

PhD thesis

**An Analysis of the Translation of Vocabulary Lists
in Textbooks for Teaching Chinese as a Foreign
Language (TCFL)**

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Abstract

Recent research in the Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language (TCFL) field has focused on the pedagogical perspectives underlying TCFL textbooks and their compilation. With the increasing interaction between China and other countries in global contexts such as culture, economics and commerce, there is a great need to expand research regarding all areas and issues within TCFL, especially in the important area of vocabulary and its translation in TCFL textbooks (Tsung and Cruickshank, 2011).

This research investigates a range of translation problems related to the accuracy of the vocabulary lists featured in 12 selected representative TCFL textbooks for teaching Chinese as a foreign language. This thesis presents findings from three triangulation cases (questionnaire survey, corpus research, and assessment test) involving two different groups of participants (e.g. Chinese teachers who completed the questionnaire survey and Chinese undergraduates majoring in English who underwent the assessment test). The contribution of this study is as follows: 1) I conduct a series of empirical evidence based on the viewpoints of practitioners regarding the identified translation problems to fill the gap that there are more descriptive and pedagogical works in the vocabulary translation of TCFL textbooks; 2) I adopt functional equivalence theory of translation and linguistics-based approaches (semantic, pragmatic and grammatical perspectives) to establish a theoretical framework which provides a flexible way of analysing translation and enables the original meanings of Chinese words to be analysed through various perspectives, especially for Chinese and English vocabulary analysis and translation; 3) I draw on translation quality evaluation theory to generate a translation quality evaluation framework which can serve as a reference point for other translation evaluation work regarding vocabulary conducted during other relevant studies; 4) I demonstrate that the majority of translation problems gathered from the selected TCFL textbooks were found at the

preliminary level and in the content word class which have much practical relevance and research value for the pedagogical purpose of vocabulary teaching and translation; and 5) I build up a specific parallel corpus with passages and vocabulary lists of the selected TCFL textbooks.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Background

With the rapid development of globalization, foreign language learning has become a trend in today's world. There is no doubt that Chinese has become one of the most important languages with the flourishing of economic cooperation and cultural exchange. In recent years, the number of non-native Chinese learners has increased by 50% every year and by the end of 2010, it was estimated by the Confucius Institute Headquarters (Hanban) that there were one hundred million non-native learners of Chinese. In 2013, more than 5,000,000 non-native learners took Chinese tests such as HSK (Hànyǔ Shuǐpíng Kǎoshì), YCT (Youth Learner Test) and BCT (Business Chinese Test). By the end of 2016, there were more than 150,000,000 non-native Chinese learners, and 512 Confucius institutes and 1073 Confucius Chinese language classes were set up in 140 countries¹.

Foreign language learning can be seen as a complex psychological cognitive process. Adult foreign language learners normally have a good knowledge of their mother tongue language or first language (L1). In most cases, the influence of a first language or mother tongue language will greatly affect the comprehension of learning a foreign language (Zhu and Zhao, 2010: 36–37). Any undue bias or emphasis towards one given aspect of a word's meaning in the way it is defined or translated may cause misunderstanding for learners in the language learning process, especially for learners at beginner's level.

According to Leech's point of view, the meaning of a word can be divided into seven categories: conceptual meaning, connotative meaning, social meaning, affective meaning, reflected meaning, collocative meaning, and thematic meaning (Leech, 1987: 9). Conceptual meaning is the core of the meaning of the word and

¹ http://www.hanban.edu.cn/confuciusinstitutes/node_10961.htm

the main research task in semantics. It can be explained as the summary reflection of essential attributes or general attributes of an objective phenomenon in the human brain. For example, the conceptual meaning of "fox" in the Oxford Advanced Learner's English–Chinese Dictionary is "an animal of the dog family, with reddish–brown fur, a pointed face and a thick heavy tail" (fox, 2009). Compared with conceptual meaning, connotative meaning starts from a subjective attitude perspective towards the objective world rather than focusing on the language itself. Connotative meaning is closer to the experiences of people towards the objective world and can be understood as an additional meaning of the word that has been added by people. For example, an additional meaning of "fox" is explained as "a person who is clever and able to get what they want by influencing or tricking other people" on account of the creature's natural instinct (fox, 2009). A word's social meaning depends on its context or on the specific occasion on which the term is used, such as the way "daddy" and "father" share the same conceptual meaning in Oxford English Dictionary, that of "male parent", but "daddy" is a informal colloquial word while "father" tends to be used in written forms of communication or on formal occasions (daddy, 2012; father, 2012). Affective meaning is the reflection of the emotion and attitude of the speaker, such as "Dear me!" and "Goodness!" used in expressions that show surprise, upset, annoyance or worry in Oxford English Dictionary (dear me, 2012; goodness, 2012). Such words are used to express speakers' emotional feelings and reactions. But affective meaning cannot be expressed independently, as it depends on conceptual meaning. In a given linguistic system, there exist some words that can arouse the associative meaning of a word which can be summarized as reflective meaning. For example, "pass away" is commonly understood as "stop living" rather than "move to a distance" at a conceptual meaning level (pass away, 2012). Collocative meaning varies according to the different collocations of a word. Different forms of collocation may cause different meanings of a word to emerge. For example, the lexical meaning of "ask" from the term "ask someone to do something" varies considerably in the case of "ask someone out". The former

term can be explained as "request to, speak to" while the latter expression means to "invite someone out on a date" (ask, 2012). A word's collocation meaning helps people to understand its significance objectively and logically. Thematic meaning is the meaning reflected by information forming patterns. The same sentence can be formed in different ways to reflect the different attitudes of the speaker. Therefore different word orders and sentence patterns may create a different emphasis. For example, in English, active and passive voices place a different emphasis on the subject and object. Such differences reflect the thematic meaning (Jespersen, 2006: 99–103).

Thus, since a single word can possess different meanings and implications, it is therefore important for learners to concentrate on obtaining a word's range of meaning in suitable contexts.

