where the degree of explicitness was only slightly enhanced in the translation, and “strong explicitation” where the logico-semantic meaning in the ST had been represented in a much more explicit manner in the TT (see definitions and examples in Section 4.5.2.2 in Chapter 4).

Table 6.1: Overall frequencies of equivalence and explicating shifts in translated Chinese

	Equivalence	Explicating shift ( $n = 1,827$ )	
All conjunctions	9,378	Light explicitation	Strong explicitation
$n$		469	1,358

Figure 6.1 displays the proportions of each type of translation of the conjunctions in the translated Chinese.

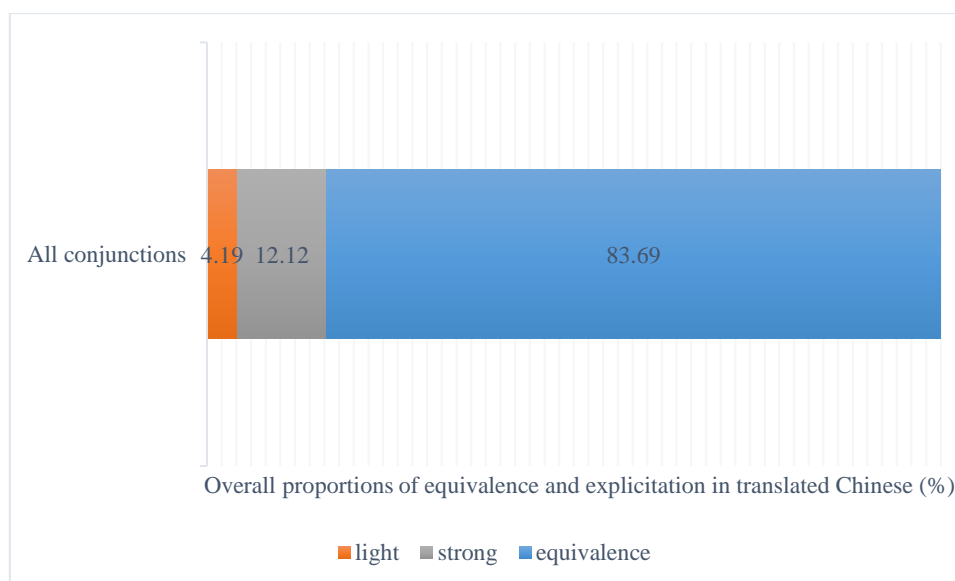


Figure 6.1: Overall proportions of equivalence and explicitation in translated Chinese

There were 9,378 cases of equivalence, accounting for 83.69% of all the occurrences. In other words, more than four fifths of the time, the conjunctions in the translation corpus of the TCCB are translations from their English equivalents. This seemed reasonable considering that, in a broader sense, the nature of translation involves searching for “equivalence”<sup>23</sup>. However, in the remaining 16.31% of the cases, the conjunctions in the translations were either shifted into or added. More specifically, in 4.19% of the cases a Chinese conjunction was shifted into from a paraphrase other than a conjunction while in 12.12% of the cases, it was translated from punctuation or zero correspondences (added by the translators) (see Figure 6.1). Table 6.2 breaks down the frequencies of light and strong explicitations for each conjunction.

Table 6.2: Frequencies of light explicitation and strong explicitation in translated Chinese

Conjunction	Chinese phonetic alphabet	English translation from dictionaries	Light explicitation <i>n</i>	Strong explicitation <i>n</i>	Overall <i>n</i>
因为*	yīnwéi	because	214	198	412
但(是)	dàn(shì)	regardless of, no matter (what, who, etc.)	5	389	394
如果*	rúguǒ	if, in case (of), in the event of	85	186	271
(只)不过	(zhǐ)búguò	but, yet, still, nevertheless	2	146	148

<sup>23</sup> Catford (1965) characterised translation equivalence as follows: “the SL and TL items rarely have ‘the same meaning’ in the linguistic sense; but they can function in the same situation. In total translation, SL and TL texts or items are translation equivalences when they are interchangeable in a given situation” (p. 49).

然后	ránhòu	then, after that, afterwards	7	115	122
而且	érqiě	and also; moreover; in addition, but also	21	90	111
于是	yúshì	so, then, thereupon, hence	19	90	109
(紧)接着	jǐn(jiēzhe)	(right) after that, and then, next	58	45	103
当*	dāng	when	17	37	54
因此	yīncǐ	so, therefore, for this reason, consequently	38	14	52
即使*	jíshǐ	but, however, only	3	48	51

Recalling the results from the comparable corpus analysis in Chapter 5 (Section 5.2.1), overall, there were significantly more conjunctions used in the translated Chinese texts than in the non-translated Chinese texts (13.24 per 1,000 words, in TCCB and 7.76 per 1,000 words in NCCB). After aligning each of these conjunctions that demonstrated significantly higher frequencies in the TTs, with their equivalents in the STs, it became clear that while less than one fifth of these conjunctions resulted from explicating shifts during the translation process, the majority of them could be explained as the consequence of a direct translation from the English conjunctions in the ST. The more frequent use of conjunctions in translations (TCCB) could thus, it seems, be largely ascribed to the translation of ST conjunctions, suggesting the effect of SLI.

However, it would be imprudent to consider that SLI was the final or only explanation, since the extent to which the increased explicitness could be related to the SLI had not been statistically determined. Needless to say, not all the translations of conjunctions could simply be described as a result of SLI. It was only the cases in which the occurrence of a conjunction was not lexicogrammatically needed or stylistically required by the TL that could be counted as a SLI-explicitation (see the detailed discussion in Section 6.2.1.1). In order to know the exact role of SLI and the correct number of instances of explicitation, these occurrences of conjunctions were further investigated.

Before starting to count the cases of explicitation, the definition of “equivalence” defined in Chapter 4 needs to be revisited.

### 6.2.1.1 The concept of equivalence: Revisited and re-defined

Following the definition of “equivalence” used in Denturck’s (2012) and Zufferey and Cartoni’s (2014) studies, in Chapter 4 this study defined “equivalence” as the cases in which a SL conjunction was translated into a TL conjunction. This concept needed to be redefined in order to be used to identify true cases of SLI-related explicitation in the translations between English and Chinese. This was because due to the differences in optionality of the use of conjunctions in English and Chinese, some of the cases of equivalence in the English-Chinese translations could be explicitation if the conjunction in the Chinese translation, the use of which is optional or even redundant in Chinese grammar, was used because of an equivalent conjunction in the ST. In these cases, the conjunction-to-conjunction translation was not treated as an instance of equivalence, but an instance of “indirect explicitation”<sup>24</sup>. In other words, the cases of indirect explicitation were masked as “equivalence” in the English-Chinese translation. These “pseudo” equivalence cases needed to be identified and recoded as “indirect explicitation”.

According to Halliday and Matthiessen (2014, p. 26), a language is a complex semiotic system with various strata grouped into two stratal planes: the content and the expression planes. The “content” strata include “lexicogrammar” and “semantics” (see Figure 6.2). These two strata “allow the meaning potential of a language to expand, more or less indefinitely” and “the relationship among the strata – the process of linking one level of organisation with another – is called realisation” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p. 25). Semantic meanings are realised by lexis and grammar (lexicogrammar). This means, for example, the same logico-semantic meaning could be conveyed by different lexicogrammatical expressions. These various realisations could be different in terms of the level of explicitness. Along the cline of the degree of explicitness, an expression containing conjunctions is situated at the highest level of explicitness (see Section 4.2.3; see also more detailed explanations in Denturck, 2012, p. 218), whereas an expression of the same logico-semantic meaning without the use of any conjunctive device is situated at the other end of the cline, representing the lowest level of explicitness.

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<sup>24</sup> In this study, “indirect explicitation” was used for easy reference in contrast to “direct explicitation”, while other studies might have used “optional explicitation” to refer to the same concept.

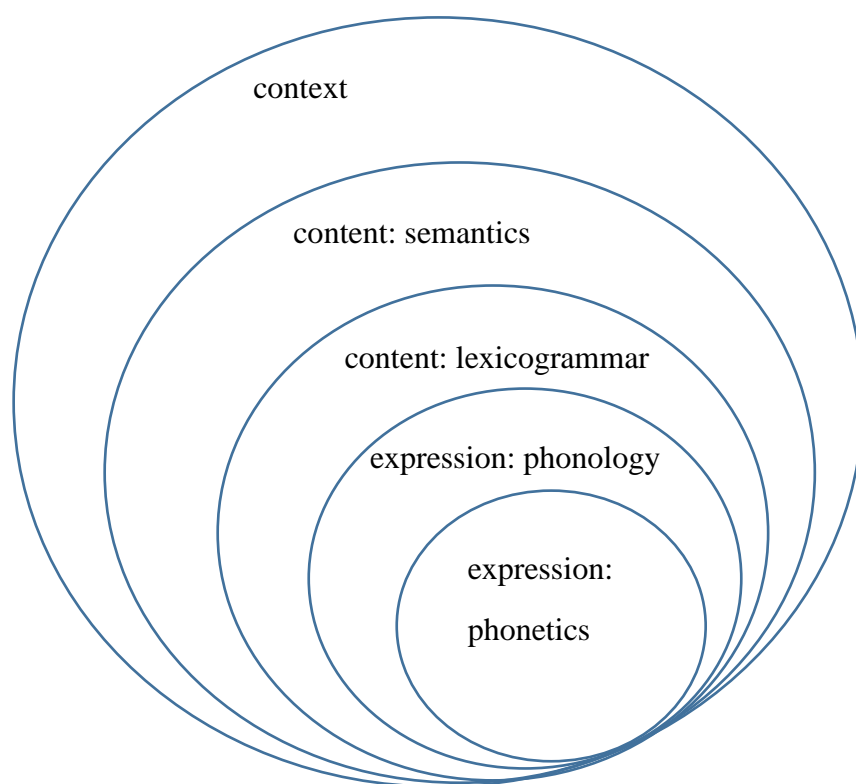


Figure 6.2: Stratification of language

In translation, equivalence can be viewed from different perspectives. In terms of stratification, a translation equivalence can be achieved at either logico-semantic level (as semantic equivalence) or lexical/syntactic level (as lexicogrammatical equivalence). Moreover, when semantic equivalence is guaranteed in the translation, the equivalence at the lower stratum (i.e., in lexicogrammar) can be further assessed in terms of the explicitness of the lexicogrammatical realisation in the stratum below; to realise the same semantic meaning, the lexicogrammatical choices in translation can vary, being more explicit, or perfectly equivalent (i.e., equivalent in terms of explicitness) or less explicit than the ST. Previous work in linguistics-based translation studies often have emphasised the equivalence at the semantic level (e.g., Baker, 1992; Catford, 1965; House, 2001; Nida, 1964). Indeed, as Halliday (1992) argued, a key feature of translation is concerned with meaning, which suggests that equivalence at the semantic level is often, if not always, essential to ensure translation quality. In this sense, if one can confidently assume that equivalence has been achieved at the semantic level, the exploration of explicitation can then focus on how explicitly/implicitly the semantic meaning is translated through various lexicogrammatical choices in the TT (Figure 6.3 demonstrates the translation of semantic meaning through different lexicogrammatical choices). In the case of the translation of logico-semantic meaning, this means that one can examine if the same type of logico-semantic

meaning has been realised through: (i) an equivalent conjunction in the TT, representing the same level of explicitness in realising the logico-semantic relation; (ii) or an expression in the TT that realises the logico-semantic relation in a less/more explicit manner.

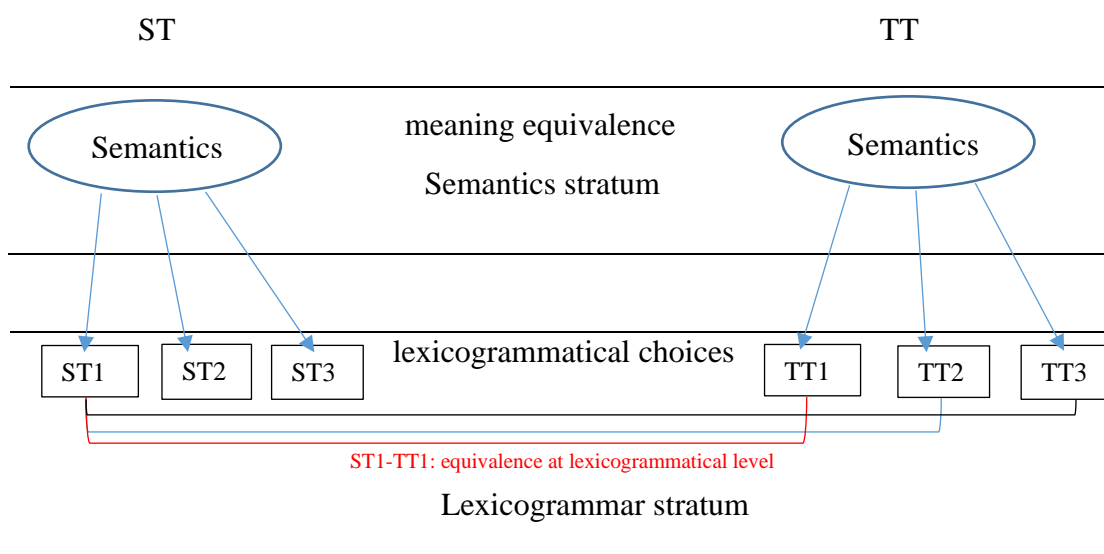


Figure 6.3: Translation equivalence at the semantic and lexicogrammatical strata

Example (40) is provided to further illustrate the relation between the equivalence of strata and the equivalence in terms of explicitness by using variations of the translation of a temporal expression extracted from *Harry Potter and the Sorcerer's Stone* (Rowling, 1997). Table 6.3 summarises the translation status at the two linguistic strata of the examples. The subsequent paragraph discusses how the different lexicogrammatical choices can create differences in terms of explicitness.

(40)

He mounted the broom and kicked hard against the ground **and** up, up he soared; air rushed through his hair, and his robes whipped out behind him [EN\_ST]

tā qíshàng fēitiān sǎozhǒu yòng lì dēng le yí xià dì miàn yú shì tā shēng le shàng qù kōng  
a. 他 骑上 飞天 扫帚，用力 蹬了 一下 地面，于是 他 升了 上去，空  
qì hū hū de guā guò tā de tóu fā cháng páo zài shēn hòu hū lā lā de piāo yáng  
气 呼呼 地 刮过 他的 头发，长袍 在 身后 呼啦啦 地 飘扬 [CN\_TT]

He mounted the broom, kicked hard against the ground, **then** he soared up, air rushed through his hair, robes whipped out behind him [Gloss]

tā qíshàng fēitiān sǎozhǒu yòng lì dēng le yí xià dì miàn tā shēng le shàng qù kōng qì  
b. 他 骑上 飞天 扫帚，用力 蹬了 一下 地面，他 升了 上去，空气  
hū hū de guā guò tā de tóu fā cháng páo zài shēn hòu hū lā lā de piāo yáng  
呼呼 地 刮过 他的 头发，长袍 在 身后 呼啦啦 地 飘扬

He mounted the broom, kicked hard against the ground, he soared up, air rushed through

his hair, robes whipped out behind him [Gloss]

Table 6.3: Summary of equivalence status of ST, TTa and TTb

Text	ST	TTa Yes/none	TTb Yes/none
Equivalence at logico-semantic level	Sequence	Yes: Sequence	Yes: Sequence
Equivalence at lexicogrammatical level	Conjunction “and”	Yes: Conjunction “于是 <i>yúshì</i> then”	No: No conjunction

In this example, both versions a and b are considered as acceptable translations of the ST, meaning that they are equivalences to the ST in terms of the logico-semantic meaning of temporal sequence. However, the same logico-semantic meaning is translated differently in TTa and TTb by using different lexicogrammatical choices: with/without a conjunctive item. The different realisations represent different levels of explicitness. The use of conjunction 于是 *yúshì* ‘then’ in TTa makes it lexically equivalent to the ST conjunction of “and”, while the omission of a conjunction in TTb makes it a lexically less explicit translation. With the use of the conjunction 于是 *yúshì* ‘then’, TTa demonstrates the same level of explicitness as the ST while TTb demonstrates a lower level of explicitness in translating the same logico-semantic meaning.

In terms of using conjunctions to express logico-semantic relations, many conjunctions are lexicogrammatically obligatory in English, whereas to realise the same logico-semantic relations in Chinese, the use of conjunctions often becomes optional. Stylistically, in English the unmarked choice in suggesting the logico-semantic relation between two clauses is to use a conjunction, which is often grammatically obligatory, whereas in Chinese the conjunctions realising the same logico-semantic relationships are often elliptical and the readers need to rely on the context to interpret the relationship. In this sense, English is considered to be a more explicit language while Chinese is a more implicit one (Xiao & Hu, 2015). As an exemplification of this distinct feature of the two languages, Example (41) presents an extract from an original Chinese children’s book, named 城南旧事 *chéngnánjiùshì* *Memories of Peking: South Side Stories* (Lin, 1960).

Similar to Example (40), this piece of text narrates a sequence of motions acted by the protagonist. As is evident from these two examples ((40) & (41a)), the conjunction of “and” occurs twice to connect the three actions in the English extract (‘mounted’, ‘kicked’, ‘soared up’); in contrast, the Chinese extract only has one conjunction (一 *yī* ‘as soon as’) even though there are more actions (lift, saw, tilted, puckered, smiled) being taken, over a greater sentence length. The realisation of the sequential relation simply depends on the segment’s ordering in the narration. That is not to say that the use of a conjunction is unacceptable. Instead, a conjunction could be relatively freely added; just as in Example (41b), the addition of the conjunction of 于是 *yúshì* ‘then’ would not likely create any lexicogrammatical problem and it would likely make sense to a native speaker of Mandarin Chinese. However, as Example (41a) shows, the Chinese literature prefers “no formalism” (Lü, 1999, p. 8), and an alternative representation of the logico-semantic relation, which is even more conventional in Chinese, is to simply present the clauses without using the conjunction 于是 *yúshì* ‘then’.

(41)

- a. *yī tái tóu kànjiàn māmā gézhe bōlichuāng zài wūlǐ zhǐdiǎn zhe wǒ wǒ wāi zhe*  
 一 抬 头， 看 见 妈 妈 隔 着 玻 璃 窗 在 屋 里 指 点 着 我， 我 歪 着  
*tóu zhòuqǐ bízi xiàng māmā mīmī de xiào le xiào*  
 头， 皱 起 鼻 子， 向 妈 妈 眯 眯 地 笑 了 笑。 [CN\_ST]

As soon as I lifted my head, I saw my mum was pointing at me behind the window. I tilted my head, wrinkled my nose and smiled at mum with my eyes curled. [Gloss]

Lifting my head, I saw my mum was pointing at me behind the glass window, so I tilted my head, puckered my nose and smiled at her with my eyes curled. [EN\_TT]

- b. *yī tái tóu kànjiàn māmā gézhe bōlichuāng zài wūlǐ zhǐdiǎn zhe wǒ yúshì wǒ wāi zhe*  
 一 抬 头， 看 见 妈 妈 隔 着 玻 璃 窗 在 屋 里 指 点 着 我， 于 是 我 歪 着  
*tóu zhòuqǐ bízi xiàng māmā mīmī de xiào le xiào*  
 头， 皱 起 鼻 子， 向 妈 妈 眯 眯 地 笑 了 笑。

As soon as I lifted my head, I saw my mum was pointing at me behind the window. **So** I tilted my head, wrinkled my nose and smiled at mum with my eyes curled. [Gloss]

Generally speaking, in English-Chinese translations, there have been several different ways of handling conjunctions. An ST conjunction could be translated into a conjunction in the TT, resulting in a conjunction-for-conjunction translation. Alternatively, a conjunction in the ST could be rendered into a translation containing no conjunction, thus, a situation of conjunction-for-no conjunction. In some cases, a conjunction in the ST can be translated into a conjunction in the TL and the use of this conjunction in the TL is obligatory in grammar, suggesting an



elliptical use is impossible. Then, in this case, “equivalence proper” is achieved, meaning that the ST and the TT are equivalent not only at the semantic level (in logico-semantic meaning), but also at the lexical level, and the equivalence is also demonstrated by the same degree of explicitness in representing the logico-semantic relations.