In the Chinese grammar system, the word (Chinese unit) is one of the three essential elements (phonetics, grammar, and word) of Chinese language learning. TCFL textbooks are the main teaching materials used by teachers in the TCFL curriculum system and are also the principal learning resource for learners to review their knowledge after classes. Currently, the vocabulary lists of TCFL textbooks are mainly made up of Chinese words/phrases/sentence patterns, pinyin (Chinese unique phonetic alphabet system), parts of speech, and translations. The quality of vocabulary translation in TCFL textbooks directly affects the whole TCFL teaching and learning process, and the nature of a student's acquired knowledge. English – as the most influential international language – is widely used in the vocabulary lists of TCFL textbooks along with corresponding Chinese words. This format is seen as an efficient way for learners from English speaking countries to understand Chinese words and correctly practice them in their daily lives. Nevertheless, research has increasingly shown that although learners may have been taught the usage of words, they cannot always apply them appropriately in practice due to inaccuracies and other problems in the translations that have

been provided. Most current TCFL textbooks provide vocabulary translation in a simple Chinese - English translation style. Current translation strategies within TCFL textbooks reflect common translation approaches, such as word-for-word translation, free translation, and mixed strategies (Ye and Shi, 2009: 3 - 10; Wang, 2012: 12). Due to differences between the Chinese and English linguistic systems, translation problems may occur when certain translation strategies are applied. For example, a Chinese idiom "一帆风顺" (yìfānfēngshùn), is vague and relatively meaningless to readers when translated as "plain sailing" (lexical meaning/word-for-word translation). This idiom is actually used in context to wish somebody well, hoping that everything goes smoothly for them. Such translation outcomes may cause confusion through excessive translation loss and lead to insufficient learning and knowledge acquisition for students.

In recent years, the modes of translation involved in the vocabulary teaching and learning process of Chinese learners have attracted an increasing degree of attention from scholars in both Chinese and overseas translation fields (e.g. the English-Chinese corpus research led by Professor Tony McEnery and Dr Richard Xiao). However, in order to further improve the comprehension of target learners, it is arguably necessary to initiate a body of research to identify and analyse significant translation problems between Chinese and English, especially in the TCFL field. For the translation of vocabulary lists in textbooks, it is important to find an appropriate balance between providing an accurate definition of a term in the specific context outlined in the book, while also providing a broader range of a word's meanings according to different contexts. One of the key findings of this thesis, to be outlined in later sections, centring on a problematic tendency to include extensive ranges of contextual meanings in TCFL textbooks without emphasizing the most appropriate translation of a term in the specific dialogue or passage featured in the textbook.

1.2 Research Questions of the Study

So far, several previous research projects have been launched with a view to focusing on TCFL textbook compilation (e.g. Deng's research on word selection and arrangement) and pedagogy (e.g. Xing and Chen's contrastive analysis of grammar teaching), but very few research projects have concentrated on the specific translation issues centring on vocabulary lists, especially on the issues that occur among the different levels and classes of words, such as content words and function words. This project therefore focuses on translation issues between Chinese and English at the preliminary/intermediate levels (given the importance of these levels in shaping the student's learning experience) and within content word/function word classes, using appropriate perspectives from translation theory and relevant linguistics-based approaches to identify key problems and suggest solutions.

The aim of the study is to explore the implications of the following research questions: (1) What are the pedagogical perspectives of teaching practitioners regarding translation as a teaching method in Chinese vocabulary teaching? (2) What kinds of translation problems are there within TCFL textbooks at the preliminary level and intermediate level? and (3) Are there any differences between the translation problems at the preliminary level/intermediate level and in the content word class/function word class, and how can these findings be applied to improve the quality of vocabulary translation in TCFL textbooks? The research findings will: refocus scholarship on the key process of textbook compilation and evaluation, and enhance quality assurance in this area by demonstrating that it is critically important for publishers – and the researchers who compile and evaluate TCFL textbooks – to deploy a practical and theoretically consistent approach to their work; improve the efficacy of the teaching performance of teachers of Chinese through increased accuracy in knowledge transfer; provide a framework for vocabulary translation evaluation and help learners of Chinese as a foreign

language to comprehend the processes of vocabulary learning. Another key outcome of the thesis will therefore be a heightened level of cultural and language exchange between China and the UK, and it will thus facilitate cross-cultural communication between China and the West. A self-designed corpus of TCFL textbook vocabulary terminology will also be built as a reference tool to help learners of Chinese.

1.3 Theoretical Framework and Methodology

A number of academic perspectives and methodologies will comprise the analytical framework for this study. Conceptual elements including the "functional equivalence theory" and "tripartite theory of glossemes" have been used to form the theoretical basis of the thesis. The functional equivalence theory was proposed by Nida, who combined modern theories of linguistics with translation studies to illustrate a "certain" equivalent relationship; functional equivalence between source language and target language. Functional equivalence in translation is defined as "the closest natural equivalent to the source-language message" (Nida, 1964: 166). The emphasis on equivalence in this definition is mainly concerned with the receptors' response rather than equivalence of forms. "Natural" implied that the rendering should be readable to receptors in the target language and the degrees of such proximity should be "closest". Functional equivalence theory offers a flexible standard and different degrees of adequacy rather than a fixed standard. Translation at the functional equivalent level is considered acceptable (Nida, 1964:166). Nida's substantial contributions in equivalence research in the field of translation studies have influenced many scholars (e.g. Munday, Baker, and Colina), and many new equivalence theories in modern times have been generated from his point of view.

English and Chinese have evolved from different linguistic systems with varying development and cultural backgrounds. The Chinese writing system is different

from alphabetical languages, for example, the English writing system. (Xing, 2011: 32) The Chinese language system has specific characteristics in phonetic, vocabulary, syntax / grammar, discourse aspects such as initials and finals, four levels of tones, phonogram and ideogram, etc. Thus, the complicated characteristics of the Chinese language system may pose great challenges to translation processes between English and Chinese. Consequently, equivalence translation theories, especially function equivalence translation theory, are commonly applied in Chinese–English translation activities. The "natural" and "closest" characteristics of functional equivalence translation theory can reduce the barriers and difficulties between English and Chinese (Chen, 1999:180–185).

Another important element of the theoretical framework for the present study is the "tripartite theory of glosseme". Glosseme is a linguistics term used by Bloomfield and it refers to the same concept as "sememe" used by Norren. The "tripartite theory of glosseme" is an internal classification of glosseme which refers to three types of glosseme: semantic meaning, pragmatic meaning, and grammatical meaning (Zhang and Zhang, 2012: 108–109). These three types of glosseme have been generated from syntax, semantics, and pragmatics. The semantic meaning type includes the value of meaning and the field of meaning. These are used to provide the lexical meaning and connotative meaning of the word for translators when they are dealing with vocabulary translation work. The pragmatic meaning type mainly examines the meaning of the word in different contexts. The grammatical meaning type is closely linked to the function of syntax and issues related to part of speech (Zhang and Zhang, 2012) (see Table 1.1).