In some other cases, a conjunction in the ST is translated into a conjunction in the TL, but the use of this conjunction is optional in the translated text. In such situations, an explicitation is identified in that the translation is equivalent in terms of logico-semantic meaning, and seemingly equivalent at the lexical level, but is more explicit in terms of lexical realisation and, hence, has a higher degree of explicitness. Since this form of explicitation involves the use of a corresponding conjunction in the TT, the conjunction-for-conjunction translation could be regarded as an equivalence at the lexical level. However, from the TL readers’ perspective, the logico-semantic relations presented in the translation become more explicit compared with the situation of non-translated original texts in the TL where conjunctions are more often omitted. Such translation is labelled as “indirect explicitation” in this study. Indirect explicitation reflects the influence from the SL in that the prior cognitive activation of the SL might not be successfully suppressed during the translation process so that, as a consequence, translators might fail to perform (the more typical) omission of optional conjunctions in the TL.

Sometimes, a conjunction that is used in the ST is omitted in the translation, but such omission is likely to have little impact on the logico-semantic meaning. In other words, the logico-semantic meaning still exists in the translation, though implicitly without the use of any conjunctive items. In this situation, the lexical realisation of the logico-semantic meaning in the TL is implicitated and the degree of explicitness is downgraded. A case like this is termed “direct implicitation” in this thesis. Among these cases, light implicitation refers to cases where the logico-semantic relation is no longer realised by a conjunction as it was in the ST but is realised by other relational expressions (e.g., shifting out). If the conjunction is completely omitted without any substitution, then it could be said that a strong implicitation is happening (also see Chapter 4 for more descriptions of light and strong implicitation).

Theoretically speaking, there is also “obligatory implicitation”, which refers to the situation where a conjunction, which is obligatory in use in the ST, is omitted in the translation because the use of an equivalent conjunction in the TL would violate grammatical principles or greatly impact the naturalness of the language. However, this situation rarely exists in reality and was not evident in the current datasets.

In another type of situation, no conjunction is used to realise the logico-semantic relation in the ST, but in the translation, a conjunction, which is grammatically optional, is added in the TL to indicate the equivalent logico-semantic meaning. In this situation, the logico-semantic relation between the two clauses becomes foregrounded due to the use of a conjunction, and this is a typical case of “direct explicitation”. Within direct explicitation instances, light explicitation refers to cases where a relational expression has been upgraded to a conjunction (e.g., shifting into). If a conjunction has been added in the TT with a blank or punctuation correspondence in the ST, it could be said that a strong explicitation is happening (also see Chapter 4 for more descriptions of light and strong explicitation).

In addition, there are other cases where no conjunction is used in the ST, but one is added in the translation, which is grammatically obligatory in the TL in order to realise the same logico-semantic meaning. A case like this is termed “obligatory explicitation”. The main difference between an obligatory explicitation and a direct explicitation is that the former is grammatically driven, whereas the reasons for the latter are more complicated and may involve several translation-inherent factors.

Corresponding to indirect explicitation, there exists indirect implicitation, a case that involves the translation from a non-conjunction into a non-conjunction, meaning that when no conjunctions are used in the ST, no conjunctions are translated in the TT: lexical equivalence seems achieved at first glance, while in fact it represents a case of indirect implicitation. In this situation, an addition of a conjunction in the TT is grammatically and stylistically possible in the TT and typically would be done by a TL text writer but the translator chooses not to use a conjunction and, therefore, the choice causes the translation implicitated compared to the occurrence of a conjunction. However, since there is no occurrence of a conjunction in either ST or TT, these cases are impossible to extract from the texts using corpus tools and, therefore, were not included in the data analysis in this study.

Based on the discussion above, all of the potential situations involving explicitations and implicitations are summarised in Table 6.4.

Table 6.4: The possible situations a conjunction could be translated into/out in English-Chinese and Chinese-English translation

Use of conjunction in the ST Yes/none	Use of conjunction in the TT Yes/none	Change of optionality	Equivalence achieved in: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>logico-semantic relations</li> <li>lexis</li> <li>explicitness</li> </ul>	Translation status
English ST Yes	Chinese TT Yes	Compulsory-compulsory	Logico-semantic equivalent, lexical equivalent, same level of explicitness	Equivalence proper
	Chinese TT Yes	Compulsory-optional	Logico-semantic equivalent, lexical equivalent, higher level of explicitness	Indirect explication
	Chinese TT None	Compulsory-optional	Logico-semantic equivalent, lexical omission, lower level of explicitness	Direct impication (light; strong)
	*Chinese TT None	Compulsory-compulsory	Logico-semantic equivalent, lexical omission, lower level of explicitness	Obligatory impication
English ST None	Chinese TT Yes	Optional-optional	Logico-semantic equivalent, lexical addition, higher level of explicitness	Direct explication (light; strong)
	*Chinese TT Yes	Optional-compulsory	Logico-semantic equivalent, lexical addition, higher level of explicitness	Obligatory explication
Chinese ST Yes	English TT Yes	Compulsory-compulsory	Logico-semantic equivalent, lexical equivalent, same level of explicitness	Equivalence proper
	*English TT Yes	Compulsory-optional	Logico-semantic equivalent, lexical equivalence, higher level of explicitness	Indirect explication
	English TT None	Compulsory-optional	Logico-semantic equivalent, lexical omission, lower level of explicitness	Direct impication (light, strong)
	*English TT None	Compulsory-compulsory	Logico-semantic equivalent, lexical omission, lower level of explicitness	Obligatory impication
Chinses ST None	English TT Yes	optional-optional	Logico-semantic equivalent, lexical addition, higher level of explicitness	Direct explication (light, strong)

	English TT Yes	Optional- compulsory	Logico-semantic equivalent, lexical addition, higher level of explicitness	Obligatory explicitation
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\*Cases that theoretically exist but are unlikely to happen in this study's dataset.

To identify the cases of “equivalence proper” and “indirect explicitation”, ideally, all the cases of so-called “equivalence” in the present study's data set needed to be meticulously re-read and re-coded. However, this identification process was laborious, time-consuming and error prone as each of these concordance lines needed to be manually read and judged according to their usage; furthermore, there was an overwhelming number of equivalent cases (9,378 concordance lines). A compromise was decided on to randomly sample 1,000 cases that had already been labelled as “equivalence” that suggested that a conjunction-for-conjunction translation had been identified. After extracting these samples using the *sample* function in Rstudio, the sampled texts were read through and coded further following a few agreed rules, developed by two independent annotators (the previously used annotators). Once the instances of “equivalence proper” were identified, the rest were categorised as “indirect explicitation”. The rules used to identify “equivalence proper” are provided below.

The key in identifying instances of “equivalence proper” was to examine if the optionality of the conjunction used in the TT had changed. When a conjunction that was obligatory in the ST had been translated into a conjunction that could not be omitted in the TT, the translation involved in such a case was recognised as “equivalence proper” in the data analysis. There were several situations where the translation of a conjunction could not be omitted in the TT:

- a. in cases where the logico-semantic relations were rather weak; in these cases, the omission of a conjunction was not recommended because without the conjunction, the logico-semantic relation could not easily be interpreted and, moreover, the coherence of the text would be severely compromised
- b. in cases where conjunctions were the only means to realise cohesion, and the use of a conjunction was needed to maintain cohesion
- c. in cases where there were multiple layers of logico-semantic relations in the ST and omission of some conjunctive items that indicated these relations had already taken place in the translation; in this case the conjunction could no longer be omitted as it was needed as minimal means to maintain the multi-layered logico-semantic meaning in the TT.

The application of these principles is further illustrated by Examples (42) to (46).

(42)

a.

hòulái tā tūrán fàngkāi zuǒjiǎo měng tī nàgè mùtǒng zhèxià kě méi suànjì hǎo yīn  
后来，他 突然 放开 左脚，猛 踢 那个 木桶。这下 可 没 算计 好，因  
wéi tā zuǒjiǎo chuān de zhèngshì nàzhī qiánmiàn lùzhe liǎnggè jiǎozhǐtóu de xié yúshì tā kuángháo  
为 他 左脚 穿 的 正是 那只 前面 露着 两个 脚趾头 的 鞋，于是，他 狂嚎  
yīshēng jiào dé rén tóupí fāzhà  
一 声，叫 得 人 头皮 发炸， [CN\_TT]

Later, he suddenly let go of his left foot and fiercely kicked the barrel. But it was not a good judgement. His left foot was wearing the boot that had a couple of toes leaking out of the front end of it. So he let out a howl which made people's scalp burst. [Gloss]

and at last he let out with his left foot all of a sudden and fetched the tub a rattling kick. But it warn't good judgment, **because** that was the boot that had a couple of his toes leaking out of the front end of it; **so** now he raised a howl that fairly made a body's hair raise, [EN\_ST]

b.

zhèxià kě méi suànjì hǎo tā zuǒjiǎo chuān de zhèngshì nàzhī qiánmiàn lùzhe liǎnggè jiǎozhǐtóu de  
这下 可 没 算计 好，他 左脚 穿 的 正是 那只 前面 露着 两个 脚趾头 的  
xié yúshì tā kuángháo yīshēng jiào dé rén tóupí fāzhà  
鞋，于是，他 狂嚎 一 声，叫 得 人 头皮 发炸，

But it was not a good judgement. His left foot was wearing the boot that had a couple of toes leaking out of the front end of it. **So** he let out a howl which made people's scalp burst. [Gloss]

c.

!<sup>25</sup> zhèxià kě méi suànjì hǎo yīnwéi tā zuǒjiǎo chuān de zhèngshì nàzhī qiánmiàn lùzhe liǎnggè jiǎozhǐ  
这下 可 没 算计 好，**因为** 他 左脚 穿 的 正是 那只 前面 露着 两个 脚趾  
tóu de xié tā kuángháo yīshēng jiào dé rén tóupí fāzhà  
头 的 鞋，他 狂嚎 一 声，叫 得 人 头皮 发炸，

But it was not a good judgement. **Because** his left foot was wearing the boot that had a couple of toes leaking out of the front end of it. He let out a howl which made people's scalp burst. [Gloss]

In Example (42), two causal conjunctions are used in the translation (Example 42a): 因为 *yīnwéi* 'because' and 于是 *yúshì* 'so then'. 因为 *yīnwéi* 'because' is translated from the English conjunction 'because', and 于是 *yúshì* 'so then' is the translation of "so". However, the two

<sup>25</sup> The exclamation mark (!) indicates a problematic use in language.

conjunctions belong to different translation categories, with 因为 *yīnwéi* ‘because’ a case of indirect explicitation, and 于是 *yúshì* ‘so then’ an instance of equivalence proper. In the case of the first conjunction, 因为 *yīnwéi* ‘because’ is used to backward link the previous clause in an effect and cause order. The logico-semantic relation of causality is emphasised with the use of a strong causal conjunction. This means that the relationship between Event A (这下可没算计好 *zhèxià kě méi suànjì hǎo* ‘it was not a good judgment’) and Event B (他左脚穿的正是那只前面露着两个脚趾头的鞋 *tā zuǒjiǎo chuān de zhèngshì nàzhī qiánmiàn lùzhe liǎnggè jiǎozhǐtóu de xié* ‘his left foot was wearing the boot that had a couple of his toes leaking out of the front end of it’) is straightforward: the latter acts as an enhancement to explain why “it was not a good judgment”. In comparison, in Example (42b), the omission of the conjunction of 因为 *yīnwéi* ‘because’ would not cause meaning loss in terms of the logico-semantic relation because the relation can be easily inferred from the local context and the lack of a conjunction would not cause any grammatical problems. Moreover, the omission of 因为 *yīnwéi* ‘because’ in Example (42b) would not cause much of a problem in terms of the coherence, either, as the text can still be coherently read by a Chinese reader. Based on these reasons, the occurrence of the conjunction 因为 *yīnwéi* ‘because’ was more likely triggered by its equivalent in the ST and, therefore, Example (42b) was regarded as indirect explicitation.

Furthermore, Example (42) also involves a causal-sequential relation denoted by the conjunction 于是 *yúshì* ‘so then’. The case of 于是 *yúshì* ‘so then’ tells a different story. In the first two examples (Examples (42a) and (42b)), 于是 *yúshì* ‘so then’ cannot be omitted because the logico-semantic relation of cause-and-consequence between Event A (他左脚穿的正是那只前面露着两个脚趾头的鞋 *tā zuǒjiǎo chuān de zhèngshì nàzhī qiánmiàn lùzhe liǎnggè jiǎozhǐtóu de xié* ‘his left foot was wearing the boot that had a couple of his toes leaking out of the front end of it’) and Event B (他狂嚎一声，叫得人头皮发炸 *tā kuángháo yīshēng jiào dé rén tóupí fāzhà* ‘he let out a howl which made people’s scalp burst’) is weak and difficult to infer without the conjunction 于是 *yúshì* ‘so then’ (see the problem in Example 42c). Based on this, the translation of the conjunction “so” into the conjunction 于是 *yúshì* ‘so then’ was categorised as a case of equivalence proper.

To clarify this point further, Example (43) is presented as a case for comparison, in which the logico-semantic relation is stronger. The Event A (手指堵着耳朵 *shǒuzhǐ dǔzhe ěrduǒ* ‘stuck

her fingers in her ears’) and Event B (她不想再听下去 *tā bùxiǎng zài tīng xiàqù* ‘she would not listen any more’) follow a relatively straightforward effect-and-cause relation as 耳朵 *ěrdǎo* ‘ears’ and 听 *tīng* ‘listen’ are semantically linked, which do not necessarily require the use of a conjunction when translated into Chinese as the relation could be easily inferred from the context and grammatically the use of a conjunction to connect the two clauses is not obligatory. As shown by Example (43b), even without the conjunction 因为 *yīnwéi* ‘because’, the logico-semantic relation is still inferable and the coherence is intact. In this case, the retainment of the conjunction is unnecessary and, thus, Example (43a) represents a case of indirect explicitation.

(43)

- wǒ bù xiāngxìn nǐ mǎlì shuō tā zhuǎnguò shēn shǒuzhǐ dǔzhe ěrdǎo yīnwéi tā bù  
 a. “我不相信你。”玛丽说，她转过身，手指堵着耳朵，因为她不想再听下去。  
 xiǎng zài tīng xiàqù [CN\_TT]  
 “I don’t believe you,” Mary said, she turned around, fingers plugging her ears, because she didn’t want to listen anymore. [Gloss]

“I don’t believe you,” said Mary; and she turned her back and stuck her fingers in her ears, because she would not listen any more. [EN\_ST]

- wǒ bù xiāngxìn nǐ mǎlì shuō tā zhuǎnguò shēn shǒuzhǐ dǔzhe ěrdǎo tā bùxiǎng zài  
 b. “我不相信你。”玛丽说，她转过身，手指堵着耳朵，不想再听下去。  
 tīng xiàqù

“I don’t believe you,” Mary said, she turned around, fingers plugging her ears, didn’t want to listen anymore. [Gloss]

To illustrate the execution of Rule b, Examples (44) and (45) are provided. Example (44) represents the case of equivalence proper while Example (45) depicts indirect explicitation.

In the translation for Example (44), the subject 他 *tā* ‘he’ carries out a series of six continuous actions (underlined and numbered), starting from 冲到马路对面 *chōngdào mǎlù duìmiàn* ‘rushed across the road’. Actions 1-3 are positioned to realise the sequential order whereas Actions 3 and 4 are connected by a conjunction 然后 *ránhòu* ‘then’. At first glance, there seems to be no corresponding English conjunction for this conjunction in the ST. However, although a local correspondence of 然后 *ránhòu* ‘then’ is missing, it could be treated as the translation of the conjunction “and”. Quite different from the English ST, in which cohesion has been

realised by the pronouns “he”, “his” and “him” (in bold in Example (44a)) and the conjunction “and”, only 他 *tā* “him” and 然后 *ránhòu* ‘then’ are used to realise cohesion and 然后 *ránhòu* ‘then’ is the only device to link these four movements in the translation of Example (44a). In this case the presence of 然后 *ránhòu* ‘then’ becomes indispensable, because otherwise, the sentence would be read awkwardly by a native Mandarin speaker. From the perspective of translating the ST, a more “faithful” way of translation would be like Example (44b) in which the conjunction 然后 *ránhòu* ‘then’ and pronoun 他 *tā* ‘he’ are both used to align with their counterparts in the ST. If that is the case, the conjunction 然后 *ránhòu* ‘then’ can be omitted because the realisation of cohesion no longer merely relies on the conjunction, but the pronoun has also contributed to it, thus allowing the possibility of omitting the conjunction, as indicated by the brackets in Example (44b).

(44)

a.

tā chōngdào mǎlù duìmiàn huídào bàngōngshì lìshēng fēnfù mìshū búyào dǎrǎo tā  
 他 冲到 马路 对面<sup>1</sup>, 回到 办公室<sup>2</sup>, 厉声 吩咐 秘书 不要 打扰 他<sup>3</sup>,  
 ránhòu zhuāqǐ huàtǒng gāngyào bōtōng jiālǐde diànhuà línshí yòu biànlè guà  
 然后 抓起 话筒<sup>4</sup>, | 刚要 拨通 家里的 电话<sup>5</sup>, 临时 又 变了 卦<sup>6</sup>。  
 [CN\_TT]

He rushed across the road, went back to the office, snapped at the secretary not to disturb him, **he then** grabbed the phone and just about to finish dialling home number, changed his mind. [Gloss]

**He** dashed back across the road, hurried up to **his** office, snapped at **his** secretary not to disturb **him**, seized **his** telephone, **and** had almost finished dialing his home number when he changed his mind. [EN\_ST]

b.

tā chōngdào mǎlù duìmiàn huídào bàngōngshì lìshēng fēnfù mìshū búyào dǎrǎo tā  
 他 冲到 马路 对面, 回到 办公室, 厉声 吩咐 秘书 不要 打扰 他。  
 ránhòu tā zhuāqǐ huàtǒng gāngyào bōtōng jiālǐde diànhuà línshí yòu biànlè guà  
 (然后) 他 抓起 话筒, 刚要 拨通 家里的 电话, 临时 又 变了 卦。

He rushed across the road, went back to the office, snapped at the secretary not to disturb him, **(then) he** grabbed the phone and just about to finish dialling home number, changed his mind. [Gloss]



(45)

tā zhēnde bú jièyì zāo chizé yīnwéi chizé yìwèi zhe xiǎohuǒzǐ zài zhǎng lìqì zhǎng  
他 真的 不 介意 遭 斥责, 因为 斥责 意味 着 小伙子 在 长 力气、长  
jīngshén  
精神 。

[CN\_TT]

He really doesn't mind being scolded, because scolding means that the young man is gaining strength and spirit. [Gloss]

He really did not mind being snubbed **since** the snubbing meant that the lad was gaining strength and spirit. [EN\_ST]

In cases where there were more than one item used to realise cohesion, the conjunction was more likely to be elliptical. Example (45) illustrates this situation.

In Example (45), in the TT, cohesion is realised through the use of the conjunction 因为 *yīnwéi* 'because' and the repetition of the lexical verb 斥责 *chizé* 'snub'. In this case, the conjunction is optional as cohesion could still be achieved through the repetition of the lexical verb. However, in reality, the conjunction is retained in this example as its use was probably triggered by seeing its equivalent conjunction in the ST, which is obligatory in English. The shift from an obligatory use in the ST to the optional use in the TT makes the example a case of indirect explication.

Example (46) also shows an example that involves two layers of logico-semantic relations: concessive and sequential. As can be seen in the English ST, the concessive conjunction "but" and the temporal sequential conjunction "then" are used. In translation, at least one of these conjunctions has to be translated. For example, Example (46a) keeps the sequential relation while Example (46b) maintains the concessive relation. In the Chinese translation in Example (46a), the conjunction "then" is translated into 接着 *jiēzhe* 'then', while the concessive conjunction "but" is omitted. As the conjunction of 接着 *jiēzhe* 'then' could not be omitted, it was counted as translation proper.