Table 1.1 Examples of each category of the tripartite theory of glosseme

Category	Sub Category	Example	
		Chinese	Translation
Semantic meaning	Lexical meaning	虎(hǔ) noun	tiger
	Connotative meaning	虎(hǔ) adjective	brave, vigorous
Pragmatic meaning	Contextual meaning	水洒了(shuǐsǎle) verb	(water) spill
		花生洒了(huāshēngsǎle) verb	(peanut) scatter
Grammatical meaning	Functional meaning	二(èr) numeral	two (used as number two)
		两(liǎng) numeral	two (used in front of a measure word to illustrate the quantity of two)

The above categories are widely used in the Chinese–English translation research field to examine and evaluate translation work. For this study, the tripartite theory of glosseme has been combined with the functional equivalence theory of translation to examine the problems caused by inappropriate instances of

translation in the vocabulary lists of selected TCFL textbooks.

In this thesis, a self-built corpus has been developed and used to analyse the meaning of a word in its original context and then compare it with the given translation to find any non-equivalent items. All data (texts, words and translations) have been collected from 12 TCFL textbooks. A comparative analysis has been carried out to compare the identified translation problems to find out whether there are significant differences in types of non-equivalent translation problems at preliminary/intermediate levels and within content word/function word classes.

1.4 Research design

This thesis has selected 12 representative TCFL textbooks for comprehensive courses and has taken words with their corresponding translations and additional explanations from vocabulary lists as research objects. Based on previous research on Chinese-English translation problems (e.g. translation problems concerning the function word class and research on the same translation word), and on the frequent, recurring problems caused by inappropriate translation processes which create problems for learners, this study attempts to investigate the representative non-equivalent translation problems that emerge from the chosen materials and to identify whether there are significant differences in non-equivalent translation problems at preliminary / intermediate levels and within content word / function word classes.

The study is arranged in the form of seven chapters:

The first chapter is an introduction outlining the whole research project and this includes background information to the project, its theoretical framework, the research methodology, the research design and the project's envisaged

contribution to scholarship. Chapter 2 introduces TCFL pedagogical approaches and reviews relevant theories applied to the present study, such as functional equivalence theory, semantics, and pragmatics to elaborate a theoretical framework for the thesis. Chapter 3 focuses on the research methods that are applied to identify answers to the research questions. An evaluation framework exclusively designed for evaluation of vocabulary translation has been introduced and a self-built corpus has been elaborated for the next stage of the data analysis. Some examples of data analysis will be also provided to instantiate the processes involved. The fourth chapter outlines my research rationale and highlights the originality and importance of this research. The chapter provides a clear description of the motivation for this study based on the empirical evidence of the questionnaire survey data, and answers the first research question "What are the pedagogical perspectives of teaching practitioners regarding translation as a teaching method in Chinese vocabulary teaching?" Chinese teachers from the TCFL field and bilingual Chinese university students from the English Department at the Chinese universities (Inner Mongolia, Tianjin, Shanxi Province and Shandong Province) have taken part in the questionnaire survey and assessment test research. Chapter 5 addresses the non-equivalent translation problems at the preliminary and intermediate levels. This chapter answers the second research question: "What kinds of translation problems are there within TCFL textbooks at the preliminary level and intermediate level?" Chapter 6 identifies the differences between non-equivalent translation problems at preliminary/intermediate levels and within content word/function word classes to answer the last question: "Are there any differences between the translation problems at the preliminary level/intermediate level and in the content word class/function word class, and how can these findings be applied to improve the quality of vocabulary translation in TCFL textbooks?" Linguistic differences and cultural differences have also been included within the chapter. The 7th chapter summarizes the findings of the study with suggestions regarding how to improve the quality of vocabulary translation, reflects on its limitations, and outlines

suggestions for further research in this area.

1.5 Recent Research Into Vocabulary Teaching Using TCFL Textbooks

The rising trend in the learning of Chinese in the context of foreign language acquisition has brought great opportunities and challenges for promoting the development of Chinese internationally. One of the major challenges in this area is the diversity of non–native learners of Chinese who come from different social and cultural backgrounds. The importance of TCFL textbooks in Chinese teaching activities cannot be underestimated, as they constitute the basic study materials for learners of Chinese. The quality of TCFL textbooks is closely related to their compilation of both vocabulary and grammar. As vocabulary is one of the three elements of linguistics and of the gathering of linguistic constructive units in the foreign language learning process, the importance of vocabulary teaching cannot be overemphasized (Cheng, 2004).

TCFL textbooks are often the main lexical source for non–native learners of Chinese. In such foreign language learning processes, non–native learners of Chinese inevitably depend on using translations in their own language to understand new words. The learning process and its ultimate results will therefore be affected by the quality of vocabulary translation. It stands to reason that the vocabulary translations featured in high quality TCFL textbooks will cultivate within non–native learners of Chinese the ability to understand, analyse, and select the meaning of words. They will help non–native learners of Chinese to use Chinese words to communicate effectively (Zhu and Zhao, 2010: 53 – 55).

The significance of research into TCFL vocabulary teaching and learning manifests itself in two forms (Cheng, 2004). Its first significant achievement is providing examples which explain the meanings of words and which differentiate

between homonyms. Vocabulary learning is the basis of foreign language learning and is a demanding task for the learner. When there is no full equivalence between two different languages, the pragmatic principle is even more complex. Thus vocabulary teaching during TCFL is pivotal. Providing examples of the explanations of words and differentiations of homonyms are important elements in textbook compilation and classroom teaching (Cheng, 2004: 49). Providing examples and differentiating between homonyms centre on outlining semantic function, grammatical function, word matching, and pragmatic scale aspects to explain and delineate the meaning of words accurately, simply, and practically. After years of development and accumulation, TCFL vocabulary research has formulated a range of specific characteristics and much has been achieved, such as the publication of the *Modern Chinese Lexicon Dictionary* and *Discrimination of Homonyms* by Beijing Language and Culture University Press, *380 Chinese Verbs* by Wu Shuping, and several others (Cheng, 2004: 48).

Another significant achievement of research on TCFL vocabulary teaching and learning is the increasing accuracy of statistics regarding word frequency. In November 1979, Beijing Language University published the *Modern Chinese Word Frequency Dictionary*, which contained 2,400,000 words. It was a fundamental and significant contribution to the TCFL teaching and learning field. The dictionary provided guidance for the use of basic and commonly used words during Chinese teaching processes and has an important research value for other research areas such as linguistic information application, information retrieval, and machine translation research (Cheng, 2004: 49).

With the development of Chinese linguistics-based disciplines, further research on vocabulary teaching and learning was carried out in the 1990s. One of the most influential research trends at that time was to analyse the advantages and disadvantages of translation and its application between the source language (Chinese) and the target language (e.g. Li's research on the translation principles

of vocabulary lists). In order to get the best results from translation, the meaning of the word and the usage of the word should be combined in the research process. Another influential view was proposed by Hu Mingyang which discusses the differences between different languages and their vocabularies by analysing their meaning scales, matching relations and cultural aspects (Hu, 1990: 4). Hu Mingyang also pointed out that in different stages of vocabulary learning, different pedagogies should be applied to fit the word learning processes.