(46)

There was even, she saw with satisfaction, the toad. It was squatting on a low stump and she might not have noticed it, for it looked more like a mushroom than a living creature sitting there. As she came abreast of it, however, it blinked, and the movement gave it away. "See?" she exclaimed. "I told you I'd be here first thing in the morning."

a.

chánchú yòu zhǎzhǎ yǎn hái diǎndiǎn tóu yě kěnéng zhǐshì zài tūnxià yīzhī  
 蟾蜍又眨眨眼，还点点头——也可能只是在吞下一只  
 cāngyíng jiēzhe tā yīsuō shēnzi tiàoxià shùzhuāng xiāoshī zài guànmùcóng lǐ  
 苍蝇。接着它一缩身子跳下树桩，消失在灌木丛里。[CN\_TT]

The toad blinked again and nodded - or perhaps just was swallowing a fly. **Then** it shrank its body, jumped off the stump and disappeared into the bush. [Gloss]

The toad blinked again and nodded. Or perhaps it was only swallowing a fly. **But then** it nudged itself off the edge of the stump and vanished in the underbrush. [EN\_ST]

b.

chánchú yòu zhǎzhǎ yǎn hái diǎndiǎn tóu yě kěnéng zhǐshì zài tūnxià yīzhī  
 蟾蜍又眨眨眼，还点点头——也可能只是在吞下一只  
 cāngyíng kěshì tā yīsuō shēnzi tiàoxià shùzhuāng xiāoshī zài guànmùcóng lǐ  
 苍蝇。可是它一缩身子跳下树桩，消失在灌木丛里。

The toad blinked again and nodded - or perhaps just was swallowing a fly. **But** it shrank its body, jumped off the stump and disappeared into the bush. [Gloss]

Strictly following these rules, all the instances that were initially identified as literally “equivalent” were re-analysed and labelled as either “equivalence proper” or “indirect explicitation”. Table 6.5 shows the frequencies of equivalence proper and indirect explicitation of the 1,000 sampled concordance lines.

Table 6.5: The translation status of equivalence proper or indirect explicitation of 1,000 sampled concordances

Equivalence proper <i>n</i>	%	Indirect explicitation <i>n</i>	%
743	0.75	251	0.25

### 6.2.1.2 Frequency of explicitation

Based on the data obtained at the end of the analysis described in Section 6.2.1.1, Table 6.6 lists the frequencies of all types of explicitation found in the translated Chinese, including both direct and indirect explicitations.

Table 6.6: Overall frequencies of direct (light and strong) explicitation and indirect explicitation in translated Chinese

Explicitation type	Direct explicitation		Indirect explicitation	Total
Subtype	Light	Strong		
Frequency <i>n</i> (%)	469 (11.43)	1,358 (33.09)	22,77 (55.48)	4,104

% the percentage of frequencies of explicitations in relation to total frequency

As can be seen from Table 6.6, there are more indirect explicitations than direct explicitations (2,277 and 1,827 respectively). The indirect explicitations were likely to be caused by SLI, that is, encouraged by the occurrences of conjunctions in the ST, the translators failed to omit the unnecessary conjunctions in the translation. It was found that SLI accounted for 55.48% of all the explicitation instances that occurred in the translations while the combined light and strong explicitations accounted for 44.52%. Furthermore, the data also showed that there were many more instances of strong explicitation than light explicitation. Generally speaking, it seemed that the translators tended to add a conjunction more frequently than shift a relational expression into a conjunction.

In summary, from Table 6.1, it is evident that there were two main driving forces behind the overuse of conjunctions found in the translated Chinese children's literature: word-to-word translations of ST conjunctions triggered by the SLI effect, and explicating shifts (including substitutions and additions) triggered by the translators' attempts to make the logico-semantic links more perceptible. In particular, 83.69% of the conjunctions found in the translations were retrieved from their ST equivalent conjunctions, whereas the remaining 16.31% were the result of the translators' attempts to explicitate the logico-semantic meanings in the TT. However, the exact extent to which this increased explicitness could be related to the unnecessary translation of the source conjunctions was yet to be answered from the analyses. After modelling the SLI-related explicitation, the answer to this question is summarised in Table 6.6, which shows that indirect explicitations accounted for 55.48% of the overall explicitations found in the English-Chinese translation. Therefore, it was concluded that the increased use of conjunctions in the translated Chinese were due to indirect explicitation from the SLI and direct explicitation from explicating shifts. When the translators were faced with a choice of producing a well-formed TL sentence even without carrying out explicitation, the forms involving explicitation were more frequently chosen. This preference for explicit choices may have made the translated texts to be more explicit when compared to the non-translated texts in the same language.

So far, the focus has been on explicitation. The following section identifies and quantifies implicitations in the same translation direction (from English to Chinese).

### 6.2.2 In search of implicitation in the TCCB translated from the NECB

Implication was identified by comparing the English conjunctions in the NECB corpus with their translations in the TTs in the TCCB corpus (see the detailed methodological descriptions in Chapter 4). The comparison excluded from the analysis of cases where a conjunction was shifted into another conjunction with a meaning change because these cases were regarded as meaning distortions. In addition, as already discussed in Chapter 4, the English conjunction “and” and its Chinese equivalent 而且 *érqiě* ‘and’ were excluded from the statistical analysis of the implications due to their multifunctionality and extremely high frequencies, which posed an intractable workload for a single researcher.

The following discussion concentrates on the other four types of conjunctions, that is, temporal, causal, conditional positive, and concession.

Table 6.7 shows the overall frequencies of implication (light and strong) resulting from comparing the NECB with the TCCB.

Table 6.7: Frequencies of light implication and strong implication in translated Chinese

	Implicataton light <i>n</i>	Implicataton strong <i>n</i>	Total <i>n</i>
Conjunction	361	2,622	2,983
when	138	581	719
but	12	666	678
as_time	48	292	340
then_time	53	261	314
so	48	211	259
because	8	126	134
for	2	120	122
if	10	91	101
while	26	57	83
as_reason	1	52	53
then_condition	1	40	41
though	0	39	39
however	2	26	28
since_reason	0	19	19
yet	0	15	15
as soon as	9	2	11
therefore	2	7	9
since_time	1	8	9
although	0	7	7
even if	0	2	2

The tendency between light and strong implicitation was very similar to that between light and strong explicitation. Similar to the findings in Section 6.2.1.2 where more instances of strong explicitation were found than light explicitation, there were many more instances of strong ( $n = 2,622$ ) than light implicitation ( $n = 361$ ), implying that the translators may have been more confident in omitting a conjunction than in shifting it into a non-conjunction expression. Taken together, the instances of addition and omission of a conjunction were more frequent than the instances of replacing the conjunction with another, more explicit or more implicit relational expression. These findings are in line with Becher's (2011) study, which found that the instances of addition and omission of conjunctions outnumbered those of substitutions in both the English-German and German-English translation directions.

### **6.3 Explicitation and implicitation in the Chinese-English translations (TECB & NCCB)**

Once the instances of explicitation and implicitation in the English-Chinese translations were identified and calculated, the tendencies towards explicitation and implicitation in the other translation direction (i.e., in the translation direction from Chinese to English) needed to be investigated in order to test the asymmetry hypothesis and to determine if the translated English texts were more explicit than their Chinese STs. The following presents a comparison between the original Chinese children's books (NCCB) and their English translations (TECB), following the same protocols used for the English-Chinese direction discussed in Section 6.2.

The results found in Chapter 5 showed no significant difference in the overall frequency of conjunctions in the translated and non-translated English texts (20.20 per 1,000 words in the TECB compared to 23.10 per 1,000 words in the NECB,  $p = 0.33$ ). Also, no evidence of increased conjunctive explicitness was found. As a result, it was concluded that the translated English texts were not more explicit than the non-translated English texts and the hypothesis that increased explicitness is an inherent feature of translated texts in comparison with non-translated texts in the same TL was rejected.

However, the data suggested that the translations tended to be more explicit than the original STs if it is considered that English is a relatively explicit language while Chinese is implicit. This means the translations from an implicit language into an explicit language might have been explicitated in the translation process to adapt to the features that were common in the TL,

as the translations often needed to be normalised to meet the expectations of the TL community. However, from the results in the previous section (Section 6.2), it was evident that the use of conjunctions in the translations from English to Chinese was substantially impacted by the SL features as a consequence of SLI. Following this line of reasoning, the English translations from Chinese might also have been impacted by the features of Chinese, that is, the less frequent use of conjunctions if SLI, this time with Chinese being the SL, exerted an influence on the English TT to the same extent as the SLI of English in the opposite direction. Therefore, it would be interesting to determine whether the extent of SLI in this translation direction was comparable to that in the reversed direction, and to explore reasons for the observed tendencies. The following section focuses on this matter.

### 6.3.1 In search of explication in the TECB translated from NCCB

Following the categorisation made in Section 6.2.1.1, in this translation direction (Chinese-English), the exploration of the instances of explication focused on the direct explication and obligatory explication (see Section 4.5.2.2 in Chapter 4 for more descriptions of direct light and strong explication). The discussion below gives some examples that demonstrate obligatory explication and its difference from direct (light or strong) explication.

Example (47) presents a case of obligatory explication, which shows that there is no conjunction used in the ST, that is, the concessive relation is hidden in the context: Grandma had serious symptoms of being sick and she could not even get out of bed by herself before going to check in the hospital, however, 奶奶被送到油麻地镇医院做了检查 *nǎinǎi bèi sòngdào yóumádì zhèn yīyuàn zuò le jiǎnchá* ‘Grandma was sent to the Youmadi Hospital for tests’, 没有查出什么毛病来 *méiyǒu cháchū shenme máobìng lái* ‘didn’t find anything wrong’. In the translation, this concessive relation is explicitly marked by the conjunction “but”. More importantly, this conjunction also serves a grammatical purpose, without which the sentence is ill-formed. The same happens in Examples (48) to (50), each representing a type of logico-semantic relation. In these examples, the conjunctions are added in the TT without a corresponding ST conjunction. The use of these conjunctions in the TT not only helps transfer the logico-semantic relation explicitly, but also connects the two related clauses in a grammatical manner. These are all examples of obligatory explication.

(47)

The context of this example:

Nainai couldn't get out of bed any more. She did not allow the family to worry about her so she insisted that she was not ill and would be getting better after the winter. The family was too poor to send her to hospital in time. After they had saved enough money, Grandma was sent to the local hospital for tests.

nǎinǎi bèi sòngdào yóumádi zhèn yīyuàn zuò le jiǎnchá méiyǒu cháchū shenme máobìng lái. [CN\_ST]  
奶奶被送到油麻地镇医院做了检查，没有查出什么毛病来。 [CN\_ST]

Grandma was sent to the Youmadi Hospital for tests. They didn't find anything wrong.  
[Gloss]

The family took Nainai to the hospital in Youmadi for tests, **but** the doctor could find nothing wrong. [EN\_TT]

(48)

tǎng zài shíbǎn shàng yánshí tàiyìng gède gǔtóu téng tǎng zài kūzhībàiyè shàng  
躺在石板上，岩石太硬，硌得骨头疼；躺在枯枝败叶上，  
gǎnjiào yòu tài ruǎn húnshēn jīròu suānténg  
感觉又太软，浑身肌肉酸疼。 [CN\_ST]

Lying on top of the stone slab, the rock was too hard that hurt her bone; lying on top of the leaves and branches, she felt it too soft that all her muscles sour and ache. [Gloss]

**When** she lay on the stone slab, it was too hard and her bones hurt. **When** she lay on the dry leaves and branches, it was too soft, and her muscles ached. [EN\_TT]

(49)

wèi shenme yúnshang shuō tóufā jiāoshī le róngyì shēngbìng  
“为什么？云裳说，“头发浇湿了，容易生病。” [CN\_ST]

“Why?” Yunsang said: “If hair is wet, it is easy to get sick.” [Gloss]

“Why?” Yun Shang was confused. “**If** your hair is wet, you will get sick.”  
[EN\_TT]

(50)

zǔhé huángjú lùmànman hé xiàlínguǒ yě jǔ shuāngshǒu zànchéng xiàng huángjú zhèzhǒng tǔtóutǔnǎo  
组合黄菊，路曼曼和夏林果也举双手赞成，像黄菊这种土头土脑  
de xiāngxià nǚhái shì búhuì qiǎng tāliǎng de fēngtóu de  
的乡下女孩，是不会抢她俩的风头的。 [CN\_ST]

Having Joy in the team, Man-Man and Lily also agreed with both of their hands up. Country girls like Joy who is dumb and old-fashioned are not going to steal away their spotlight. [Gloss]

Again, both Man-Man and Lily were happy to have Joy in their team. They were sure that Joy wouldn't outshine either of them, **since** she wore old-fashioned clothes and was a bit timid. [EN\_TT]

However, in some cases, the identification of obligatory explicitation and direct explicitation could be confusing because both types could involve conjunctions arising from additions or shifts. To distinguish cases of obligatory explicitation from light/strong explicitation, the testing point lay in the optionality of the conjunction. If the conjunction was lexicogrammatically necessary in the TT, then it belonged to the cases of obligatory explicitation; however, if the conjunction was optional, then it was considered a case of direct explicitation (also see Table 6.4).

(51)

pìrú xiǎoxué liùnián bìyè nǐ dúle wǔniánbàn bùdú le biànshì gōng kuī yī kuì zhè yīkuì  
譬如 小学 六年 毕业, 你 读了 五年半 不读 了, 便是 “功亏一篑”, 这 一篑  
zhīgōng shì hěndà de  
之功, 是 很大 的! [CN\_ST]

For instance, after six years in primary school you graduate. If you gave up after studying five and a half years, then it is called “lacking the final basketful”. The merit of this final basketful is very critical! [Gloss]

a. For instance, after studying six years in primary school, you can graduate. **But if** you drop out after five and a half years, that would be “lacking the final basketful”. The merit of the final basketful is very important! [EN\_TT]

b. For instance, after studying six years in primary school, you can graduate. **If** you drop out after five and a half years, that would be “lacking the final basketful”. The merit of the final basketful is very important!

For example, in Example (51), the ST sentence is translated into two versions (Examples (51a) and (51b)). In the first version (Example 51a), the conjunction “if” is translated from the ST conjunction (如果)...便 *biàn* ‘(if) then’, while the conjunction “but” has been added in the translation process. The addition makes the concessive relation explicit in the translation whereas this explicitation is not compulsory. That is to say, the translation without “but” still works well in indicating this concessive relation, thanks to the semantic disagreement created in the context, as shown in Example (51b) where the concessive relation can be inferred. Furthermore, the conjunction “but” is not grammatically required in this example. In this and similar cases, the addition of conjunction represents direct explicitation.



The conjunctions in the TECB were compared with the conjunctions in the NCCB in search of explicitation. Table 6.8 displays the frequencies of cases of equivalence proper and instances of explicitation found in the translated English texts.

Table 6.8: Overall frequencies of equivalence, direct explicitation (light and strong) and obligatory explicitation in translated English

Equivalence	Explicating shift ( $n = 3,208$ )		
$n$			
4,437	Direct explicitation		Obligatory explicitation
	Light	Strong	3,026
	75	107	

Table 6.8 shows that although the majority of the conjunctions in the translated texts resulted from the translation of the ST conjunctions ( $n = 4,437$ ), indicating SLI, there were also a large number of conjunctions inserted in the translations ( $n = 3,208$ ) which did not have corresponding equivalent conjunctions in the ST. Among them, there were 3,026 instances of obligatory explicitation. It could be concluded that the conjunctions found in the translation corpus mainly resulted from the translation of equivalent conjunctions in the Chinese ST ( $n = 4,437$ ), and another considerable number of conjunctions resulted from obligatory explicitations in order to form a grammatically correct sentence in the TL ( $n = 3,026$ ). Only a few cases resulted from direct explicitation, being either added or shifted into the translation during the translation process ( $n = 182$ ). Similar to the tendency found in the English-Chinese translation direction, strong explicitations outnumbered light explicitations.

Table 6.9 presents the breakdown of direct explicitation and obligatory explicitation for each conjunction in presented.

Table 6.9: Frequencies of direct explicitation and obligatory explicitation in translated English

Conjunction	Explicitation			
	Direct		Obligatory $n$	Overall $n$
	Light $n$	Strong $n$		
when	0	0	804	804
but	30	14	677	721
as	4	0	367	371

then	0	38	322	360
so	21	30	214	265
if	0	0	257	257
because	13	8	131	152
while	0	0	67	67
however	2	2	49	53
since	0	0	39	39
although	0	0	31	31
yet	0	6	21	27
as soon as	3	0	22	25
for	2	0	16	18
though	0	3	7	10
therefore	0	6	0	6
even if	0	0	2	2

### 6.3.2 In search of implicitation in the TECB translated from the NCCB

The instances of implicitation are summarised in Table 6.10.

Table 6.10: Frequencies of light implicitation and strong implicitation in translated English

			Light implicitation <i>n</i>	Strong implicitation <i>n</i>	Overall <i>n</i>
Conjunction	Chinese phonetic alphabet	English translation from dictionaries	59	185	244
但是	dàn(shì)	regardless of, no matter (what, who, etc.)	12	57	69
因为*	yīnwéi	because	24	39	63
于是	yúshì	so, then, thereupon, hence	6	38	44
然后	ránhòu	then, after that, afterwards	5	12	17
当*	dāng	when	5	8	13
因此	yīncǐ	so, therefore, for this reason, consequently	3	9	12
(只) 不过	(zhǐ)búguò	but, yet, still, nevertheless	1	10	11
如果*	rúguǒ	if, in case (of), in the event of	1	6	7
即使*	jíshǐ	but, however, only	1	5	6
紧 (接着)	jǐn(jiēzhe)	(right) after that, and then, next	1	0	1

As can be seen from Table 6.10, altogether there were only 244 instances of implicitation in the English translations from Chinese, which was not a surprising finding given that the translations were from an implicit to an explicit language. There were more cases of strong implicitations than light implicitations.

So far, the results found that in both translation directions, from English into Chinese and from Chinese into English, strong explication/implication occurred more frequently than light explication/implication, a tendency in line with Becher's (2011) findings.

#### **6.4 Testing the asymmetry hypothesis**

To test the asymmetry hypothesis, the number of explications in the English-Chinese direction needed to be compared to the number of implicitations in the Chinese-English translation direction. Correspondingly, the number of explications in the Chinese-English translation direction were compared to the number of implicitations in the English-Chinese translation direction. If the number of explications in one translation direction was not counterbalanced by the number of implicitations in the reversed translation direction, then the asymmetry hypothesis was confirmed; otherwise, the hypothesis was rejected. Furthermore, by comparing the instances of explication and implicitation in the same translation direction, the tension between explication and implicitation was assessed. More instances of explication than implicitation meant that the translation had been explicated, which would provide new evidence in the language pair of English and Chinese that the translations were more explicit than their STs; more implicitations than explications meant that the translation had been implicated and this would provide evidence that the translations were less explicit than their STs. This comparison was expected to reveal more about the complicated nature of explication in translations. Based on the findings from the previous study of Klaudy and Károly (2005), the hypothesis was that the asymmetry hypothesis would be true in the present study's dataset; moreover, according to the results from the studies of Kenny (2005), Konšalová (2007), Øverås (1998) and Pápai (2004), it was assumed that both the translated Chinese and translated English texts were more explicit than their STs by having more instances of explication than implicitation.

Since the parallel corpus of the TCCB and NECB as well as the parallel corpus of the TECB and NCCB had different sizes, the instances of explications and implicitations were normalised to a frequency per 1,000 words for a fair comparison. Table 6.11 summarises the

normalised frequencies of explicitation and implicitation in the English-Chinese and Chinese-English translation directions.

Table 6.11: Normalised frequencies of explicitation and implicitation in the translated English and Chinese

	English-Chinese	Chinese-English
	<i>n</i>	<i>n</i>
Explicitation	3.29 <sup>26</sup>	7.05
Implication	2.46	0.57

From Table 6.11, a few observations can be made:

1. Explicitation in one translation direction was stronger than implicitation in the other translation direction ( $n = 3.29$  in English-Chinese compared to  $n = 0.57$  in Chinese-English;  $n = 7.05$  in Chinese-English compared to  $n = 2.46$  in English-Chinese). This suggested that when the translation was explicitated in the translation from language A to B, it did not mean that the translation from B to A would be equally implicated.
2. In both translation directions, there were more instances of explicitation than implicitation ( $n = 3.29$  compared to  $n = 2.46$  in English-Chinese translation;  $n = 7.05$  compared to  $n = 0.57$  in Chinese-English translation).
3. In the translation direction from Chinese to English, the number of explicitations ( $n = 7.05$ ) was disproportionately higher than the number of implicitations ( $n = 0.57$ ).