Currently, most TCFL textbooks have added translations of vocabulary for target language learners. The majority of vocabulary translation in TCFL textbooks is into English. Other vocabulary translations in TCFL textbooks are in French, Russian, Japanese, and Korean. Besides the vocabulary, the grammar sections, cultural knowledge parts and exercises in the TCFL textbooks are equipped with translations for non-native language learners (Huang, 2009: 1–2). Translations of the vocabulary parts, grammar sections, cultural knowledge elements and exercises are only presented in TCFL textbooks at the primary and secondary stages. At the higher stage, the explanations and definitions of vocabulary, grammar and culture in each section of the textbooks for the target language learner are in Chinese, replacing the translations. New words or new content that appear in the textbooks will be explained in Chinese, a process which is thought to enhance the input of Chinese (ibid).

The application of vocabulary teaching and learning in recent years has gradually become more flexible and multiform. Research on vocabulary translation within TCFL textbooks has developed systematically and scientifically. Lu Jijian (1987) discussed the biased problems of word definitions as a consequence of collocation, application, affective meaning or cultural information in the target language and in the native language. Lu's view aims to simplify the native language translations of classroom teaching materials and textbooks. Li Quan (2002: 33–34) discussed the issue of whether to explain vocabulary in the native language or the target

language and proposed the principle of vocabulary translation in the native language and in the target language. Li Jixian (1995: 123–126) supported the view of Li and further pointed out that explaining the meaning of the word of in the native language can reduce the ambiguity of the meaning. Hu Mingyang (1990: 7) suggested that full translation equivalence of a word between the native language and the target language does not exist. Although the translations of words in a vocabulary list cannot be as detailed as dictionary definitions, non-native language learners should be informed that full equivalence in a different language is not possible. As for words with significant differences in their semantic aspect and usage, these should be given more detailed explanations. Such research on problems that occur in the process of vocabulary translation constitutes the main trend in the scholarly work examining vocabulary translation in TCFL textbooks and in the TCFL textbook compilation research field. Liu Yuntong (1994) outlined three contrasting scenarios where the meaning of Chinese words needs to be conveyed by English words: when one single word in English can be used to convey the original meaning of the Chinese word, the English word can be seen as the equivalent translation of the Chinese word; when no words in English can be found to convey the original meaning of the Chinese word, a detailed translation and explanation should be given; when an English word can explain part of the meaning of the original Chinese word, the implicit meaning, specific limitation or specific usage of the Chinese word should be provided or phrases and sentences should be used to explain the meaning (Liu, 1994: 113–117). In the light of Liu Yuntong's categories, another important finding of this research to be outlined in later chapters is that many mainstream TCSL textbooks fail to convey vocabulary items that cannot conveniently be rendered by a single equivalent English word.

1.6 Originality and Significance of the Study

After reviewing previous literature in Translation Studies, especially in vocabulary translation research, a gap in the existing research has been identified

in two areas. Firstly, in the current Chinese–English vocabulary translation research field, there are more descriptive works (e.g. illustrating common translation problems and giving suggestions on avoiding such problems) rather than empirical data–driven research. (Mu and Wang 2009); secondly, in the TCFL research field, compared with the analysis of vocabulary translation issues within TCFL materials (e.g. types of translation problems, differences among different levels and word classifications), most literature has focused on pedagogical perspectives (e.g. the layout and content of TCFL textbooks and the pedagogies of classroom teaching) (Xing, 2011). The insufficient quantity of empirical data–driven research and the limited range of literature on vocabulary translation in TCFL textbooks inevitably affect the comprehension of learners of Chinese if textbooks are not modified in line with research into the accuracy of their content. Therefore, the present study has concentrated on conducting empirical research on the translation problems that emerge in TCFL textbooks at word level and on the differences in the problems that emerge between preliminary and intermediate level textbooks, and between the content word and function word classes.

Based on a flexible design of research methods, the significance of the study emerges in two forms. The first contribution is to provide a new evaluation framework to be applied to the translation of vocabulary in TCFL textbooks. The study's main aim is to explore and analyse the translation problems of vocabulary lists in TCFL textbooks, and therefore effective evaluation tools should be developed to fit the purpose of the study. Based on both the functional equivalence theory of translation and the tripartite theory of glosseme, I have designed my own evaluation framework for identifying translation problems from the selected TCFL textbooks. I have also conducted a questionnaire survey with stakeholders such as teachers of Chinese as a means of analysing the vocabulary translation problems in TCFL textbooks, and this is a practical and empirical way of identifying where the weaknesses lie in current textbooks. As the evaluation framework is a model that has been adapted and distilled from existing literature

and scholarship, it can be considered as a reliable and appropriate evaluation tool in terms of implementation.

The other main contribution concerns this research's emphasis on comparing and contrasting differences between the vocabulary translation issues featured at different levels of TCFL textbooks as well as within different word classifications. The in-depth analysis of the translation problems identified in the study not only shows different types of translation issues, but demonstrates that there are differences (e.g. amounts and types of problems) in translation problems between preliminary level textbooks and intermediate level ones, and between the content word class and the function word class as well. This detailed illustration of differences in translation problems has practical implications for translators, editors of TCFL textbooks and Chinese teachers, enabling them to improve the quality of vocabulary translation in practice.

Besides the above significance both to TCSL scholarship and practice, the present study has built a corpus based on vocabulary from the selected TCFL materials which can be used for further research on other elements of TCFL research, such as sentence level, discourse level or culture level research. The corpus can also be referred to in research for other specific purposes such as presenting all the results/contexts of a selected function word or a collocation.

In summary, the study shows how different types of empirical data can be collected together to present an analysis of the translation problems inherent in vocabulary in TCFL textbooks. Its findings also possess pedagogical significance as regards vocabulary teaching in the TCFL field. Detailed analyses for each co-related case will be presented in Chapters 4 to 6.