The above results suggested that asymmetrical tendencies, that is, that the explicitations in the English-Chinese translations were more frequent than the implicitations in the Chinese-English translations and that the explicitations in the Chinese-English translations were not outnumbered by the implicitations in the English-Chinese translations. In both translation directions, there were more instances of explicitation than implicitation. The translations were more explicit than their corresponding STs in terms of the use of conjunctions. Explicitations, mainly obligatory explicitations in the Chinese-English translations, were very frequent, and far more than the implicitations.

<sup>26</sup> The number excludes the cases of 而且 *érqiě* ‘and’ (see reasons in Section 6.2.2).

At first glance, the findings seemed to provide evidence that asymmetric explicitation might have been a universal feature of the translated texts. However, when considered closely, it became evident that the instances of the types of explicitations were different in the two translation directions. In the English-Chinese translation direction, more than half of the instances of explicitation (55.48%) were the consequence of SLI from English (see Table 6.6) while in the Chinese-English translation direction, there are 3,026 instances of obligatory explicitation (e.g., to meet the English grammatical requirement) out of all 3,208 explicitations (94.33% see Table 6.8). Indeed, the explicitations in both directions suggested the strong influence of the English language, whether English was the SL or TL in the translations. In other words, when considered bidirectionally, English was likely to have played a decisive role in influencing the outcome of the contest between explicitation and implicitation. Therefore, instead of advocating the asymmetry hypothesis as a universal feature, the results from this study suggest that the asymmetric explicitation in the translation between English and Chinese was also closely related to the more powerful status of English compared with Chinese. To further demonstrate how the higher status of English in the language pair may have influenced the translations between English and Chinese, the next chapter explores various examples using a qualitative methodology.

## **6.5 Conclusion**

In this chapter, the results of the testing of the asymmetry hypothesis were reported and discussed. First of all, the instances of explicitation and implicitation were explored in the translated Chinese and English. To identify different types of explicitation, the concept of equivalence was revisited and revised so that it was suitable for the current analysis. The comparison between the explicitations in one translation direction and the implicitations in the other showed that there was an asymmetric explicitation, as the explicitation-implication counterbalance was not found in either translation direction. Furthermore, the translations tended to be more explicit than the STs in both translation directions.

## **Chapter 7 Explaining explicitation**

### **7.1 Introduction**

Chapter 6 discussed the results of the analysis of the asymmetry hypothesis, which was tested and confirmed. It was found that explicitation of logico-semantic meaning was a universal translation strategy, at least in the case of the language pair of English and Chinese. The findings also showed that translators' preference for explicitation over implicitation not only existed in both language directions, but also was particularly evident in the Chinese-English translations. It was further concluded that such preference highlighted the dominant influence of the English language, which has more explicit linguistic and stylistic features than Chinese. However, the question of how English exerted its influence on the formulation of these patterns was not answered. Furthermore, even though the tension between explicitation and implicitation was clear, questions about when and why explicitation and implicitation happened in the translated texts remain unanswered.

To answer these questions, this chapter explores the reasons that account for the intricate relationship between explicitation and implicitation in the translations between English and Chinese. Section 7.2 explores the influence that English exerted on the shaping of the asymmetric pattern between explicitation and implicitation in the bi-directional translations and on the more frequent occurrences of explicitations than implicitations in both the English-Chinese and Chinese-English translations. The exploration focused on aspects, such as the linguistic power relations, the translators' sensitivity to the features of the two linguistic systems, and target audience tolerance. Section 7.3 provides potential explanations for the explicitation and implicitation of conjunctive logico-semantic relations in translation. Two-way qualitative analysis was conducted to identify potential causal forces. Section 7.4 concludes this chapter by summarising key findings.

### **7.2 Exploring reasons for the asymmetry between explicitation and implication**

This section provides explanations for the results that there were more explicitations in one translation direction (i.e., English-Chinese; Chinese-English) than implicitations in the other direction (i.e., Chinese-English; English-Chinese); and why there were more explicitations than implicitations in both translation directions of English to Chinese and Chinese to English.

The underlying logic of the asymmetry hypothesis is that language-specific explicitation and implicitation are symmetrical (Klaudy & Károly, 2005). It predicts that when explicitation happens in one translation direction, implicitation is matched in the other direction. However, this does not seem to be always true. The asymmetry hypothesis assumes that translators prefer to use explicitation when it presents as an option and often fail to use implicitation even if they are allowed to. The following analysis illustrates when and why the hypothesised symmetry has been rejected in the current study.

As summarised at the end of Chapter 6, the occurrences of explicitation were primarily caused by the influence of English, that is to say, when English was the SL, there were many instances of explicitation that were the consequence of SLI; when English became the TL, there were substantial cases of obligatory explicitation for the purpose of meeting the lexicogrammatical requirements of English. The prototypical features of English, either as an SL or TL were likely to be prioritised, consciously and/or unconsciously, by the translators. This asymmetrical attention paid to English and the explicit lexicogrammatical encoding of English in the translations between English and Chinese may have reflected the unequal status of English and Chinese. In other words, the cause of the violation of the symmetry between explicitation and implicitation in this study could have been related to the asymmetrical power relation between English and Chinese.

According to He (2007), power relations between languages and cultures can influence the translation flow, translation strategy and translation reception. Geopolitical relations and economic factors can largely define the dominating and dominated languages and English has been the language of rising dominance since the 19th century (Casanova, 2007). Casanova (2002) considered translation as an imbalanced exchange between dominating and dominated literary systems. Similarly, Jacquemond (1992) hypothesised that a hegemonic culture is likely to be translated far more than the dominated culture. Heilbron (1999) proposed a framework of international book exchange, a world system structured based on the centrality of languages, which was determined by the share in the number of translated books. English occupies the “hypercentral” role while the other languages follow a hierarchical order (central, semi-peripheral). Studies have suggested that the predominance of English as an SL (Sapiro, 2008) has accounted for the unequal translation flow between English and Chinese (He, 2007; Venuti, 1998; Zhu, 2004). English has been said to be one of the most translated languages since World War II, but it has been one of the least languages to be translated into (Venuti, 1998). In

contrast, Chinese has been one of the “less translated” SLs while at the same time, one of the most translated TLs (Zhu, 2004, p. 332). This particularly has been the case for children’s literature in China, which remained vacant until the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. The lack of a literary tradition might have caused fewer available Chinese children’s books to be translated into English. Over a long period of time (since the late Qing dynasty), most translations of children’s books have been into rather than from Chinese (Gao, 2019). According to Zhang (2020, p. 22), since the 1990s, the books translated into Chinese and from Chinese have had a ratio of 10 to 1 (see more discussion in Section 4.3.2 in Chapter 4). Among other languages, English no doubt has been the most influential and dominant SL (Hung, 2002).

The two types of translation strategies that are pertinent to the translation between English and Chinese are domestication and “foreignisation”. Domestication involves “an ethnocentric reduction of the foreign text to target-language cultural values” (Venuti, 1995, p. 20).<sup>27</sup> In the translated texts, the foreignness of the TT is minimised. Foreignisation, on the contrary, refers to a translation strategy that “entails choosing a foreign text and developing a translation method along lines which are excluded by dominant cultural values in the target language” (Venuti, 1998, p. 242). As a consequence, the linguistic and cultural differences of the SL are registered in the translated texts. The translation practices give a biased respect to the language of English: in Chinese-English translations, the translation strategy of “domestication-first” and “Western-readers first” have been favoured. Some scholars have even advocated that “domestication should be used as much as possible” (Xu & Zhang, 2002, p. 36; Yang, 2001, p. 4), in order to “facilitate communication between cultures” (Xu & Zhang, 2002, p. 36). In the other translation direction, from English to Chinese, foreignisation has been the preferred translation strategy:

In the last two decades of the 20th century, due to the influences of Western translation theories, China’s translation circles began to rethink the relationship between foreignisation and domestication. As a result, more attention was paid to the strategies of foreignisation, by theorists as well as translators. (Sun, 2002, p. 40)

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<sup>27</sup> The concepts of “foreignisation” and “domestication” were initially proposed by Venuti (1995) to highlight the ethical responsibility of translators. Later, Venuti (1998) referred to them as a “foreignising strategy” and a “domesticating strategy” in a Chapter titled “Strategies of Translation” in Mona Baker edited book: *Routledge Encyclopedia of Translation Studies* (see pp. 240-244).



The choice between foreignisation and domestication can be made for the text as a whole, and for specific textual elements (Van Coillie, 2020, p. 145), for example, conjunctions. Van Coillie (2020) pointed out that when translating for children, the translators' choices become "all the more acute" because the consideration of the child audience can cause them to be more careful in exploiting these strategies. The Chinese-English translations reflect the tendency to bring the texts closer to the lexicogrammatical features of the TL by using conjunctions as frequently as in the original English texts, while the English-Chinese translation demonstrates the tendency to retain some foreignness in the TTs, reflected in the more marked use of conjunctions, which are not typical in original Chinese texts. Domestication in translated English could be used to remove the foreignness of the ST based on the assumption that child readers are not sophisticated enough to comprehend foreign elements, including linguistic aspects. Foreignisation prevailing in translated Chinese texts might be used to signal "the linguistic and cultural differences of the foreign text" (Venuti, 1995, p. 309) and to enrich the reading experience of child readers, allowing them to re-experience the foreign and the exotic language and culture (Stolt, 1978).

Generally, it is assumed that translators should translate from their L2 into their L1. However, in China, due to the relatively low cost of Chinese translators and an inadequate number of English translators who know the Chinese language and cultures, it is not uncommon to find that Chinese translators translate both from and into English (Hung, 2002). For example, all the translated Chinese children's books included in this study were produced by Chinese translators, which seemed usual in the translation industry. However, in the subcorpus of translated English children's literature books (TECB) used in this study, unusually, half of these books were translated by native Chinese, either solo or in cooperation with a native English speaker (see Appendix 2). For instance, the book 城南旧事 *chéngnán jiùshì Memories of Peking: South Side Stories* was translated into English by two Chinese translators: Qi Bangyuan and Yin Zhang Lanxi; 生命的追问 *shēngmìng de zhuīwèn Life is Life* was translated by Wang Guozhen and Qian Qing; and 表格驾到 *biǎogé jiàdào My Cousin is Coming* is translated by Guozhen Wang and Meng Keyu. Other books, such as 中国儿童名著精选译丛—丰子恺 *zhōngguó értóng míngzhù jīngxuǎn yìcóng-fēngzǐkǎi A Feng Zikai Reader* and 大林小林 *dàlín xiǎolín A Zhang Tianyi Reader* are representative of a collaboration between a native Chinese and an English speaker. The attitudes towards the translation strategies of domestication and foreignisation might be more evident in Chinese translators' productions.

Translators might be more sensitive to the features of English and willing to maintain these features in their translations. As a consequence, the English lexicogrammatical features may tend to be more strongly represented in translations both from and into English.

Sometimes, the translation of creative literature has not been market-driven, but prompted and censored by the central government and published by state-owned publishers with an ideological agenda “to establish a cultural dialogue with other countries” (Hung, 2002, p. 330). These translations have been assumed to target readers of TL communities. However, this frequently has not been the case, as these English translations have seemed to be only attractive to and circulated within a closed group of Chinese readers, who have wanted to learn English from these English materials (Hung, 2002; He, 2007). This also has happened in the translation of children’s literature. For example, some of these translated English children’s books, such as *Life is Life* and *My Cousin is Coming* are part of the Best Chinese Children’s Literature series, a collection of the “most original, influential and typical children’s literature works in contemporary China”, which have been selected and published to let Chinese children’s literature “go out into the world” (Gao & Wang, 2013, p. V). Although they have been believed to be “welcomed by foreign children of different colours”, some of them have been only available in Chinese online bookstores (Gao & Wang, 2013, p. V). The present study could not find any sales information in English online bookstores, including Amazon, Barnes & Noble and Book Depository, for the books *Life is Life* and *My Cousin is Coming*. A reason for this may be that it has been difficult, if not impossible for these books to reach English-speaking child readers. Other books, such as *Sunflower and Bronze* and *An Usual Princess*, translated by native English speakers and published by distinguished English publishers, have been available from Amazon or Book Depository. However, the reviews on the website of Goodreads have suggested that the readers of these books have been mainly adults interested in Chinese cultures, who treat such books as a window to gain knowledge about China. These books, therefore, have not been likely to reach the target readership, namely child readers in Anglo-American countries. This phenomenon is in line with Jacquemond’s (1992) hypothesis that translations from a dominating language reach a much larger readership, whereas translations from a dominated language hardly break out of a closed circle of specialists and “concerned” readers. Furthermore, the translators of these books are likely to be people “whose status as foreign language experts is extremely convincing to this readership within China” (Hung, 2002, p. 331), which might impede the circulation of these books in the international book market. From the perspective of young readers in the UK and US, they may be satisfied

with originally written English books in the market, and have no interest in translated books (Lathey, 2020, see also Chapter 4), and in particular, books translated by non-English speakers. Translations from Chinese may not be likely to be picked up by these young readers in English-speaking countries.

This might lead to the next explanation of the asymmetry, that is, that the audience's tolerance of SLI is asymmetrical. More specifically, the tolerance of SL features has tended to be high in translations from English into Chinese. Toury (2012) has proposed that the tolerance of interference tends to be higher when translating from a prestigious language and culture to a TL with a relatively lower status. This also comes as no surprise given the long history of the exposure to foreign children's literature in China. Indeed, since the beginning of the recognition of children's literature as a text type, translated books have been widely introduced to Chinese young readers. Translations have played a critical role in the development of children's literature in China (Gao, 2019). These translated literatures have been generally considered as a way to broaden the horizon of children and to gain new information about exotic cultures. Young readers in China have been exposed to foreign fairy tales and stories over generations, which can be evidenced by the early translations of Aesop's fables, Anderson's fairy tales and Grimm's fairy tales in the 20th century. This long-term immersion is likely to have made readers more open and tolerant towards translated books, to the degree that it may be that even the violation of TL norms would not be unacceptable.

In contrast, it is only very recently that original Chinese children's books have started to be translated into other languages, including English (Xiu, 2020). It could be said that translated books are yet to be widely accepted by English readers, as the ideology, the narration and linguistic features in these translations might be something new to them (see more about the Anglo readership in Section 4.3.2. Chapter 4). Consequently, their tolerance to non-conventional norms displayed in translated books may not be comparable to the tolerance held by Chinese readers. Therefore, the presence of English features may have been accepted by the Chinese audience while the features that were typical to Chinese might have been suppressed in order to meet the expectations of the English-speaking readers. This Anglocentric attitude towards SLI in the translations between English and Chinese might have contributed to the development of the unbalanced relation between the explications and implications. In turn, Chinese readers' generally more tolerant attitude towards the translations from English might have indirectly encouraged translators to lean towards the features of English while at the same

time becoming less concerned about highlighting Chinese linguistic features. Furthermore, most of the translators of the translated Chinese books from English were native Chinese speakers. In other words, in the case of English-Chinese translation, they translated from their L2 to L1. The constant exposure to the ST may have increased their tolerance threshold towards SLI. In this sense, the typical features of English, which are not typical in Chinese, may have become accepted as “normal” in the translations, while the typical features of Chinese, which require translational shifts to be realised, might have been neglected and under-represented in the Chinese translation. At the same time, in Chinese-English translation, the sensitivity to meeting the expectations of the English readers may have motivated the translators to overcome the SLI from Chinese and shape their translated English to approximate non-translated English children’s books in terms of the use of conjunctions.

### **7.3 Exploring reasons for explicitation and implicitation**

In this section, the reasons that translators explicitated and implicitated logico-semantic relations in translation are explored.

Becher (2011b) proposed five explanations for the insertion and omission of conjunctions in translated texts. Even though his study focused on translations between English and German, these motivations could be applied to the results of the present study in explaining explicitation and implicitation in the translations between English and Chinese. According to Becher (2011b, p. 170), the translators added or omitted connectives in order to:<sup>28</sup>

1. comply with the communicative norms of the target language community
2. exploit specific features of the target language system
3. deal with specific restrictions of the target language system
4. avoid stylistically marked ways of expression
5. optimise the cohesion of the target text.

Needless to say, these motivations proposed by Becher (2011b) need not be taken as unrelated factors in accounting for explicitation or implicitation in translation. Rather, they can be treated

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<sup>28</sup> By pointing out these five proposed reasons that translators might add or omit connectives, the author did not exclude the potential causes that could be related to non-linguistic (e.g., cultural, historical) factors. However, due to the current research design and limited scope, other possible causes were not directly investigated. More information about the translators’ background is documented in Appendices 2 and 3.

as interacting elements that can take effect either independently or in combination with one another.

The following discussion explains the explicitations and implicitations found in the current study with reference to Becher's (2011) proposal and proposes additional explanations for the occurrence of explicitation/implication, which cannot be explained with reference to these five motivations.

### **7.3.1 Explicitation and implication in the translations from Chinese into English**

This section begins with the Chinese-English translations as this is the direction in which explicitation was expected.

English and Chinese differ in how they present the logico-semantic connections between clauses. As Xiao and Hu (2015) stated:

As Chinese is a parataxis language, the relationships among sentential components are often “internalised, implicit or ambiguous” (Liu, 1991, p. 158); despite being explicitly marked by sentential-ending punctuation marks, a Chinese sentence is very likely to be made of several sentence segments which are semantically complete and grammatically independent. (Xiao & Hu, 2015, p. 159)

English, on the other hand, as a typologically hypotactic language (Yu, 1993),<sup>29</sup> has restrictive rules for clause connection. Clauses or clause complexes need to be connected by textual connectives to form larger meaning units. Due to the structural differences between English and Chinese, in the translation from Chinese into English, conjunctions are most often required in connecting clausal components in the English translation. In particular, intra-sentential conjunctions are frequently and regularly inserted. These so-called obligatory explicitations were a predominant feature in the translations from Chinese to English in the present study, as demonstrated by the findings in Chapter 6.

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<sup>29</sup> Paratactic is a term “used in traditional grammatical analysis, and often found in descriptive linguistic studies, to refer to constructions which are linked solely through juxtaposition and punctuation/intonation, and not through the use of conjunctions. Paratactic constructions are opposed to hypotactic ones, where conjunctions are used” (Crystal, 1980, p. 257).

Example (52) clearly demonstrates this situation. As the example shows, the Chinese ST sentence is composed of three sentence segments without any connecting elements. This does not mean these segments are not logico-semantically related. With the first segment acting as the theme (i.e., the starting point of the message), the sentence has a light concessive meaning involved between the second and third segments, both of which are clauses. It can be noted that, despite the concessive relationship between the two clauses, no conjunction is used. Instead, it is through the semantic disagreement between “familiar to me” and “I couldn’t remember” that the concessive relation is indicated. In translating this sentence into English, syntactically a connecting device is needed to link Segment 2 and 3 to form a grammatical sentence. Without the use of a conjunction, the two clauses in the TT would be structurally “unstrung” and grammatically incorrect (see Example (52b)). An alternative way of making them well-formed would be to add a full stop in between the clauses to let them become two independent sentences, as shown in Example (52c). However, in that way, the logico-semantic meaning might be substantially, if not completely, lost. Consequently, cohesion is lost. As demonstrated by Example (52a), in English, the addition of a conjunction is obligatory in order to connect two clauses within a sentence, as it is both syntactically needed and logico-semantically required.

Furthermore, by comparing the Chinese TT and the sentences in Examples (52b) and (52c), it is not difficult to make the observation that in Chinese, the logico-semantic relation is implicitly inferred rather than explicitly marked with a conjunction, unlike the situation in English. In this sense, the addition of conjunctions in the Chinese-English translation not only explicitates the logico-semantic meaning, but also suggests the translator’s intention to comply with the communicative norms of the target language.

(52)

zhèbān kěàide guāngjǐng wǒmen sìjiào céng zài shenme dìfāng kànjiàn guò yīshí jì bú qǐlái

这般 可爱的 光景, 我们 似觉 曾 在 什么 地方 看见 过, \_\_ 一时 记 不 起来。

[CN\_ST]

Such a lovely scene, we seemed to have seen somewhere, right now I could not think of it.

[Gloss]

a. Such a lovely scene seemed familiar to me, **but** I couldn’t remember where I had seen it. [EN\_TT]

b. !Such a lovely scene seemed familiar to me, I couldn’t remember where I had seen it

- c. Such a lovely scene seemed familiar to me. I couldn't remember where I had seen it.

Example (53) shows a different case in which a conjunction is no longer grammatically needed but its use is desirable according to the communicative conventions of the TL (English). In Example (53a), the conjunction “however” has been added in the translation, which is an insertion, as originally there was no equivalent conjunction used in the Chinese ST. As shown in Example 53b, without the conjunction, the text would still read fluently and be understandable. The sentence connected by “because” functions as an enhancement of the previous sentence, expressing a concessive meaning: while the locket was precious the daughter disliked it. In a rather easily inferable logico-semantic relation like this, the conjunction could be optional. In other words, the concessive relation could still be inferred without the use of conjunction “however”. However, the addition indeed makes the translated text more explicitly cohesive, in line with the conventions expected by English speakers. In this way, the expectations of the target audience might have been fulfilled and the translated work could be seen as more acceptable (Kenny, 2001).

(53)

nà yītiān shì guìkè yíngmén de rìzǐ ruìlí yíma qǔchū nàzhǒng chángmìngfùguì de jīn suǒpiàn ràng nǚ  
那 一 天, 是 贵 客 盈 门 的 日 子, 瑞 黎 姨 妈 取 出 那 种 长 命 富 贵 的 金 锁 片 让 女  
ér dài dànměi xián súqì lǎowǎng yīpáng duǒ  
儿 戴, 大 美 嫌 俗 气, 老 往 一 旁 躲。 [CN\_ST]

That day, is a day when the house was full of distinguished guests. Aunt Ruili took out that kind of a longevity and wealth locket to let her daughter wear, Damei disliked it for being old-fashioned and stayed away. [Gloss]

- a. That day, the house was full of distinguished guests. Aunt Ruili had found a lovely golden locket and urged Damei to wear it. However, it was not to her daughter's taste and she refused. [EN\_TT]
- b. That day, the house was full of distinguished guests. Aunt Ruili had found a lovely golden locket and urged Damei to wear it. It was not to her daughter's taste and she refused.

Example (54) demonstrates another explanation proposed by Becher (2011b), that is, that the translators add or omit conjunctions to exploit specific features of the target language system. According to Becher (2011b), translators can make the most of the lexicogrammatical features that the TL can offer, which is particularly relevant to translations from Chinese to English. Together with the tendency to conform to the TL norms of increased explicitness, translators

can be motivated to and also are able to use more conjunctions in the Chinese-English translation. That is to say, when the communicative norms of the TL ask for a higher level of explicitness, the lexicon (e.g., conjunctions) and syntax (e.g., hypotactic structures) of the TL happen to have relevant resources that translators can exploit to achieve this. This could help explain the disproportionately high frequency of explicitations found in this translation direction in the present study.

In Example (54), the translation has added “as” which has no corresponding conjunction in the Chinese ST. In English, the structure “as + subject + predicate” is a syntactically special structure which could accommodate two temporally simultaneous actions. This structure does not have an immediately equivalent structure in Chinese. However, the sense of the simultaneous actions of “looking at the back of her neck” and “smilingly saying” is implicated to the readers. In other words, the most unmarked presentation of such simultaneity is through a series of clauses without using any conjunctions. It is not that Chinese does not have the conjunctive resources to present such logico-semantic relation. Rather, presenting the clauses without conjunctions simply reflects a more natural choice in grammar. In comparison, English provides explicit conjunctive items, such as “while” or “as”, to realise such logico-semantic meaning, which are also the most natural ways of realisation. Such linguistic difference enables the translator to exploit specific features of the target language system.

(54)

xiùzhēn dūn xiàlái lǒuzhe niūér yòu bǎn guò niūér de tóu liáokāi niūér de xiǎobiànzǐ kàn tāde bózi  
秀贞蹲下来,搂着妞儿,又扳过妞儿的头,撩开妞儿的小辫子看她的脖子  
hòutóu xiàodào kě búshì wǒ nà xiǎoguǐzi jiào ya jiào mā ya  
后头, \_\_ 笑道: “可不是我那小桂子,叫呀!叫 妈呀!” [CN\_ST]

Hsiu-chen stooped down, hugged Niu-erh, and pulling her head over, lifted Niu-erh's little ponytail to look at the back of her neck, smilingly said: “Aren't you my Hsiao Kuei-tzu. Call! Call Mum!” [Gloss]

Hsiu-chen stooped down, hugged Niu-erh then pulling her head over, she pushed up the little pigtail to look at the back of her neck **as** she smilingly said, “You're indeed my Hsiao Kuei-tzu. Say it! Call me Ma!” [EN\_TT]

Examples (55) and (56) present more illustrations in which translators may have exploited this structure offered by English.

(55)



kěxī wūdīāo shùnjiān jiù jīngxǐng guòlái sōngkāi diāozhǎo rēngdiào zhīmàn jiānxiào zhe měngliè  
 可惜，乌雕 瞬间 就 惊醒 过来，松开 雕爪 扔掉 枝蔓，尖啸 着，猛烈  
 pāishàn chìbǎng diāoyì dǎ zài guànmùcóng guàndǐng shàng hǎojǐ piàn yǔmáo shéduànle xiàng  
 拍扇 翅膀。\_\_ 雕翼 打 在 灌木丛 冠顶 上，好几 片 羽毛 折断 了，像  
 hēisè de xiǎojīnglíng zài kōngzhōng fēiwǔ  
 黑色的 小精灵，在 空中 飞舞。[CN\_ST]

Pity, the eagle suddenly recovered from the shock, released its claws, let go of the branches, screamed, fiercely flapped its wings. The wings hit the top of the bushes, a few feathers broke, like black elves, fluttering in the air. [Gloss]

The eagle recovered from the shock, released its claws, let go of the branches in its grip, flapped its wings madly and screamed. As it rose, its wings hit the top of the bushes, shattering a few feathers, which darted about in the sky. [EN\_TT]

(56)

tā zhèliǎngtiān zhèng gěi wǒmen jiǎng tā lǎojiā de gùshì dìlǐ de màisui zhǎng lā  
 她 这两天 正给 我们 讲 她 老家的 故事：地里的 麦穗 长 啦，  
 shānpō de qīngcǎo gāo lā xiǎoshuānzǐ zhāi le gǒuwěibāhuā zhā zài niú jījiǎo shàng lā  
 山坡 的 青草 高 啦，小 栓子 摘了 狗尾巴花 扎 在 牛犄角 上 啦。\_\_  
 tā shǒulǐ hái nǎzhe yīzhī hòuhòude xiéǐ yòng cūmáshéng nàde mìmìde zhèngshì gěi  
 她 手里 还 拿着 一只 厚厚的 鞋底，用 粗麻绳 纳得 密密的，正是 给  
 xiǎoshuānzǐ zuò de  
 小栓子 做 的。[CN\_ST]

She these two days had been telling us her villages stories: the ears of wheat were growing, the grass on the hill was growing tall, Little Bolt picked up the foxtail to tie it on the ox's horn. Her hands were holding a thick sole, stitching densely it with coarse flax, was made for Little Bolt. [Gloss]

In the past few days, Sung Ma had been telling us stories of her village, about how the ears of wheat were ripening in the fields, the grass was growing tall on the hillside, and Little Bolt had plucked foxtails to tie them on the ox's horn. As she talked, she would also work on the thick sole of a shoe, threading it diligently with flaxen string. It was for Little Bolt. [EN\_TT]

In the opposite translation direction, from English to Chinese, the difficulty of accommodating this structure in translated Chinese has caused the omission of the conjunction “as”. This relates to the third trigger of Becher’s (2011) proposal: dealing with restrictions of the target language system. This point is illustrated in the next section with examples when the translation from English into Chinese serves as the focus.

The next explanation relates to the intention on the part of the translator to enhance cohesion and coherence. According to Graesser, McNamara and Louwerse (2003), coherence can be considered as a covert, potential meaning relationship among segments of a text. Cohesion can be considered as an overt marking of coherence, typically realised by language-specific

markers, such as conjunctions. Discourse processing refers to the action of making sense of meaning as a text unfolds, and translators may add conjunctions to increase cohesion and thus improve coherence to make readers see the logico-semantic meaning and understand the text.

The tendency to optimise the cohesion of the target texts can be seen in Example (57). As implied by the subjects 我们 *wǒmen* ‘we’ and 他们 *tāmen* ‘they’ and the exact structure of these two sentences in the ST, a contrastive relation is easily inferred. The two sentences describe two groups of people using two different ways of getting salt. In the translation, the translator not only uses a punctuation mark “;” to indicate a contrastive relation, but also inserts a non-structural conjunction “however” in the sentence to emphasise this contrastive meaning. This could be explained by the more explicit stylistic feature of English. However, the intention to maximise the cohesion of the text should not be neglected. The addition is not technically necessary, as can be seen from Example (57b), in which the sentence without the conjunction remains acceptable. However, with the addition, the logico-semantic relation between the two clauses becomes explicit and the text reads more cohesively.

(57)

wǒmen hǎibiānshàng de rén cóng hǎishuǐ zhōng qǔ yán tāmen shānxiāng de rén cóng jǐngzhōng qǔ yán  
我们 海边上 的 人 , 从 海水中 取 盐 。 他们 山乡 的 人 , 从 井中 取 盐 。  
[CN\_ST]

We seaside people, from the sea get salt. They mountains people, from well get salt. [Gloss]

- a. Living by the seaside, we obtain salt from seawater; people who live in the mountains, **however**, get salt from wells. [EN\_TT]
- b. Living by the seaside, we obtain salt from seawater; people who live in the mountains, get salt from wells.

The implicitations in Chinese-English translations are limited in number and should not be a major concern as it can be expected that translators may omit (or add) conjunctions occasionally (Becher, 2011a). For instance, in Example (58), there is no clear trigger for omitting the conjunction 于是 *yúshì* ‘then’. All the proposed causes discussed above do not apply to this case. The translator has every reason to have translated the conjunction. However, as a highly marked choice, the translator omits this conjunction. A possible explanation would be that the logico-semantic relation is rather simple and so obvious that the translator feels no need to make it more explicit. This assumption is made on the basis of the cognitive complexity hypothesis, which assumes that translators add conjunctions to ease the cognitive processing

load when the text being translated is complicated lexically and or syntactically. If this holds, then in the opposite scenario, when the text to be translated is simple and straightforward, there is no need to have a conjunction in the text.

Moreover, when the logico-semantic relation could be easily interpreted from context, and the text itself is not complex in lexicogrammar, the omission of a conjunction in the translation may not cause any harm.

(58)

wǒ kě bú xìn xiǎolín rǎng  
“我可不信！”小林嚷。  
nǐ búxìn yě bùxíng  
“你 不信 也 不行。”  
guówáng yúshì cóng kǒudài lǐ náchū yībēn fǎlǜ shū lái fàngdào làzhú xià fānzhe fānle lǎobàntiān fān  
国王 于是 从 口袋里 拿出 一本 法律书 来，放到 蜡烛 下 翻着，翻了 老半天 翻  
chūlai le  
出来 了。 [CN\_ST]

“I so don't believe.” Xiaolin shouted.

“You not believing is not OK.”

The King then from the pocket get out a law book, put it under the candle, turned pages for a while found the page. [Gloss]

“I don't believe it!” Xiao Lin exclaimed.

“It doesn't matter if you believe it or not.”

The King pulled a book of laws from his pocket and placed it next to the candle. He thumbed through the pages for ages and finally found the place. [EN\_TT]

In summary, the discussions above suggest that explicitations are carried out to follow the TL grammatical principles, to comply with TL communication conventions, to ease processing load for young readers, to make the most of TL structural features, and to help with cohesion and coherence. Implications, which are far less common in the Chinese-English translations, are carried out when the logico-semantic relation can be easily inferred from context, and an omission of the conjunction would not undermine the translation quality either grammatically or semantically.

### 7.3.2 Explicitation and implicitation in the translations from English to Chinese

In the translations from English into Chinese, the tendency of implicitation was expected. As has been discussed in the previous section, some of the specific features of English, such as the “as + subject + predicate”, are well exploited in the Chinese-English translations, triggering the occurrence of explicitations. However, in the reversed translation direction, from English to Chinese, Chinese as TL does not have direct corresponding lexicogrammatical resources to easily realise an equivalent structure, and thus implicitations were triggered. As exemplified by Example (59), the English clause “as he passed”, which indicates the simultaneous temporal relation between “catching the door-edge with the toe” and “passing and slamming (the door)”, has been omitted in the translated Chinese, as the TL does not have a direct equivalent conjunction to realise this logico-semantic relation. Instead, in order to re-create an equivalent impression that these series of events are happening almost at the same time, the translator adds an onomatopoeia 砰一声 *pēngyīshēng* ‘bang’ to bring vividness of the actions while making the readers feel the proximity of time when these events take place.

(59)

Yet even then the man somehow only made a long arm to open the door ahead of the wheelbarrow, wheeled it very swiftly through, caught the door-edge with the toe of his boot **as he passed** and slammed the door in Tom’s face. [EN\_ST]

dànshì huājiàng tuīzhe chē kāimén shí xiān shēnchū yītiáo shǒubì bǎ mén lākāi xùnsù tuīchē jìnrù jiēzhe  
但是花匠推着车开门时先伸出一条手臂把门拉开迅速推车进入，接着  
yòng jiǎo jiǎn yīgōu pēng yīshēng mén yòu guānshàng le tāngmǔ réngrán bèi guānzài ménwài  
用脚尖一勾，砰一声门又关上了，汤姆仍然被关在门外。[CN\_TT]

Bur the gardener while pushing the car opened the door, first stretched an arm to open the door, swiftly pushed the car in, then use the tip of foot to get the door, bang, the door was again closed, Tom was still locked outside. [Gloss]

Furthermore, the structure of “as + subject + predicate” is frequently translated into “subject + predicate + 着 *zhe*”, in which the temporal conjunction “as” denoting simultaneous relation has been translated into a particle 着 *zhe*, resulting in an implicitating shift from an explicit expression (i.e., conjunction) to an aspectual element, indicating the logico-semantic relation implicitly. This particle is commonly used to indicate a static motion in Chinese. The following Examples (60) and (61), demonstrate the cases when the conjunction “as” has been shifted into “着 *zhe*”.

(60)

Harry's victory faded from his mind **as** he watched. [EN\_ST]

hālì zhùshì zhe xīntóu shènglì de xǐyuè jiànjian xiāoshī le  
哈利 注视 着，心头 胜利 的 喜悦 渐渐 消失 了。 [CN\_TT]

Harry watched, in heart the joy from victory gradually faded sway. [Gloss]

(61)

He leaped **as** he spoke, and simultaneously came the gay voice of Peter. [EN\_ST]

shuōzhe tā tiàoxià shuǐ qù tóngshí bǐdé nà kuàihuóde shēngyīn hǎn le chūlái  
说 着，他 跳下 水 去；同时，彼得 那 快活的 声音 喊 了 出来。 [CN\_TT]

Saying, he jumped into water, at the same time, Peter's joyful voice called out. [Gloss]

When the TL does not have a directly equivalent conjunction, translators were likely to resort to the strategy of explicitation. For example, another English-specific structure, “too...to” (as in “too young to go to school”), does not have an equivalent structure in Chinese, either. The qualitative analysis showed that in translating sentences involving this structure, translators regularly used a conjunction to achieve semantic equivalence (see Example (62)).

(62)

I felt annoyed with him for going so fast, but I was **too** proud **to** ask him to slow down, [EN\_ST]

wǒ duì tā pǎo zhème kuài dōu yǒudiǎn shēngqì le dànshì wǒ bú yuànyì shuō ràng tā màndiǎn yīnwéi wǒ  
我 对 他 跑 这 么 快，都 有 点 生 气 了。但 是 我 不 愿 意 说 让 他 慢 点，因 为 我  
juéde búdàhǎo yìsī  
觉 得 不 大 好 意 思。 [CN\_TT]

I for him running so fast, a bit angry. But I didn't want to ask him to slow down, because I felt a bit embarrassing. [Gloss]

The ST in Example (62) contains a “too...to” structure, which implies a causal relation. In the TL of Chinese, an equivalent structure is not immediately available. In this case, the translator decided to realise the equivalent logico-semantic meaning with a conjunction. By shifting the “too...to” structure into a conjunction, explicitation is involved because the originally implicit causal relation in the ST has been magnified, explicitly marked by a conjunction in the TT.

Example (63) illustrates another situation where explicitation is carried out by translating relative pronouns in the ST into conjunctions in the TT. Due to the lack of a syntactically and semantically matching equivalent in Chinese, “which”, when used as a relative pronoun to lead a dependent elaborating clause in English, may pose a challenge in English-Chinese translation. Although “which”, when used to connect a dependent clause with the main clause, is similar to a conjunction in the connective function, the logico-semantic relation it brings is rather implicit compared with the direct use of a conjunction. In other words, the logico-semantic meaning becomes clearer through the use of conjunctions and, therefore, explicitation is carried out when a translation shift like this happens. Example (63) presents an example of the application of this strategy.

(63)

There was a street on each side and an open door on both, **which** made the large, low room pretty clear to see in, in spite of clouds of tobacco smoke. [EN\_ST]

jiǔdiàn de liǎngcè gè yǒu yītiáo jiēdào jiǔdiàn yě gè yǒu yīshàn mén tōngwǎng zhè liǎngtiáo jiēdào,  
酒店 的 两 侧 各 有 一 条 街 道, 酒 店 也 各 有 一 扇 门 通 往 这 两 条 街 道,  
yīncǐ jǐnguǎn jiǔdiàn lǐ yānwù téngténg rénmen hái shì néng jiāng dīǎi ér kuānchǎng de diàntáng kàndé yī  
因 此, 尽 管 酒 店 里 烟 雾 腾 腾, 人 们 还 是 能 将 低 矮 而 宽 敞 的 店 堂 看 得 一  
qīngèrchǔ  
清 二 楚。 [CN\_TT]

Hotel's two sides each had a street, the hotel also had a door leading to these two streets, therefore, even though the hotel was full of clouds of tobacco smoke, people could still see clearly these short and wide halls. [Gloss]

In the translations from English into Chinese, implicitations were expected to comply with the implicit stylistic feature of Chinese. By comparing the frequency of conjunctions in Chinese and English, this study found that the Chinese writers of children's books in this study's sample made less frequent use of conjunctions than the English writers of the same text type. Conjunctions occurred at a rate of 23.10 per 1,000 words in English while a much lower frequency was typical in Chinese (7.68 per 1,000 words; see Section 5.2.1 and 5.3.1 in Chapter 5). This result is in line with Xiao and Hu's (2015) observation that Chinese features an infrequent use of intra-sentential and inter-sentential conjunctions in comparison to English and other Indo-European languages.

Examples (64)-(65) demonstrate the situations when translators omitted conjunctions to comply with the communicative norms of the Chinese TL community. For example, in

Examples (64) and (65), the conjunctions “because” and “if” were not translated into any of their equivalents (e.g., 因为 *yīnwéi* ‘because’; 如果 *rúguǒ* ‘if’). This comes as no surprise considering that conjunctions are less frequently used linguistic elements in Chinese than in English.