1.7 Summary of the Chapter

This study has chosen flexible and mixed design strategies for conducting a contrastive analysis on vocabulary translation from the chosen materials to identify the non-equivalent items and significant differences at preliminary and intermediate levels by means of a questionnaire survey, assessment test, and a self-built corpus. A self-designed evaluation framework has been introduced, and the general definitions, features and categories of the questionnaire survey, assessment test and corpora methods will be outlined in the following chapters of this research. The subsequent chapters also contain a thorough comparative analysis of Chinese and English translation problems at the preliminary and intermediate levels of TCSL textbooks. Content word/function word classes are listed after a detailed illustration of the findings from the corpora, questionnaire survey, and assessment test. The next chapter will introduce research in TCFL field that is relevant to this project, and present an overview of relevant translation theories and linguistics-based approaches to translation.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter briefly introduces pedagogical approaches in the TCFL research field and presents an analytical review of the relevant current research on semantics and pragmatics as well as on the functional equivalence theory of translation. As discussed in the introduction, this research focuses on the vocabulary translation issues of Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language textbooks (TCFL textbooks) at different levels (preliminary/intermediate levels and within these levels, the content/function word classes). The scholarship related to teaching English as a foreign language is rich and varied in a context that is global; however, as the teaching of Chinese is expanding rapidly, there is a pressing need to extend research regarding all areas and issues within Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language (Tsong and Cruickshank, 2011). Most of the current studies that focus on Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language tend to discuss the pedagogical approaches of teachers, the learning strategies of learners, the characteristics of learners from different countries, and many specific grammar components (Chen, 2000; Chen, 2011); however, there are relatively few studies on the translation problems of TCFL textbooks for non-native Chinese learners, especially in the context of vocabulary translation areas. The following literature review sections will examine vocabulary translation from the perspective of the functional equivalence approach to terminology translation. As vocabulary research is a part of the research field of linguistics, linguistics-based approaches to terminology translation such as semantics and pragmatics will be introduced to analyse vocabulary translation from semantic and pragmatic perspectives.

This chapter is divided into four parts. The first part will briefly introduce the pedagogical approaches in the Chinese teaching field, such as methodologies for TCFL, and also the vocabulary problems which occur in current TCFL textbooks.

The second part will review the functional equivalence theory of translation. The chapter's focus will then move to the introduction of linguistics-based concepts as well as to the development of current research on semantics and pragmatics. In the last part, a theoretical framework based upon the above two parts has been established. The tripartite theory of glosseme and functional equivalence summarized from relevant linguistics-based perspectives and translation theories have been applied to the translation of vocabulary within the selected TCFL textbooks. The chapter will conclude with providing working definitions of relevant concepts for the study.

2.2 Pedagogical Approaches to Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language (TCFL)

TCFL is a newly developed discipline of applied linguistics (Xing, 2011: 1). Compared with traditional Chinese linguistics, TCFL has provided teaching guidelines for teachers and researchers in clarifying specific Chinese language characteristics and cultural knowledge. The following sections will briefly introduce different methodologies, especially in the vocabulary teaching and learning field such as vocabulary teaching pedagogies, vocabulary problems and translation issues. The next section will firstly introduce methodologies for the TCFL discipline.

2.2.1 Different Methodologies for TCFL

Teaching Chinese to non-native Chinese learners is a process of foreign language learning (Li and Jiang, 2008:4). The objective of TCFL is to enable non-native Chinese learners to use Chinese effectively in social communication activities (Zhu and Zhao, 2010:36). As a discipline of foreign language teaching and learning, there are five types of Chinese courses: comprehensive courses, courses of specific training in language skills, courses on specific contents, courses on

language knowledge and other courses focusing on specific professional disciplines and fields.

Comprehensive courses focus on providing overall training in Chinese language knowledge, such as elements of languages (e.g. pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary) and language skills (e.g. listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills). The aim of comprehensive courses is to promote the overall development of Chinese learners and improve communication competence. Courses of specific training include oral classes and listening classes. These courses aim at improving communication skills and enhancing the language performance of Chinese learners. These courses are also the foundation for courses of specific content. Courses of specific content include reading classes and writing classes. Based on their learning achievements in speaking and listening, Chinese learners apply their Chinese knowledge and communicative abilities to improve their skills in reading and writing Chinese. Language knowledge courses focus on introducing elements of Chinese language such as pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, rhetoric and characters. These courses are commonly established for Chinese learners at beginner's level. Other courses mainly concern practical language activities and specific fields such as finance and economics, foreign trade, and literature. These courses are optional courses for Chinese learners if they are interested in any specific field or discipline (Zhu and Zhao, 2010: 35).

The above types of Chinese courses have been commonly available in Chinese teaching institutions, universities, Confucius Institutes and classes. Currently, comprehensive courses have developed as the main type of Chinese courses in the TCFL field. The research materials of the present study are gathered from comprehensive courses and will be illustrated in Chapter 3.

Besides different types of Chinese courses, there are different methodologies and pedagogies for comprehensive courses. There are four components of teaching in

comprehensive courses, phonetic teaching, vocabulary teaching, syntax/grammar teaching, and discourse teaching.

Phonetic teaching is the primary stage of Chinese learning in the TCFL field (Li and Jiang, 2008: 151). Phonetic classes are commonly provided in the first 2–4 weeks of comprehensive courses. There are two aspects of phonetic teaching, initials/finals teaching and tone sandhi. Chinese has 21 initials and 39 finals. The phonetic teaching of each initial/final is supported by oral movement pictures, videos and gestures. Oral movement pictures refer to the oral movement involved in pronunciation. Learners can learn from pictures to adjust their own oral pronunciation movements (see Figure 2.1 and Figure 2.2)

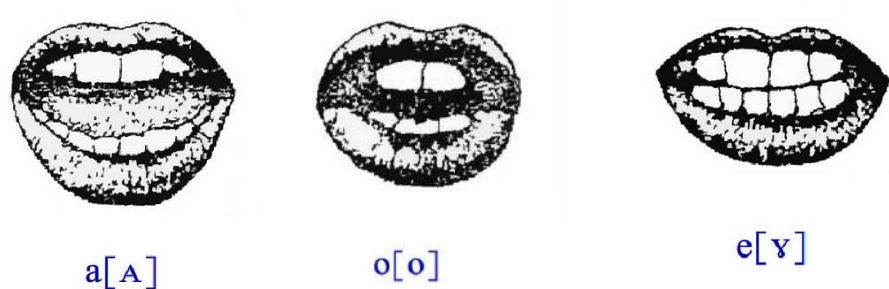


Figure 2.1 Mouth movement of pronunciation

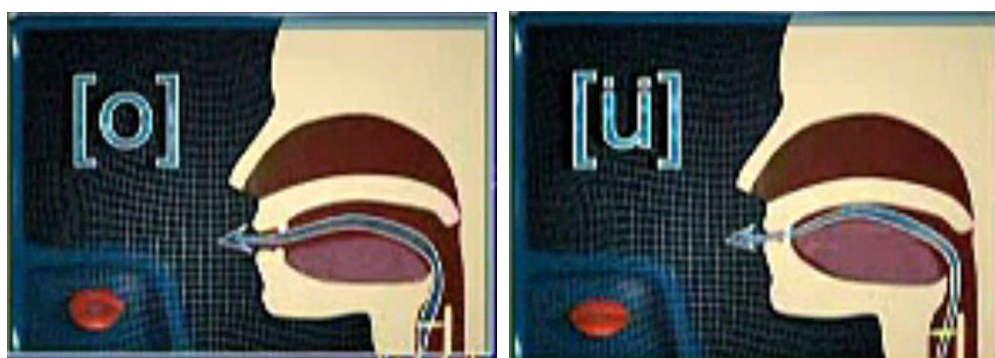


Figure 2.2 Tongue movement of pronunciation

The gesture method is the common way of teaching initials and finals. Learners are required to use gesture to simulate the movement of tongue position (Figure

2.3).