(64)

I am awfully glad, Daddy, because now I won’t be such a burden to you. [EN\_ST]

wǒ gāoxìng jí le shūshū yǐhòu wǒ jiāng búzài shì nín de fùdān le  
我高兴极了，叔叔，以后我将不再是您的负担了。 [CN\_TT]

I happy extremely, Uncle, from now on I will no longer is your burden. [Gloss]

(65)

I’ll never be able to do anything important if I stay in here like this. [EN\_ST]

chéngtiān bèi guānzài jiālǐ wǒ néng yǒu shénme chū xī  
成天被关在家里，我能有什么出息？ [CN\_TT]

All day being isolated at home, I how come have something important. [Gloss]

Similarly, in Example (66), implicitation was identified, that is, from a conjunction to a verbal phrase. The translator has paraphrased the concessive relation in the TT by using a verbal phrase, 没想到 *méi xiǎngdào* “didn’t think of” in Example (66a). This choice in Example (66a) seems to have been motivated by an attempt to follow the TL norms in Chinese. In fact, translating the ST conjunction “but” into a Chinese conjunction 但是 *dànshì* “but” is also an option, as displayed in Example (66b). However, in evaluating the two options, one would find that the translation in Example (66a) sounds more native and the verbal phrase recalls the verb “supposed” in the previous clause.

(66)

Tom supposed that the subject of Time would be left to rest **but** his uncle was now determined to make full amends for the morning. [EN\_ST]

tāngmǔ yǐwéi shíjiān de huàtí huì bèi zànshí gēzài yībiān méi xiǎngdào yífū xiànzài juéjì yào  
a. 汤姆以为时间的话题会被暂时搁在一边，没想到姨夫现在决计要  
míbǔ tā nàtiān zǎochén de shītài  
弥补他那天早晨的失态。 [CN\_TT]

Tom though time topic will be temporarily put aside, did not think that Uncle now decided to make up that morning gaffe [Gloss]

tāngmǔ yǐwéi shíjiān de huàtí huì bèi zànshí gēzài yībiān dànshì yífū xiànzài juéjì yào  
b. 汤姆以为时间的话题会被暂时搁在一边，但是姨夫现在决计要  
míbǔ tā nàtiān zǎochén de shītài  
弥补他那天早晨的失态。

Tom though time topic will be temporarily put aside, but did not think that Uncle now decided to make up that morning gaffe [Gloss]

In these cases, the implicitation of conjunctions could be justified as the attempt to follow the Chinese TL norms. However, the current study found substantial evidence that the translators “failed” to comply with the communicative norms of the TL community. Some of these cases were caused by SLI. The SLI-related explicitations occurred even more than the combined frequency of explicitations of other kinds (light and strong explicitations; see Chapter 6). As the previous section explains, the SL, English, seemed to have exerted a surprisingly powerful influence on the translated texts. Triggered by the conjunctions in the English ST, these “unnecessary” conjunctions were not omitted even when their occurrences might have violated the conventional norms of the TL.

Another violation of the TL norms came from the explicitation of logico-semantic relations when the occurrence of a conjunction was not prompted by a ST conjunction. Rather, it was an addition made by the translators.

In Chapter 5, the results found significantly increased explicitness in the translated Chinese texts compared to the non-translated Chinese texts. In order to explain this increased conjunctive explicitness, three explanations are proposed: SLI, risk management and cognitive complexity. The parallel corpus analysis discussed in Chapter 6 showed that SLI could partially account for the increased explicitness. Excluding the SLI-related explicitations, the remaining cases involving increased explicitness could be ascribed to explicitations caused by translation additions and explicating shifts. The motivations for these explicitations might have been related to the translators’ consideration of risk aversion and their attempts to reduce cognitive load. Since Chapter 6 documents the detailed deduction process of this argument, it is not repeated here. Instead, two more examples are presented below to demonstrate how the TL norms were violated by the impact of risk aversion and cognitive complexity.



According to the risk aversion hypothesis, translators tended to provide more communication clues for their readers. This is because the readers of the TT are people who normally have no access to the original text and its context, and thus the information that was familiar to the ST audience may not have been equally accessible to them. Therefore, the translators tried to bridge this gap to avoid miscommunication, as any communication failure risks the rejection of the translation work by the audience, thus causing the translator to lose income or status in the market. This risk-aversion hypothesis could be extended to explain some of the occurrences of the “anti-norms” conjunctions.

In the English-Chinese translation direction, translators often needed to decide between two options when handling conjunctions: to omit the translation of the conjunction to comply with the Chinese TL conventions; or to use an equivalent conjunction in Chinese to avoid any risk of not properly maintaining translation equivalence. When the risk of the latter outweighed the risk of deviating from the TL norms, a conjunction was likely to be used in the TL even if its use impacted on the naturalness of the language. The decision appeared to be often based on a calculation of “form” and “content”. If the logico-semantic relation was not transferred successfully, due to the lack of a conjunction, it may have caused comprehension problems, whereas the use of a conjunction, even though unnecessary, would only cause some redundancy in reading.

A major risk in relation to the use of conjunctions is cohesion and coherence. As one of the cohesion devices, conjunctions indicate the logico-semantic meaning relationship between segments. Together with other means, conjunctions help to string a piece of text together to achieve cohesion and coherence. If an audience cannot see the logico-semantic meaning between segments, they would not understand the discourse purpose of the text as a whole. Working with texts, the professionally trained translators were likely to be aware of this and were likely to understand the importance of maintaining cohesion in the translated texts. Sometimes, such awareness may have caused them to add conjunctions without much hesitation even when there was no direct trigger to do so. For instance, in Example (67), 如果 *rúguǒ* ‘if’ was added in the translation in Example (67a). The addition could be considered as a means to facilitate the understanding of the semantic relation of the sentence. For comparison purposes, an alternative translation is presented in Example (67b), where no conjunction is used in the TT. It can be seen that the text reads less cohesively compared to the translation in Example (67a), and it is also less cohesive compared to the ST. In the ST, although without a

conjunction, the cohesion is achieved by the repetition of the pronouns “you... your... you”. In the official translation in Example (67a), the translator did not translate all these second person pronouns. Instead, only “your” was translated into 你的 *nǐde* ‘your’. To make up for the loss of cohesive devices, the translator has added the conjunction 如果 *rúguǒ* ‘if’ as a new device to maintain the cohesion. In Example (67c), the conjunction was replaced with a second person pronoun “you” to achieve the same level of cohesion. As a comparison, Example (67d) is more cohesive than the ST as both pronouns and conjunctions are used in the translation to reinforce the cohesive effect. However, in reality, the translation in Example (67d) would be deemed as unnatural as it is packed with cohesive devices in a rather short sentence.

(67)

and we saw a man selling fortunes. You paid him ten cents and a little bird picked out your fortune for you. [EN\_ST]

háiyǒu yīgè suànmìng lǎotóu rúguǒ fùgěi tā shífēnqián tā dài de xiǎoniǎo jiù huìyòng zuǐ  
a. 还有一个算命老头，如果付给他十分钱，他带的小鸟就会用嘴  
chōuchū yī zhī qiānzǐ lái jiěshì nǐde mìngyùn  
抽出一支签子来解释你的命运。 [CN\_TT]

There was an old-man fortune teller, if pay him 10 cents, his bird then will use its mouth to pick up a stick to explain your fate. [Gloss]

háiyǒu yīgè suànmìng lǎotóu fùgěi tā shífēnqián tā dài de xiǎoniǎo jiù huìyòng zuǐ chōuchū  
b. 还有一个算命老头，\_\_\_\_付给他十分钱，他带的小鸟会用嘴抽出  
yī zhī qiānzǐ lái jiěshì nǐde mìngyùn  
一支签子来解释你的命运。

There was an old-man fortune teller, pay him 10 cents, his bird will use its mouth to pick up a stick to explain your fate. [Gloss]

háiyǒu yīgè suànmìng lǎotóu nǐ fùgěi tā shífēnqián tā dài de xiǎoniǎo jiù huìyòng zuǐ chōuchū  
c. 还有一个算命老头，你付给他十分钱，他带的小鸟会用嘴抽出  
yī zhī qiānzǐ lái jiěshì nǐde mìngyùn  
一支签子来解释你的命运。

There was an old-man fortune teller, you pay him 10 cents, his bird will use its mouth to pick up a stick to explain your fate. [Gloss]

háiyǒu yīgè suànmìng lǎotóu rúguǒ nǐ fùgěi tā shífēnqián tā dài de xiǎoniǎo jiù huìyòng zuǐ  
d. 还有一个算命老头，如果你付给他十分钱，他带的小鸟会用嘴  
chōuchū yī zhī qiānzǐ lái jiěshì nǐde mìngyùn  
抽出一支签子来解释你的命运。

There was an old-man fortune teller, if you pay him 10 cents, his bird then will use its mouth to pick up a stick to explain your fate. [Gloss]

In summary, in the English-Chinese translations, implicitations happened when the translators dealt with the restrictions of TL structures, conformed to TL norms, and translated simple and easy texts. However, in this translation direction, explicitation happened even more frequently than implicitation, and this included cases where there was a lack of direct equivalence, and there was a risk of failure in conveying the logico-semantic meaning. Sometimes, it was found that explicitation was used to reinforce the cohesion in the TL, which seemed unnecessary and might have violated TL norms. Therefore, it is not surprising that explicitation happened with a higher frequency than implicitation in this translation direction from English to Chinese. These “over explicitations” were manifested by a significantly higher degree of explicitness in the translated texts when they were compared to the non-translated texts in the same language (i.e., Chinese). The failure to operate implicitations resulted in “under-implication”, despite implicitation being compliant with the TL norm. Unsurprisingly, cases of implicitation were far from sufficient to trade off the number of explicitations in the Chinese-English translations, thus resulting in the asymmetric relation between explicitations in the Chinese-English translation and implicitations in the English-Chinese translation.

Moreover, the large number of explicitations in the English-Chinese translation direction could by no means be overridden by the extremely small number of implicitations in Chinese-English translation. Therefore, the asymmetric relation also happened between the explicitations in the English-Chinese translations and implicitations in the Chinese-English translations. This is the explanation for the observed asymmetry put forward in the current study.

## **7.4 Conclusion**

In this chapter, the impact that English had on the occurrence of the asymmetric pattern between explicitation and implicitation was explored. The asymmetric power relation between English and Chinese was likely to have created an unbalanced translation market with more translations from English into Chinese than the other way round. As a result, readers of translated Chinese texts were likely to be more tolerant of linguistic features shining through because of SLI, and the translators were also more likely to be sensitive to the features of English than to those of the Chinese language. Against this background, it was not surprising to see the translations exhibit features that were more in line with the English texts.

The chapter also explored the motivations behind the occurrences of explicitation and implicitation. In general, it was argued that the translators explicitated and implicitated in order to deal with specific restrictions of the TL system, to follow the conventional use of the TL, and to avoid cohesion and coherence failures.

## **Chapter 8 Conclusion**

### **8.1 Introduction**

As introduced in Chapter 1, the objective of this study was threefold: first, to investigate whether there were significant differences in explicitness between translated and non-translated children's books in Chinese and English; second, to investigate whether these translated texts in Chinese and English were more explicit than their corresponding source texts; third, to explore possible explanations for the identified differences between the translated and non-translated children's books, as well as the source and target texts, with the objective of contributing to a better understanding of the motivations for the proposed features of translated language. The operationalisation adopted in this study involved conjunctions, which have been one of the most frequently used linguistic indicators.

In this chapter, the methodology used in this study is briefly reviewed (Section 8.2), a summary of the findings is provided and some conclusions are drawn (Section 8.3). Implications of the findings, the limitations of this study and suggestions for future research are discussed in Section 8.4.

### **8.2 Review of the methodology**

To answer the research questions posed, a large, combined, bidirectional comparable and parallel corpus consisting of translated and non-translated children's books in Chinese and English was compiled. The books selected in each subcorpus were popular literature, suitable for older child readers aged between 11-14 years. Due to the limited scope of the study, the operationalisation of the conjunctions used a bottom-up approach to extract the conjunctions that were used in corpus analysis. The concord function in WordSmith Tools 8.0 and Sketch engine was used to calculate the frequency of the conjunctions.

After the necessary processing of the data was completed, quantitative analyses were conducted to determine whether there were significant differences in the frequency of the conjunctions in the comparable corpus of the translated and non-translated texts in Chinese and English. The translated texts were then compared with their STs to search for instances of explicitation and implicitation. The comparisons between the number of explicitations and implicitations were made to see if the translated texts were more explicit than their STs, and also to test the

asymmetry hypothesis. In order to interpret the results of the quantitative analysis and to explore possible reasons behind them, a qualitative analysis was carried out, with the aim of explaining the patterns found in the comparable and parallel corpus analysis.

### **8.3 Summary of findings**

Based on the findings and discussions presented in Chapters 5-7, the subsections below discuss the findings in depth and draw some final conclusions.

#### **8.3.1 Research Question 1: Comparable corpus analysis**

The overall tendency of all Chinese conjunctions investigated showed that the translated texts demonstrated significantly increased explicitness that was achieved by the use of conjunctions when compared to the non-translated texts in the same language (Chinese), a finding in line with previous studies investigating the differences and similarities between translated and non-translated texts in Chinese in adult texts (see Xiao & Hu, 2015). Together with findings from studies focusing on other language pairs and across other text types (Jiménez-Crespo, 2011; Kruger, 2019; Marco, 2018; Pápai, 2004), the results of the present study provided substantial evidence for the hypothesised increased explicitness of lexicogrammatical encoding in translated texts in comparison to non-translated texts. The proposed explanations of increased explicitness were attested by case-studying a group of conjunctions in the subsequent analysis. It was found that conjunctions might have been used more frequently to ease the cognitive processing load in translation tasks, where cognitive load is generally considered to be more demanding than other monolingual or bilingual communicative activities.<sup>30</sup> As evident in some complex sentence structures, the tendency to explicit the logico-semantic relations between clauses was detected. Furthermore, the translators' intentions to explicitly signal the relationship for child readers to promote the readability of the texts and thus facilitate comprehension could also be related to the overuse of conjunctions in translated texts. Lastly, there was also a clear transfer effect in the occurrences of optional conjunctions in the Chinese TT, which corresponded to the use of conjunctions in the ST in English. It could be assumed that the more explicit lexicogrammatical and stylistic feature of marking logico-semantic relations in the SL had been transferred to the translations in Chinese during the translation

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<sup>30</sup> Needless to say, this hypothesised explanation of cognitive complexity needs to be substantiated by quasi-experimental data and/or simultaneous/retrospective survey.

process. However, it remained unclear whether the differences between the translations and non-translations could be ascribed to the assumed “translation-inherent” feature or whether it was a result of transfer or interference effects, considering the fact that English prefers more explicit lexicogrammatical encoding than Chinese. In an attempt to tease apart these two possible explanations, conjunctions by logico-semantic types and individual conjunctions were analysed in more detail. When tested by logico-semantic types, the same tendency was found among the conjunctions overall, that is, for all the logico-semantic relations investigated, the translated texts had a significantly more frequent use of conjunctions than the non-translated texts, suggesting that the increased explicitness could have been a translation-specific feature, irrespective of categorical differences. However, this increased explicitness was not found in each individual conjunction. Eleven out of 19 conjunctions demonstrated statistically significant differences in their frequencies and the tendencies were in line with the overall and logico-semantic categorical tendencies. That the tendency towards increased explicitness did not play out across all of the 19 conjunctions but was an effect associated with 11 of them suggests that the increased explicitness was also likely to be related to a source-language transfer or interference effect. A more comprehensive way to further test the assumed increased explicitness was to also examine the tendency in the reversed translation direction, that is, the Chinese-English translations. On the one hand, if the translated children’s books in English also showed significantly increased explicitness than the comparable non-translated English children’s literature, then together with the increased explicitness found in translated Chinese texts, they could be taken as strong evidence for a general tendency towards increased explicitness in the translations, regardless of the translation direction involved. On the other hand, if the increased explicitness was not found in the reversed direction (from Chinese to English), for example, if the translated English texts tended to be less explicit than the non-translated English texts by making less frequent use of conjunctions, then the increased explicitness could be rejected. In this case, instead of claiming increased explicitness as a universal feature of translated language inherent in the translation process, the effects from SL and the linguistic/cultural differences between this language pair needed to be taken into account in interpreting the findings. Surprisingly, an increased explicitness was not found in the overall use of conjunctions in the translated English corpus, suggesting that the use of conjunctions showed a similar pattern between the translated English and non-translated original English children’s books. In terms of categorical comparison, only conditional concessive conjunctions demonstrated statistically significant differences, but not in the

predicted direction (there were more concessive conjunctions used in the original texts). The individual analysis of each conjunction showed that only four out of the 20 investigated conjunctions demonstrated significant differences in their frequencies between the two subcorpora, with two of them being more frequently used in the translation subcorpus while the other two were more frequently used in the original subcorpus. These findings bring further evidence of the underlying influence from SL, which was Chinese in this case, as the relatively less preference for conjunctions in Chinese may have suppressed the use of conjunctions in the translated English texts. In other words, the increased explicitness found in the translated Chinese was probably the consequence of SLI, that is, the more explicit lexicogrammatical and stylistic features of English were transferred to the translated Chinese texts by shining through the translation process. Moreover, when Chinese, a language that prefers less explicit lexicogrammatical encoding, becomes the SL, such a tendency was diminished in the translated English texts. It is worth noting that the degree of SLI of Chinese as the SL is not compatible with the degree of SLI of English as the SL, that is, the source language interference of Chinese was not strong enough to cause the translated English texts to demonstrate a significantly less frequent use of conjunctions, unlike the situation in the other translation direction from English to Chinese.

This asymmetrical pattern of increased explicitness could be explained by the unequal language positions of English and Chinese, and the impact of this unequal status on the two competing laws guiding the translational behaviour proposed by Toury (2012). In translation, the law of growing standardisation (normalisation) and the law of interference are in constant tension. The result of this competition was likely to be influenced by a few factors, among which language position is more pertinent to the current language pair. English is a relatively more prestigious language than Chinese and, therefore, the features of English have tended to be more valued and tolerated in the translation from English. Accordingly, in the translation from English to Chinese, the influence from English tended to be more manifested in the translations, as reflected in the more frequent overall use of conjunctions in the translated Chinese. In contrast, the SL interference from Chinese tended to be less felt in the translated texts as suggested by the overall non-significant differences between the translations and non-translations in English. Rather, the strong tendency towards normalisation in TL (English in this case) affected the translations to exhibit an identical use of conjunctions in the two subcorpora in question.



### 8.3.2 Research Question 2: Parallel corpus analysis

In addressing the second research question, two parallel corpora were studied, one for each direction (NECB & TCCB for English-Chinese and NCCB & TECB for Chinese-English). This section starts with findings from the English-Chinese translations, and then the Chinese-English translations are discussed. The alignment of the Chinese translations with their English STs showed that the conjunctions in the translations were largely caused by translating conjunctions in the STs in that 83.69% of all the conjunctions in the translated Chinese were retrieved from an equivalent conjunction in English whereas the remaining 16.31% experienced explicating shifts, being either substituted or added during the translation. This finding suggested the increased use of conjunctions found in the comparable corpus analysis was caused by transfer effects from SL (i.e., English). This hypothesis was confirmed after identifying the SLI-related explicitations (cases in which conjunctions were not lexicogrammatically needed or stylistically preferred in Chinese, but were merely triggered by the use of SL conjunctions in English, also referred to as indirect explicitation) in the English-Chinese translations. Among all the translation cases from the ST conjunctions, 25% belonged to SLI-related explicitations. Largely because of this large number of conjunctions used in the English STs, the overall instances of explicitation overrode the overall instances of implicitation in the Chinese translation, indicating that the translations were more explicit than their STs, confirming the hypothesis about explicitation in this direction. In the other direction, that is, the Chinese-English translations, the lexicogrammar of English requires the use of conjunctions to connect clauses or clause complexes syntactically and to realise logico-semantic meaning semantically. To meet this grammatical requirement, a large number of conjunctions were obligatorily used in the translated English. As the optionality to omit conjunctions became almost non-existent, the instances of implicitation were found to be limited in number. As a consequence, there were far more explicitations than implicitations in the translations from Chinese to English. This finding offers evidence that the translations were more explicit than the non-translations of the SL, which is in line with the other translation direction. Furthermore, when comparing explicitations in the English-Chinese translations with implicitations in the Chinese-English translations, the tendency of the former wins by a wide margin; and when comparing the explicitations in the Chinese-English translations with the implicitations in the English-Chinese translations, the former outnumbered the latter in the other direction. In this sense, the asymmetry hypothesis was supported by this dataset. However, rather than suggesting the asymmetry hypothesis as a universal feature in translations (Klaudy

& Károly 2005), further analysis found that the cases of explicitation were mainly caused by SLI from English in the English-Chinese translations, and the cases of explicitation in the Chinese-English translations were primarily caused by the lexicogrammatical requirements of the TL of English. Therefore, the over-representation of explicitation in both translation directions was likely to be related to the features and characteristics of the English language, regardless of it being the SL or TL.