Figure 2.3 Simulation of tongue position (Right hand – upper lip; left hand – tongue)

Initials and finals are close to consonants and vowels for students from English speaking countries, thus they have less cross-linguistic interference from their first language than learners from other language groups. Teachers always use compare and contrast methods to find differences between initials/finals and vowels/consonants (Xing, 2011: 17).

Tone sandhi teaching is much more complicated than initials and finals teaching. There are four tones in standard Chinese (Figure 2.4 and Figure 2.5).

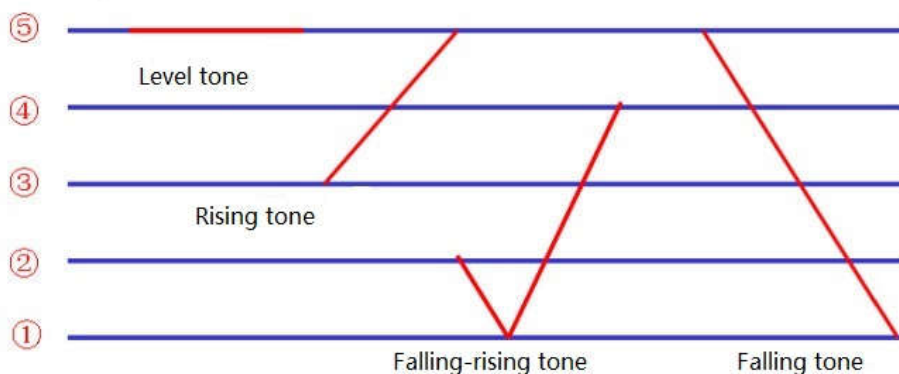


Figure 2.4 Four tones

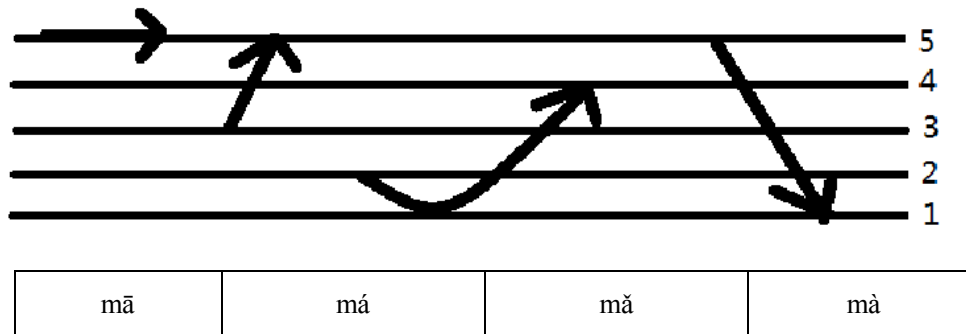


Figure 2.5 Four tones of "ma"

There are two common methods of tone sandhi teaching: tone teaching and word teaching. Tone teaching refers to teaching individual sections from the level tone to the falling tone, while the word teaching method combines tones and words together as a whole and teaches the students to learn tones while learning words (Xing, 2011: 22–23). The second method is therefore based on the first method. When students have basic knowledge of the four individual tones, they will be taught to put different tones together and place tones together with intonation for tone sandhi learning. Intonation is also a common feature in English, and is closely related to the context or mood of the speakers. In Chinese, intonation can be achieved by tones while tones can be affected by the integrated rhythm and melody of intonation (Cao, 2002: 201). For example, when words with a level tone are uttered in a context of confusion, they will be changed into rising tone; whereas if the mood is one of anger, a level tone will be changed into a falling tone. Such specific characteristics are traditionally a very difficult task in Chinese phonetic teaching.

Vocabulary is the basis of syntax/grammar and discourse teaching. It is one of the most challenging components in Chinese comprehensive courses. The present study has taken vocabulary lists from twelve TCFL textbooks as the research objects, thus a detailed illustration of vocabulary teaching methodology will be presented in section 2.2.2.

Syntax/grammar teaching is closely related to vocabulary teaching. It helps to establish the complete order of language (Li and Jiang, 2008: 174), and its aim is to help learners to effectively and properly use Chinese in daily communication activities. Semantic, pragmatic and discourse characteristics can be expressed by different sentence types and patterns. By introducing specific sentence types and patterns, specific grammatical knowledge can be conveyed at the same time to learners. There are limited sentence types and patterns, thus syntax teaching is an effective way for learners to learn and apply Chinese grammatical knowledge in their daily lives (Li and Jiang, 2008: 177).

Discourse teaching involves the overall development of pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar and cultural knowledge in different contexts. It is based on the comprehension of phonetic (listening and speaking capacities), vocabulary (reading capacity) and grammar learning (reading and writing capacities) outcomes. Common Chinese discourses for comprehensive courses include dialogues and narrative texts. At the preliminary level, dialogues and short narrative texts are the main discourse types. At the intermediate and advanced levels, discourse types are longer and more complicated narrative texts centring on various topics. The traditional teaching of discourse in a typical comprehensive class mainly follows six steps: explanation of pronunciation and vocabulary, explanation of text, explanation of key words and sentence types, classroom interaction, explanation of grammar, and review of text. The traditional methodologies for comprehensive courses help to deepen the students' understanding of the key points in the texts and improve their comprehension of key words and grammar points. Besides the traditional teaching method, there are other pedagogies for comprehensive courses (Table 2.1).

Table 2.1 Types of Chinese pedagogy for comprehensive courses

Types of pedagogy	Steps
Listen - Read method	<p>(1) The teacher will list the key words from each paragraph of the text on the blackboard.</p> <p>(2) Students are required to listen to the explanation of each key word on the blackboard.</p> <p>(3) Students are required to combine key words into phrases, sentences, and completed paragraphs.</p> <p>(4) Classroom discussion of the learning achievements.</p> <p>(5) Students are required to read the full text together.</p> <p>(6) Students are required to do class exercises, such as using key words to write essays, etc.</p>
Read-Talk method	<p>(1) Students are required to prepare new words in advance.</p> <p>(2) The teacher will introduce key words and phrases from the text on the blackboard individually.</p> <p>(3) Students are required to talk about the text by using each key word and phrase.</p> <p>(4) Students are required to take turns in activities based on reading parts of the text.</p> <p>(5) Students are required to read the text aloud.</p> <p>(6) Classroom discussion of the learning achievements.</p>
Recitation method	<p>(1) Teachers will read the text many times and encourage students to ask questions about the text.</p> <p>(2) Teachers will then ask students questions about the text.</p> <p>(3) Students are required to work in groups, reciting the text one by one.</p>
Situational	Using audio -video techniques, pictures and some props

method	related to the topic of the text to improve the comprehension of students.
Re-editing of the text	<p>(1) The teacher will re-edit the original text into separate sections.</p> <p>(2) The teacher will highlight the key words in each section.</p> <p>(3) Students are required to create new examples based on the text by using key words on the blackboard.</p> <p>(4) Students are required to read the original text.</p> <p>(5) Classroom discussion of the learning achievements.</p> <p>(6) Role-play activities based on the text.</p>

(Li and Jiang, 2008: 198–200)

The above pedagogies of comprehensive courses are commonly used in the current Chinese teaching field. The materials used for comprehensive courses have been designed according to the above pedagogies. For example, the Erya Chinese textbooks used in the present study have been commonly used by many universities and training institutions. During discourse learning activities, Chinese learners can develop their overall learning outcomes of pronunciation, vocabulary, syntax/grammar learning. These pedagogies combine theoretical guidance and practical activities together during and after class to help learners effectively apply their Chinese knowledge in daily communication activities.

Besides the phonetic, vocabulary, syntax/grammar and discourse teaching, cultural knowledge and cultural teaching are also considered as important elements of Chinese language teaching activities. Cultural knowledge is not an independent course in the TCFL field, but it functions as a supporting element throughout other courses, such as phonetic, vocabulary, syntax/grammar teaching. Without adequate cultural knowledge, effective communication cannot be completely achieved, as misunderstandings of culture and customs may occur between native

speakers and non-native language learners. In the research fields of Chinese culture and language, culture can be summarized into "big culture" or "knowledge culture" (also known as formal culture such as literature, history, philosophy and politics) and "small culture" or "social behaviour culture" (also known as common social customs) (Lǚ, 2009: 170). Cultural teaching is commonly applied together with phonetic, vocabulary, syntax/grammar and discourse teaching. For learners at the preliminary level, as phonetic vocabulary and simple types of sentences form the main teaching content, social and cultural knowledge such as greetings, conversations and simple communication customs can be applied to help learners to develop their communicative abilities in daily communication activities. Classroom teaching activities focus on syntax/grammar teaching and learning, while formal cultural knowledge is also taught, such as words for showing modesty, politeness and elegance (e.g.: both 您 nín and 你 nǐ in Chinese mean "you". 你 nǐ is used for people that are younger or of the same age group as the speaker while 您 nín is a polite word for elderly people, guests, or people who are older than the speaker). Terms such as these are usually introduced with Chinese history and literature at the preliminary level. At the intermediate and advanced levels, as learners have been equipped with adequate Chinese language knowledge, class discussions of Chinese philosophy, politics and social issues can take place to further develop learners' awareness of Chinese cultural concepts.

In summary, the teaching of Chinese to non-native Chinese learners aims to cultivate learners' linguistic competence and communicative ability, using practical activities as the central part of learning. The students' overall comprehension is improved by sustained practice in listening, speaking, reading, and writing, and this is combined with cultural knowledge to improve the comprehension of phonetics, vocabulary, syntax/grammar and discourse and to ensure the correct application of language skills.

This study has taken vocabulary as its research focus and undertakes a series of

evaluation analyses of vocabulary translation between Chinese and English at different levels of study (preliminary/intermediate level) and within different word classes (content/function words). The following sections illustrate the central issues related to vocabulary learning.

2.2.2 Different Methods for Translation of Vocabulary in TCFL

In the research field of Chinese teaching, vocabulary plays a key role in both grammar and comprehensive courses. Hu Mingyang (1990) pointed out that language essentially represents a series of words which are combined according to grammatical rules. Each word is embodied by pronunciation (how to read), grammar (how to use) and meaning (what is it). Thus vocabulary teaching should be combined with grammar, semantic, pragmatic, phonetic and cultural factors. Chinese vocabulary teaching is closely connected to grammar teaching. In Chinese, grammar teaching mainly concerns function word teaching. Chinese function words can be taught within a grammatical context. Most Chinese function words are used to form sentences for a communicative function. Thus, the teaching process of function word grammar can be seen as a process of learning Chinese in a practical way.

In the TCFL research field, translation is the basic method for vocabulary teaching. Translation methods in the TCFL field consist of direct translation methods, morpheme methods, context methods, collocation methods and semantic association methods (Zhu and Zhao, 2012: 45). The direct translation method is commonly used in vocabulary lists. When a Chinese word has an equivalent translation in the target language, the translation can be directly used. When no equivalent translation can be found in the target language, the following methods will be used.

The morpheme method is used to explain compound words by their individual competencies (morphemes). In Chinese, a single morpheme refers to a single Chinese character, and a compound word in Chinese consists of more than one morpheme. Thus the meaning of the compound word can be explained according to each component. For example: in the compound word "飞机" (fēijī, aircraft), the lexical meanings of "飞" (fēi) and "机" (jī) are "fly" and "machine". The meaning of "飞机" (fēijī) can be explained as "a machine that can fly", directly from the meanings of the individual components "飞" (fēi) and "机" (jī).

The context method is specific to Chinese vocabulary teaching. Context here refers to the specific linguistic environment around the target word (e.g. phrases, sentences or collocations). The majority of Chinese words are polysemous. Thus, the selection of meaning should be in accordance with the term's specific context. For example:

看中(kànzhòng) in the sentence "教练看中了我" (jiàoliàn kànzhòngle wǒ, I was chosen to be a professional player by the coach of the football team later) is explained as "choose, recommend", while in another sentence "露西看中了李雷" (Lucy kànzhòngle Lǐléi, Lucy has taken a fancy to Lilei) it means "take a fancy to". The selection of meaning should be bound to the specific context.