### **8.3.3 Research Question 3: Qualitative analysis**

For the third research question, the analysis showed that the unequal power relation between the languages of English and Chinese, as reflected in the unbalanced translation tendencies of explicitation and implicitation in different translation directions, was likely to have caused the translators<sup>31</sup> to prioritise the features of the dominating language, which was English in this case. When translating from English to Chinese, the strategy of foreignisation was perceived as a legitimate strategy and a certain amount of foreignness was preferred as a way to expose the Chinese young readers to exotic language. However, when translating from Chinese into English, the strategy of domestication was found to be more preferred in an attempt to meet the expectations of the TL readers. This tendency was particularly strong among the Chinese translators who translated from their L2 to L1 (from Chinese to English). The translation from English to Chinese has a longer history and a larger quantity than the other direction. With the immersion, readers of the translated Chinese may have developed a more tolerant attitude towards a text with an inclination to the English language features, even if these features violate the TL conventions. In contrast, in the reversed translation direction (Chinese-English), child readers in English generally adopt a more conservative attitude towards translated materials, which may have made translators become more conscious of the features of English in order to enhance the target-audience acceptability of the English-speaking markets. As a result, the translated English texts were found to demonstrate a high level of similarity to the original English children's books.

As the asymmetry hypothesis found in translation between English and Chinese was more closely related to lingual-cultural reasons, Becher's (2011) proposed explanations for explicitation and implicitation in translation were adopted as the framework in this study to

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<sup>31</sup> It is worthy noting that the translations were a product, not only of the translator, but also of the editor and the publishing house.

explain when and why translators would explicitate or implicitate in translation in the current studied language pair. The analysis showed that when dealing with translation tasks between Chinese and English, translators were likely to opt for explicitation for the following reasons: to comply with the TL lexicogrammatical rules; to follow the conventions of the TL community; to reduce the potential processing complexity for child readers whose reading skills and comprehension ability are still in development; and to minimise the risk of compromising cohesion and coherence. Furthermore, explicitation was likely to happen if an immediate equivalent was missing in the TL. As a result, the translated texts were more explicit and more readable for readers due to the increased explicitness. In relatively much fewer cases, implicitation was also used by the translators. For instance, when the omission of conjunctions was required in order to comply with the TL lexicogrammar or conventional norms, and when the logico-semantic relation was easy to infer from the context even for a young reader and an omission of a conjunction was allowed by the TL syntax. However, it was also found that, sometimes when a conjunction was omitted, the translators may have added other cohesive devices (e.g., personal pronouns) as an alternative to secure cohesion or coherence.

## **8.4 Implications, limitations and suggestions for future studies**

### **8.4.1 Implications**

The current investigation of explicitation conceptually extends the empirical knowledge concerning the generalisation of claims about the features of translated language. For the past two decades, studies of this kind have focused on European languages and adult literature. By focusing on the language pair of English and Chinese, the current study expands this exploration by including a language outside the Indo-European language family. In particular, this study makes a contribution to the growing body of research that has considered the relationship between text types and the realisation of explicitation. The present study also highlights that the concept of “translation-inherent features of translated language” needs to be more cautiously qualified and differentiated in terms of language pairs and text types.

Furthermore, by conceptualising the definition, typologies and explanations of explicitation, this research may provide a theoretical basis for further studies on explicitation in the language pair of English and Chinese. By modelling the different types of explicitation, the findings may advance the understanding of the underlying causes of explicitation, a long-debated topic in TS.

These findings also bring meaningful implications to translator training and practice, as translators may need to be more aware of the motivations behind the most commonly adopted translation strategies. The findings could also provide theoretical support in justifying translation strategies for translators of children's literature. Based on the findings of this study, for example, the handling of conjunctions in translations could be a specific area for examination in assessing the quality of translated children's books in English and Chinese.

#### **8.4.2 Limitations and future research avenues**

Despite the contributions that the current study may make to TS, some limitations must be acknowledged to open avenues for future research. The following summarises some limitations of this study.

First, in terms of corpus composition, the corpus of translated English children's books was much smaller than the comparable non-translated children's books due to an unequal translation flow between English and Chinese. A larger scale corpus of a more comparable size might provide more robust findings. Furthermore, due to the relatively delayed history of children's literature as an independent text type in China, the books of the translated English texts (which are translations of the original Chinese children's books) and the original English children's books (classics and popular fictions) included in this comparable corpus were different in terms of time, with the former being more current. As a result, the comparability between the translated English texts and the non-translated original English texts might have been undermined. In the future, with more Chinese children's books being translated into English, a comparable corpus of translated and non-translated English children's books could be built, which is more compatible in terms of both size and timeframe.

Second, this study only focused on the use of conjunctions in achieving logico-semantic relations. This has limited the investigation of overall explicitness of translated and non-translated texts. More operationalisations at different linguistic levels could also be investigated and could provide more evidence for the research topic. For example, future research might benefit from the investigation of explicitation involving other cohesive devices, such as reference, substitution, ellipsis and lexical cohesion (see Halliday & Hasan, 1976) as well as their complex interaction (in creating a network of cohesiveness) in determining the realisation of explicitation.

Third, due to the limited scope and time constraint of this study, not all the conjunctions were included in the investigation. More conjunctions related to more diversified logico-semantic types in future studies may create a more comprehensive picture of the use of conjunctions in translation in relation to explication.

Fourth, even though the translations were mainly a product of the translators, the editor and the publisher's roles in producing the translations were by no means insignificant. More detailed study about the roles of each participating parts in the producing of a translation work is needed to better understand the occurrence of the investigated feature of explication in translations.

Lastly, as shown in the findings, the tendency to use explication was interpreted as a risk-aversion strategy and also a strategy to ease the processing load for young readers. However, how did the translators make the decision to use a conjunction when they could have omitted it? This question might be answered with translators being interviewed and with their real-time translation process being captured. The findings of corpus-based studies offer a starting point for the design of experimental research that could help to understand more about the reasons that motivate translators to opt for explication. Moreover, although explication is believed to enhance the readability of the translated texts, its impact on child readers of the translation has been not clear. It may be worth exploring how young readers may react to the products of the explications and whether their reading behaviour improves as the explications might be intentionally used to achieve. It would be interesting to examine whether the explications found in translations are unnecessary or even inhibit readers' reading comprehension. It needs to be pointed out that the original design of this study involved experimental studies to address the above-mentioned questions. However, it became impossible due to the outbreak of COVID-19 at the beginning of 2020, when the designed experiments were about to roll out. These unanswered questions may need to be pursued by future studies with a more robust design. For example, a combination of a corpus study with experimental research using advanced technology, such as keystroke-logging and eye-tracking, which have emerged as promising future avenues of research.

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## Appendices

### Appendix 1: A summary of Chinese conjunctions in B. Zhang & Y. Zhang's (2000) *Modern Chinese function words*

subtype		Chinese conjunctions
联合 <i>liánhé</i> 'coordinate'	并列 <i>bìngliè</i> 'apposition'	同时 <i>tóngshí</i> 'moreover'; (另)一方面 ( <i>lìng</i> ) <i>yīfāngmiàn</i> 'on the other hand'; 而 <i>ér</i> 'and'; 还有 <i>háiyǒu</i> 'in addition'; 此外 <i>cǐwài</i> 'furthermore'; 另外 <i>cǐwài</i> 'besides'; 反而 <i>fǎnér</i> 'instead'; 反之 <i>fǎnér</i> 'conversely'
	连贯 <i>liánguàn</i> 'sequence'	于是 <i>yúshì</i> 'so'; (紧)接着 ( <i>jǐn</i> ) <i>jiēzhe</i> 'after that'; 后来 <i>hòulái</i> 'later'; 然后 <i>ránhòu</i> 'then'; 从而 <i>cóngér</i> 'thus'; 转而 <i>zhuǎnér</i> 'instead'; 而后 <i>érhòu</i> 'then'
	递进 <i>dìjìn</i> 'progressive'	而且 <i>érqiě</i> 'and also'; 不仅 <i>bùjǐn</i> 'not only'; 并且 <i>bìngqiě</i> 'besides'; 甚至于 <i>shènérzhìyú</i> 'even'; 再说 <i>zàishuō</i> 'what's more'; 再则 <i>zàizé</i> 'besides'; 何况 <i>hékuàng</i> 'besides'; 况且 <i>kuàngqiě</i> 'moreover'; 甚至(于) <i>shènzhì(yú)</i> 'even'; 反而 <i>fǎnér</i> 'on the contrary'; 相反 <i>xiāngfǎn</i> 'on the contrary'
	选择 <i>xuǎnzé</i> 'alternative'	或 <i>huò</i> 'or'; 或者 <i>huòzhě</i> 'or'; 还是 <i>háishì</i> 'or'; 抑 <i>yì</i> 'or'; 抑或 <i>yìhuò</i> 'or'; 再不 <i>zàibù</i> 'or else'; 要么 <i>yàome</i> 'or else'
	取舍 <i>qǔshě</i> 'choose from'	宁 <i>níng</i> 'would rather'; 宁肯 <i>níngkěn</i> 'would rather'; 宁可 <i>níngkě</i> 'would rather'; 宁愿 <i>níngyuàn</i> 'would rather'; 与其 <i>yǔqí</i> 'rather than'; 如其 <i>rúqí</i> 'if'
偏正 <i>piān zhèng</i> 'endocentric'	因果 <i>yīnguǒ</i> 'cause-effect'	所以 <i>suǒyǐ</i> 'so'; 因为 <i>yīnwéi</i> 'because'; 因而 <i>yīnér</i> 'therefore'; 由于 <i>yóuyú</i> 'because of'; (由此)可见( <i>yóucǐ</i> ) <i>kějiàn</i> 'so that'; 无怪(乎) <i>wúguài(hū)</i> 'no wonder'; 难怪 <i>nánguài</i> 'no wonder'; 因此 <i>yīncǐ</i> 'consequently'; 以致 <i>yǐzhì</i> 'as a result'; 以至于 <i>yǐzhìyú</i> 'as a result'; 从而 <i>cóngér</i> 'thereby'; 那么 <i>nàme</i> 'then'; 既是 <i>jìshì</i> 'since'
	转折 <i>zhuǎnshé</i> 'adversative'	但(是) <i>dàn(shì)</i> 'but'; 然而 <i>ránér</i> 'however'; 当然 <i>dāngrán</i> 'of course'; 自然 <i>zìrán</i> 'naturally'; 不料 <i>búliào</i> 'unexpected'; 幸而 <i>xìngér</i> 'luckily'; 幸亏 <i>xìngkuī</i> 'luckily'; 幸好 <i>xìnghǎo</i> 'fortunately'; 就是 <i>jiùshì</i> 'even'; 只是 <i>zhǐshì</i> 'just'; (只)不过( <i>zhǐ</i> ) <i>búguò</i> 'only'; 而 <i>ér</i> 'but'; 倒 <i>dào</i> 'but'; 则 <i>zé</i> 'yet'; 然(则) <i>ránzé</i> 'yet'; 诚(然) <i>chéng(rán)</i> 'indeed'; 却 <i>què</i> 'but'; 可(是) <i>kě(shì)</i> 'but'; 虽(然) <i>suī(rán)</i> 'although'; 反倒 <i>fǎndào</i> 'instead'; 固(然) <i>gùrán</i> 'though'; 反而 <i>fǎnér</i> 'on the contrary'
	假设 <i>jiǎshè</i> 'postulation'	如果 <i>rúguǒ</i> 'if'; 倘使 <i>tǎngshǐ</i> 'supposing'; 假使 <i>jiǎshǐ</i> 'in case'; 果真 <i>guǒzhēn</i> 'as expected'; 要 <i>yào</i> 'suppose'; 果然(的话) <i>guǒrán(dehuà)</i> 'if as expected'; 要(不)是 <i>yào(bù)shì</i> 'if not'; 要不然的话 <i>yàobúrándehuà</i> 'or else'; 否则(的话) <i>fǒuzé(dehuà)</i> 'or'
	条件 <i>tiáojiàn</i> 'condition'	只有 <i>zhǐyǒu</i> 'only if'; 只要 <i>zhǐyào</i> 'as long as'; 才 <i>cái</i> 'only'; 如果不 <i>rúguǒbù</i> 'if not'; 就 <i>jiù</i> 'if'; 便 <i>biàn</i> 'in that case'; 即 <i>jí</i> 'then'; 无论 <i>wúlùn</i> 'regardless of'; 任(凭) <i>rèn(píng)</i> 'no matter'; 不管 <i>bùguǎn</i> 'no matter'
	目的 <i>mùde</i> 'purpose'	为的是 <i>wéideshì</i> 'for'; 为了 <i>wéile</i> 'for'; 好 <i>hǎo</i> 'so as to'; 借以 <i>jièyǐ</i> 'for the purpose of'; 省得 <i>shěngde</i> 'so as to'; 免得 <i>miǎnde</i> 'so that'; 以便 <i>yǐbiàn</i> 'for the purpose of'; 以免 <i>yǐmiǎn</i> 'so as not to'; 以好 <i>yǐhǎo</i> 'in an attempt to'; 以求 <i>yǐqiú</i> 'in the hope of'
	让步 <i>ràngbù</i> 'concession'	即使 <i>jíshǐ</i> 'even if'; 即便 <i>jíbiàn</i> 'even though'

## Appendix 2: Children's books for the NECB and TCCB

NO.	Original title	Word count	Author	Gender	Publisher	Reprint year	Original year	Translated title	Word count	Translator	Gender	Publisher	Translated year
01	A Winkle in Time	55,375	Madeleine L'Engle (USA)	Female	Square Fish	2012	1962	时间的皱纹 shíjiān de zhòuwén	64,516	廖丽 liàolì	女 nǚ 'Female'	吉林文史出版社 jílín wénshǐ chūbǎnshè 'Jinlin Literature & History Publishing House'	2007
02	Alice's Adventures in Wonderland	26,022	Lewis Carroll (US)	Male	Planet eBook	-	1865	爱丽丝漫游奇境记 àilīsī mànyóu qíjìng jì	30,677	管绍淳 guǎnshàochún	男 nán 'Male'	华东师范大学出版社 huádōng shīfàn dàxué chūbǎnshè 'East China Normal University Press'	2014
03	Anne of Green Gables	102,334	Lucy Maud Montgomery (CA)	Female	Planet eBook	-	1908	绿山墙的安妮 lǜshānqiáng de ānnī	122,694	N/A	N/A	人民文学出版社 rénmin wénxué chūbǎnshè 'People's Literature Publishing House'	2004
04	Charlotte's Web	31,898	E. B White (USA)	Male	FeedBurner	2017	1952	夏洛的网 xiàluò de wǎng	39,254	任溶溶 réngróngróng	男 nán 'Male'	上海译文出版社 shànghǎi yìwén chūbǎnshè 'Shanghai Translation Publishing House'	2014
05	Daddy-Long-Legs	36,956	Jean Webster (USA)	Female	The Project of Gutenberg Ebook	2008	1912	长腿叔叔 chángtuǐ shūshū	36,867	黄顺红 huángshùnhóng	女 nǚ 'Female'	光明日报出版社 guāngmíng rìbào chūbǎnshè 'Guangming Daily Publishing House'	2010
06	Harry Potter and the Sorcerer's Stone	78,754	J. K. Rowling (US)	Female	Bloomsbury	-	2007	哈利波特与魔法石 hālibōtè yǔ mófǎshí	101,186	马爱农; 马爱新 mǎàinóng; mǎàixīn	女 nǚ 'Female'	人民文学出版社 rénmin wénxué chūbǎnshè 'People's Literature Publishing House'	2017
07	Island of the Blue Dolphins	40,054	Scott O'Dell (USA)	Male	-	2007	1960	蓝色的海豚岛 lánse de hǎitúndǎo	42,123	傅定邦 fùdìngbāng	男 nán 'Male'	少年儿童出版社 shàonián értóng chūbǎnshè 'Juvenile & Children's Books Publishing House'	1999
08	Mary Poppins	39,247	P. L. Travers (US)	Female	HMH Books for Young Readers	2015	1934	随风而来的玛丽波平斯阿姨 suífēng érlái de mǎlibōpíngsī āyí	41,491	任溶溶 réngróngróng	男 nán 'Male'	明天出版社 míngtiān chūbǎnshè 'Tomorrow Publishing House'	2012
09	Peter Pan	47,491	J.M. Barrie (US)	Male	The Project of Gutenberg Ebook	2018	1911	彼得·潘 bǐdé pān	70,173	杨静远 yángjìngyuǎn	女 nǚ 'Female'	中央编译出版社 zhōngyāng biānyì chūbǎnshè 'Central Compilation & Translation Press'	2011



010	The Cricket in Times Square	25,309	George Selden (USA)	Male	Square Fish	2008	1961	蟋蟀奇遇记 xīshuài qíyù jì	31,962	杨江柱 yángjiāngzhù	男 <i>nán</i> 'Male'	湖北人民出版社 <i>húběi rénmin chūbǎnshè</i> 'Hubei People's Publishing House'	1981
011	The Great Blue Yonder	50,837	Alex Shearer (US)	Male	Macmillan Children's Books	2002	-	天蓝色的彼岸 tiānlánsè de biǎn	52,347	张雪松 zhāngxuěsōng	男 <i>nán</i> 'Male'	新世界出版社 <i>xīnshìjiè chūbǎnshè</i> 'New World Press'	2005
012	The Miraculous Journey of Edward Tulane	17,081	Kate DiCamillo (USA)	Female	Candlewick	2006	2006	爱德华的奇妙之旅 àidéhuá de qímiào zhī lǚ	22,254	王昕若 wángxīnrùo	女 <i>nǚ</i> 'Female'	新蕾出版社 <i>xīnlěi chūbǎnshè</i> 'New Buds Publishing House'	2011
013	The Secret Garden	80,620	Frances Hodgson Burnett (USA)	Female	The Project of Gutenberg Ebook	2005	1911	秘密花园 mìmì huāyuán	92,660	张润芳 zhāngrùnfāng	女 <i>nǚ</i> 'Female'	中国致公出版社 <i>zhōngguó zhìgōng chūbǎnshè</i> 'China Zhigong Press'	2005
014	The Wind in the Willows	58,418	Kenneth Grahame (US)	Male	The Project of Gutenberg Ebook	2009	1908	柳林风声 liǔlín fēngshēng	66,207	杨静远 yángjìngyuǎn	女 <i>nǚ</i> 'Female'	贵州人民出版社 <i>guìzhōu rénmin chūbǎnshè</i> 'Guizhou People's Publishing House'	2013
015	The Wonderful Wizard of Oz	39,248	Lyman Frank Baum (USA)	Male	Rector and Visitors of the University of Virginia	2000	1900	绿野仙踪 <i>lǜyě xiānzōng</i>	48,248	陈伯吹 chénbóchuī	男 <i>nán</i> 'Male'	西安出版社 <i>xī'ān chūbǎnshè</i> 'Xi'an Publishing House'	2016
016	Tom's Midnight Garden	55,014	Philippa Pearce (US)	Female	Greenwillow Books	2018	1958	大座钟的秘密 dàzuòzhōng de mìmì	63,378	吴建民; 施燕华 wújiànmín; shīyànhuá	男 <i>nán</i> 'Male'; 女 <i>nǚ</i> 'Female'	少年儿童出版社 <i>shàonián értóng chūbǎnshè</i> 'Juvenile & Children's Books Publishing House'	1985
017	Treasure Island	67,879	Robert Louis Stevenson (Scottish)	Male	Planet eBook	-	1883	金银岛 jīnyīndǎo	80,595	路旦俊 lùdànjūn	男 <i>nán</i> 'Male'	中国工人出版社 <i>zhōngguó gōng rén chūbǎnshè</i> 'Chinese Workers' Press'	2005
018	Tuck Everlasting	27,369	Natalie Babbitt (USA)	Female	Square Fish	2007	1975	不老泉 bùlǎoquán	30,759	吕明 <i>lǚmíng</i>	男 <i>nán</i> 'Male'	二十一世纪出版社 <i>èrshíyī shìjì chūbǎnshè</i> '21st Century Publishing House'	2013
019	Adventures of Huckleberry Finn	110,019	Mark Twain (USA)	Male	The Project of Gutenberg Ebook	2018	1884	哈克贝利·芬历险记 hākèbèilī·fēn lìxiǎn jì	117,477	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
020	Down to Earth	50,607	Patricia Wrightson (AU)	Female	Penguin Books Australia	1965	1965	太空人遇险记 tàikōngrén yùxiǎn jì	57,820	任溶溶 réngróngróng	男 <i>nán</i> 'Male'	中国少年儿童出版社 <i>zhōngguó shàonián értóng chūbǎnshè</i> 'China	1999

												Juvenile & Children's Books Publishing House'	
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1. Liao Li translates from English to Chinese.
2. Guan Shaochun translates from English to Chinese.
3. Ren Rongrong is one of the most important translators and writers of children's literature in China. Ren has made an enormous contribution to the translation industry – his translations account for approximately 8% of the total translations of children's books into Chinese.
4. Huang Shunhong currently teaches at the School of Foreign Languages, Anhui Normal University. She has been engaged in English translation theory and practice since 1990s.
5. Ma Ainong is a Chinese translator of literary works, especially children's literature, from English.
6. Ma Aixin, the sister of Ma Ainong was also a translator. She once worked at Foreign Translation Publishing Company. The sisters are famous for her collaborated translation of J. K. Rowling's Harry Potter series.
7. Fu Dingbang translates from English to Chinese. 8. Yang Jingyuan is a famous translator. The translations of *The wind in the willows* and *Peter Pan* are well received by readers.
9. Yang Jiangzhu is a member of the Chinese Translators Association. He translates from English to Chinese.
10. Zhang Xuesong is an Associate Professor at the Renmin University of China, where he teaches philosophy. He translates from English to Chinese.
11. Wang Xinruo translates from English to Chinese.
12. Zhang Runfang is a well-known translator, who mainly translates from English to Chinese.

13. Chen Bochui was a famous Chinese writer and literary translator, particularly of children's literature. He is known as one of the fathers of Chinese modern children's literature.
14. Wu Jianmin was a prominent Chinese diplomat. He worked as the spokesman of Chinese Foreign Ministry.
15. Shi Yanhua is an expert in English at the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the former director of the translation office of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the People's Republic of China and the executive vice president of the Chinese Translators Association.
16. Lu Danjun is the chief interpreter of the Ministry of Railways and the chief judge of the translation review committee of the Ministry of Railways. He has rich practical experience in translation and interpreting.
17. Lv Ming translates from English to Chinese.

### Appendix 3: Children's books for NCCB and TECB

NO.	Original title	Word count	Author	Gender	Publisher	Reprint year	Original year	Translated title	Word count	Translator	Gender	Publisher	Translated year
01	中国儿童名著精选 译丛-丰子恺 zhōngguó értóng míngzhù jīngxuǎn yìcóng -fēngzǐkǎi	30,023	丰子恺 fēngzǐkǎi	男 <i>nán</i> 'male'	五洲传播出版社 wǔzhōu chuánbō chūbǎnshè 'China Intercontinental Press'	N/A	N/A	A Feng Zikai reader	31,396	Liu Jun; Erik Nilsson	Male	China Intercontinental Press	2013
02	青铜葵花 qīngtóng kuíhuā	85,987	曹文轩 cáo wén xuān	男 <i>nán</i> 'male'	江苏少年儿童出版社 jiāngsū shǎonián értóng chūbǎnshè 'Jiangsu Juvenile & Children's Books Publishing House'	2014	2005	Bronze and Sunflower	71,514	Helen Wang	Female	Walker Books	2015
03	红豺 hóngchái	81,546	沈石溪 shěnshí xī	男 <i>nán</i> 'male'	人民邮电出版社 rénmin yóudiàn chūbǎnshè 'People's Posts and Telecom Press'	2010	2002	Jackal and Wolf	82,172	Helen Wang	Female	Egmont	2012
04	小公主和矮爸爸 xiǎogōngzhǔ hé ǎibàba	29,848	伍美珍 wǔměi zhēn	女 <i>nǚ</i> 'female'	人民邮电出版社 rénmin yóudiàn chūbǎnshè 'People's Posts and Telecom Press'	2015	2009	An Usual Princess	39,276	Petula Parris Huang	Female	Egmont	2012
05	表哥驾到 biǎogē jiàdào	49,917	秦文君 qínwén jun	女 <i>nǚ</i> 'female'	海豚出版社 hǎitún chūbǎnshè 'Dolphin Books'	2015	1998	My Cousin is Coming	46,142	Guozhe n Wang/K eyu Meng	Male	Dolphin Books	2013
06	生命的追问 shēngmìng de zhuīwèn	56,369	张海迪 zhāngh dídí	女 <i>nǚ</i> 'female'	海豚出版社 hǎitún chūbǎnshè 'Dolphin Books'	2013	2009	Life Is Life	52,936	Guozhe n Wang/Q ing Qian	Male	Dolphin Books	2014
07	马小跳-同桌冤 mǎxiǎotiào - tóngzhuō yuānjiā 马小跳-漂亮女孩 夏林果 mǎxiǎotiào - piāoliàng nǚhái xiàlín guǒ	24,474 25,587	杨红樱 yánghó ngyīng	女 <i>nǚ</i> 'female'	浙江少年儿童出版社 zhèjiāng shǎonián értóng chūbǎnshè 'Zhejiang Juvenile & Children's Books Publishing House'	2013	2003	Mo's Mischief- Teacher's pet Mo's Mischief- Best friends	17,179 12,572	HarperC ollins	-	HarperCol lins <i>Children's Books</i>	2008

08	城南旧事 chéngnán jiùshì	53,470	林海音 línghǎiyīn	女 nǚ ‘female’	译林出版社 yìlín chūbǎnshè ‘Yinlin Press’	2011	1960	Memories of Peking: South Side Stories	47,183	Qi Bangyu an; Yinzhang Lanxi	Female	Yilin Press	2011
09	大林小林 dàlín xiǎolín	32,752	张天翼 zhāngtiānyì	男 nán ‘male’	北方妇女儿童出版社 běifāng fùnǚ értóng chūbǎnshè ‘Northern China Women & Children Publishing House’	2012	1932	A Zhang Tianyi reader	28,673	Liu Jun; Erik Nilsson	Male	China Intercontinental Press	2013
Chinese Children’s books without English translations													
010	魔法听诊器 mófǎ tīngzhěnrì	43,475	商晓娜 shāngxiǎonà	女 nǚ ‘female’	福建少年儿童出版社 fújiàn shǎonián értóng chūbǎnshè ‘Fujian Juvenile & Children’s Books Publishing House’	-	2010						
011	我的妈妈是精灵 wǒde māmā shì jīnglíng	47,140	陈丹燕 chéndānyàn	女 nǚ ‘female’	福建少年儿童出版社 fújiàn shǎonián értóng chūbǎnshè ‘Fujian Juvenile & Children’s Books Publishing House’	-	2014						
012	“下次开船”港 “xiàcì kāichuán” gǎng	38,701	严文井 yánwénjǐng	男 nán ‘male’	陕西人民教育出版社 shǎnxī rénmin jiàoyù chūbǎnshè ‘Shaanxi People’s Education Press’	2013	1958						
013	魔法学校-小女巫 mófǎ xuéxiào - xiǎo nǚwū	48,413	葛竞 gējìng	女 nǚ ‘female’	春风文艺出版社 chūnfēng wényì chūbǎnshè ‘Chunfeng Literature and Art Publishing House’	-	2012						
014	小灵通漫游未来 xiǎo língtōng mànyóu wèilái	54,801	叶永烈 yèyǒngliè	男 nán ‘male’	长江少年儿童出版社 chángjiāng shǎonián értóng chūbǎnshè ‘Changjiang Children’s Publishing Group’	2016	1978						
015	白狐迪拉与月亮石 bái hú dī lā yǔ yuèliàngshí	168,857	陈佳同 chénjiā tóng	男 nán ‘male’	人民文艺出版社 rénmin wényì chūbǎnshè ‘People’s Literature Publishing House’	-	2014						
016	飞向人马座 fēi xiàng rén mǎ zuò	75,881	郑文光 zhèng wén guāng	男 nán ‘male’	湖北少年儿童出版社 húběi shǎonián értóng chūbǎnshè ‘Hubei Juvenile & Children’s Books Publishing House’	2006	1978						
017	装在口袋里的爸爸 - 后悔药 zhuāng zài kǒu dai li de ba ba - hòu huǐ yào	46,108	杨鹏 yáng péng	男 nán ‘male’	二十一世纪出版社 èrshíyī shì jì chūbǎnshè ‘21st Century Publishing House’	-	2013						

	kǒudàilǐ de bàbà - hòuhuǐyào												
018	没有风的扇子 méiyǒu fēng de shànzi	57,556	孙幼军 sūnyòu jun	男 <i>nán</i> 'male'	江苏凤凰少年儿童出版社 <i>jiāngsū fēnghuáng shàonián értóng chūbǎnshè</i> 'Jiangsu Phoenix Children's Publishing House'	2015	2003						
019	童话大王讲经典- 西游记 <i>tónghuà dàwáng jiǎng jīngdiǎn - xīyóujì</i>	149,250	郑渊洁 zhèngyǒu jié	男 <i>nán</i> 'male'	二十一世纪出版社 <i>èrshíyī shìjì chūbǎnshè</i> '21st Century Publishing House'	-	2011						
020	小老虎历险记 xiǎolǎohǔ lìxiǎn jì	48,537	汤素兰 tāngsùlǎn	女 <i>nǚ</i> 'female'	天天出版社 <i>tiāntiān chūbǎnshè</i> 'Daylight Publishing House'	2013	2010						

1. Liu Jun is a senior reporter and editor with China Daily. She has translated a dozen of books on Chinese folk customs, ancient sports, calligraph, Tibet, religion, and peacekeeping mission abroad.

2. Erik Nilsson is an American senior writer and features editor with China Daily. He has co-written and/or edited 16 books about China, dealing with the country's environment, natural disasters, UN peacekeeping involvement, etc.

3. Helen Wang is an English sinologist and award-winning translator. She translates from Chinese to English and has published a number of literary translations from Chinese.

4. Petula Parris Huang is a Taiwan based translator with native proficiency in English and full professional proficiency in Chinese. She provides Chinese to English translation and language consultancy, specialising in business, marketing, media and literature.

5. Wang Zhenguo works as a lecturer on translator training for the translator title examination. He has worked as a Chinese-English translator for nearly 40 years.

6. Meng Keyu is a Chinese translator, who mainly translates from English to Chinese.

7. Qian Qing is an Associate Professor at Peking University teaching linguistics and English. She translates from English to Chinese and Chinese to English.
8. Qi Bangyuan is a notable writer, academic and Chinese-English translator. She has been instrumental in introducing Taiwanese literature to the western world through translations.
9. Yinzhong Lanxi was a poet and translator. She was one of the first translators who translated Taiwanese contemporary literature into English.

Appendix 4: The frequency list of all searched possible Chinese conjunctive items

N	File Words (approx.)	Hits	%	Spread
1	Overall	2,494,841	92,210	36.96%
2	就像	2,494,841	15,983	6.41%
3	就像	2,494,841	3,922	1.57%
4	可信	2,494,841	3,442	1.38%
5	可信	2,494,841	3,032	1.22%
6	因为	2,494,841	2,813	1.13%
7	因为	2,494,841	2,802	1.12%
8	再	2,494,841	2,644	1.06%
9	时候	2,494,841	2,489	1.00%
10	可是	2,494,841	2,354	0.94%
11	就是	2,494,841	2,286	0.92%
12	而	2,494,841	2,195	0.88%
13	才是	2,494,841	1,969	0.79%
14	不是	2,494,841	1,965	0.79%
15	都	2,494,841	1,906	0.76%
16	如果	2,494,841	1,867	0.75%
17	不过	2,494,841	1,840	0.74%
18	还是	2,494,841	1,826	0.73%
19	那么	2,494,841	1,819	0.73%
20	当然	2,494,841	1,780	0.71%
21	还	2,494,841	1,745	0.70%
22	然后	2,494,841	1,708	0.68%
23	但是	2,494,841	1,645	0.66%
24	所以	2,494,841	1,235	0.50%
25	一边	2,494,841	1,208	0.48%
26	好像	2,494,841	1,152	0.46%
27	并且	2,494,841	1,132	0.45%
28	然后	2,494,841	1,080	0.43%
29	是	2,494,841	1,072	0.43%
30	当然	2,494,841	1,060	0.42%
31	只是	2,494,841	1,014	0.41%
32	而且	2,494,841	990	0.40%
33	但是	2,494,841	952	0.38%
34	于是	2,494,841	901	0.36%
35	倒	2,494,841	873	0.35%
36	虽然	2,494,841	835	0.33%
37	后来	2,494,841	791	0.32%
38	只要	2,494,841	677	0.27%
39	终于	2,494,841	659	0.26%
40	先	2,494,841	654	0.26%
41	或者	2,494,841	527	0.21%
42	一边	2,494,841	510	0.20%
43	或者	2,494,841	483	0.19%
44	甚至	2,494,841	477	0.19%
45	甚至	2,494,841	470	0.19%
46	就像	2,494,841	437	0.18%
47	因此	2,494,841	414	0.17%
48	不管	2,494,841	390	0.16%
49	即使	2,494,841	366	0.14%
50	即使	2,494,841	345	0.14%
51	一面	2,494,841	297	0.12%
52	再说	2,494,841	290	0.12%
53	如果	2,494,841	290	0.12%
54	另外	2,494,841	290	0.12%
55	另外	2,494,841	281	0.11%
56	既然	2,494,841	251	0.10%
57	果然	2,494,841	250	0.10%
58	并且	2,494,841	245	0.10%
59	然而	2,494,841	243	0.10%
60	自然	2,494,841	225	0.09%
61	由于	2,494,841	212	0.08%
62	则	2,494,841	211	0.08%
63	假如	2,494,841	169	0.07%
64	等到	2,494,841	166	0.07%
65	以及	2,494,841	166	0.06%
66	且从	2,494,841	153	0.06%
67	不过	2,494,841	141	0.06%
68	不仅	2,494,841	135	0.05%
69	首先	2,494,841	130	0.05%
70	即	2,494,841	127	0.05%
71	比如	2,494,841	127	0.05%
72	无论	2,494,841	121	0.05%
73	否则	2,494,841	117	0.05%
74	除非	2,494,841	111	0.04%
75	不像	2,494,841	106	0.04%
76	或者	2,494,841	103	0.04%
77	反而	2,494,841	99	0.04%
78	不但	2,494,841	98	0.04%
79	不如	2,494,841	97	0.04%
80	凡	2,494,841	94	0.04%
81	万一	2,494,841	88	0.04%
82	从此	2,494,841	87	0.03%
83	虽然	2,494,841	87	0.03%
84	然	2,494,841	76	0.03%
85	不是	2,494,841	74	0.03%
86	也	2,494,841	71	0.03%
87	是	2,494,841	70	0.03%
88	之	2,494,841	67	0.03%
89	别说	2,494,841	67	0.03%
90	紧接	2,494,841	63	0.03%
91	怎么说	2,494,841	62	0.02%
92	最终	2,494,841	58	0.02%
93	任	2,494,841	53	0.02%
94	宁	2,494,841	53	0.02%
95	宁	2,494,841	50	0.02%
96	不论	2,494,841	49	0.02%



continued

97	最初	2,494,841	49	0.02%	0.000
98	要不然	2,494,841	45	0.02%	0.000
99	相反	2,494,841	44	0.02%	0.000
100	难道	2,494,841	39	0.02%	0.000
101	不光	2,494,841	37	0.01%	0.000
102	不料	2,494,841	36	0.01%	0.000
103	况且	2,494,841	33	0.01%	0.000
104	果真	2,494,841	32	0.01%	0.000
105	即便	2,494,841	32	0.01%	0.000
106	也就是说	2,494,841	30	0.01%	0.000
107	以便	2,494,841	28	0.01%	0.000
108	以便	2,494,841	27	0.01%	0.000
109	便使	2,494,841	26	0.01%	0.000
110	比方	2,494,841	26	0.01%	0.000
111	何说	2,494,841	25	0.01%	0.000
112	以免	2,494,841	24		0.000
113	例如	2,494,841	24		0.000
114	宁可	2,494,841	23		0.000
115	恕先	2,494,841	23		0.000
116	可见	2,494,841	23		0.000
117	此外	2,494,841	22		0.000
118	于	2,494,841	22		0.000
119	倘若	2,494,841	21		0.000
120	为的是	2,494,841	20		0.000
121	任凭	2,494,841	20		0.000
122	好比	2,494,841	20		0.000
123	也罢	2,494,841	19		0.000
124	不仅仅	2,494,841	18		0.000
125	以致	2,494,841	18		0.000
126	一方面	2,494,841	17		0.000
127	此后	2,494,841	14		0.000
128	而后	2,494,841	14		0.000
129	固然	2,494,841	13		0.000
130	即令	2,494,841	12		0.000
131	即便	2,494,841	12		0.000
132	即便	2,494,841	11		0.000
133	即便	2,494,841	10		0.000
134	即便	2,494,841	10		0.000
135	即便	2,494,841	9		0.000
136	即便	2,494,841	9		0.000
137	即便	2,494,841	8		0.000
138	即便	2,494,841	8		0.000
139	即便	2,494,841	7		0.000
140	即便	2,494,841	7		0.000
141	即便	2,494,841	7		0.000
142	即便	2,494,841	6		0.000
143	即便	2,494,841	6		0.000
144	即便	2,494,841	5		0.000
145	即便	2,494,841	4		0.000
146	即便	2,494,841	4		0.000
147	即便	2,494,841	4		0.000
148	即便	2,494,841	3		0.000
149	即便	2,494,841	3		0.000
150	即便	2,494,841	3		0.000
151	即便	2,494,841	3		0.000
152	即便	2,494,841	3		0.000
153	即便	2,494,841	3		0.000
154	即便	2,494,841	2		0.000
155	即便	2,494,841	2		0.000
156	即便	2,494,841	2		0.000
157	即便	2,494,841	2		0.000
158	即便	2,494,841	2		0.000
159	即便	2,494,841	2		0.000
160	即便	2,494,841	2		0.000
161	即便	2,494,841	1		0.000
162	即便	2,494,841	1		0.000
163	即便	2,494,841	1		0.000
164	即便	2,494,841	1		0.000
165	即便	2,494,841	1		0.000
166	即便	2,494,841	1		0.000
167	即便	2,494,841	1		0.000
168	即便	2,494,841	1		0.000
169	即便	2,494,841	1		0.000
170	即便	2,494,841	1		0.000
171	即便	2,494,841	0		0.000
172	即便	2,494,841	0		0.000
173	即便	2,494,841	0		0.000
174	即便	2,494,841	0		0.000
175	即便	2,494,841	0		0.000
176	即便	2,494,841	0		0.000
177	即便	2,494,841	0		0.000
178	即便	2,494,841	0		0.000
179	即便	2,494,841	0		0.000
180	即便	2,494,841	0		0.000
181	即便	2,494,841	0		0.000
182	即便	2,494,841	0		0.000
183	即便	2,494,841	0		0.000
184	即便	2,494,841	0		0.000
185	即便	2,494,841	0		0.000
186	即便	2,494,841	0		0.000
187	即便	2,494,841	0		0.000
188	即便	2,494,841	0		0.000
189	即便	2,494,841	0		0.000
190	即便	2,494,841	0		0.000
191	即便	2,494,841	0		0.000
192	即便	2,494,841	0		0.000
193	即便	2,494,841	0		0.000
194	即便	2,494,841	0		0.000
195	即便	2,494,841	0		0.000