The collocation method is similar to the context method. Collocation refers to the fixed usage of certain Chinese words and it is also based on Chinese grammar. For example, a collocation "不" (bù) + an adjective + "不" (bù) + an adjective refers to a moderate status, such as "不冷不热" (bù lěng bù rè, neither too cold nor too hot), "不大不小" (bù dà bù xiǎo, neither too big nor too small) and "不远不近" (bù yuǎn bù jìn, neither too far nor too near). Such collocations are normally introduced and extensively practiced to avoid misunderstandings on the part of learners.

The semantic association method is used to list all the relevant, associated words together with the given word. For example, when learners have learnt the word "学校" (xuéxiào, school), a series of relevant words "校园" (xiàoyuán, campus), "宿舍" (sùshè, accommodation), "教师" (jiàoshī, teachers) and "学生" (xuéshēng, student) can be introduced to learners to provide a complete context of relevant words.

Beside the above five translation methods of vocabulary teaching, there are other methods, such as demonstration methods, comparative methods, and repetitive methods. The demonstration method is commonly used in explaining the word together with its cultural background, such as Chinese pasty "豌豆黄" (wāndòuhuáng) which was a kind of pasty made with pea flour in ancient Chinese society exclusively for the Royal Family. It then became a very famous pasty in modern China. Merely explaining it as a "pea flour pasty" is inadequate because such culturally loaded words reflect the unique culture and history of China. Many of these culturally loaded words are challenging to translate or to explain through concise, simple definitions in dictionaries and vocabulary lists. Thus, as occurs on numerous restaurant menus in China, other strategies such as using pictures and other materials can be used for enhancing a person's comprehension of the word.

The comparative method uses synonyms and antonyms to make a comparative analysis. For example, both "创造" (chuàngzào, create) and "制造" (zhìzào, produce) can be used to illustrate a productive process. The former term mainly emphasizes that the product has never been produced before and is new to the world. While "制造" (zhìzào, produce) indicates the production process of an existing product. This method helps to expand vocabulary of learners.

The repetitive method requires teachers and students to use common, frequently used words as much as possible. In the TCFL teaching field, there are many

commonly used words that are selected from the Chinese highly frequent words list by the Chinese National Language Committee (Zhu and Zhao, 2010: 44–45). Substantial, repeated use of highly frequent words can help to enhance the input of Chinese and improve the comprehension of learners of Chinese.

The above translation methods and vocabulary teaching methods have been used together in Chinese comprehensive courses, and their importance warrants greater attention within TCFL research.

2.2.3 Existing Problems in Vocabulary Teaching Using Current Textbooks

Vocabulary is always considered as the foundation of grammar, syntax and text-based learning (Xing, 2011: 32). There are two specific characteristics in Modern Chinese: just over 80% of Chinese words are pictophonetic characters² and compound words (consisting of more than one single word). Most of the compound words are also polysemous words in Chinese vocabulary systems. Thus in many situations, the meaning of a compound word cannot be merely explained by each individual component, and the selection of suitable meanings becomes an important task and a major challenge for translators tasked with providing vocabulary translation.

The following sections will briefly illustrate the problems and issues that centre on the selection and translation of vocabulary.

² Pictophonetic character: Pictophonetic character is a traditional Chinese word formation style. It refers to a single Chinese word that consists of a graphic sign and a phonetic sign. The phonetic signs also can be used individually as a single Chinese word with pronunciation. Thus the pronunciation of a pictophonetic character can be learnt from its phonetic sign. The graphic signs are components used for the formation of Chinese words. They cannot be used individually but their symbolic meaning can be used to present the meaning of pictophonetic characters.

(Fan, 2008: 1-7; Nie, 2015: 1-2)

2.2.3.1 Selection of Vocabulary

Vocabulary lists in TCFL textbooks are considered as a major resource for learners both in class and after school. The compilation of TCFL textbook vocabulary lists is directly connected with the comprehension of learners as they attempt to master the language.

The primary problem in TCFL textbook compilation is the selection of words. As stated above, there are many compound words in the Chinese vocabulary system, thus the selection of words for Chinese language learners from beginner's level to advanced level becomes a very important task for the compilers of TCFL textbooks. The selection of vocabulary for TCFL textbooks is mainly based on frequently used words in Chinese. The selection of words occurs in accordance with eight principles (see table 2.2).

Table 2.2 Principles of word selection

The principle of being frequent	The principle of being frequent is used to examine whether the selected words are frequently used in daily communication.
The principle of being average	The principle of being average is used to examine whether the selected words are frequently used by word frequency and distribution.
The principle of being scientific	The principle of being scientific means that the words should be selected with clear distinctions of semantic meaning or pragmatic meaning.
The principle of being standard	The principle of being standard is to emphasize that dialect words (non - standard words) should be avoided in word selection.
The principle of being practical	The principle of being practical requires it to be possible to give the complete usage and part of speech of the polysemy.
The principle of being associative	The principle of being associative means that both the word and its relevant words can be listed together (e.g.: Autumn - Spring).
The principle of being simple	The principle of being simple means being able to use the simple version of the compound words if they can be presented by a single word (e.g. "妈妈" māma, mum, can be presented by "妈" mā, mum, in vocabulary lists).
The principle of being sequential	The principle of being sequential means that the order of words in vocabulary lists should be in accordance with four levels (e.g. 叉 chā "fork" - a word of level 1; 叉子 chāzi "fork" - a word of level 2) (see table 2.3) .

(Xing, 2011: 34)

According to the report of Hanban, the updated version of the *Chinese Vocabulary Ranking Outline* has expanded into 8822 compound words and 2905 single words for Chinese learners from primary to advanced levels.

Table 2.3 *Ranking Outline of Chinese Vocabulary*

Learning levels of learner	Compound words	Single words
Level 1	1033	800
Level 2	2018	804
Level 3	2202	601
Level 4	3569	700

(Xing, 2011:34)

As Chinese teaching has been categorized into preliminary level, intermediate level and advanced level, how to allocate the words to each level becomes a challenging task for TCFL textbook compilers. Current research has suggested that the selection of words for learners does not need to strictly adhere to their learning levels. For example, according to Xing Zhiqun's report concerning the Ranking Outline of Chinese Vocabulary for TCFL textbooks, level 1 and level 2 of the Outline (3051 compound words and 1604 single words in total) have been found in all levels (preliminary level to advanced level) of TCFL textbooks for overseas learners, such as *Chinese Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing Courses*, *Today's Taiwan*, *Joy of Communication* and *China in Changing Times*. Some of the words in level 3 are widely found at intermediate and advanced levels. The remaining words in level 3 and most of the words in level 4 have been found at advanced level (Xing, 2011: 34–35).

This study has also identified that the same words have sometimes been found at both preliminary level and intermediate level with different types of translation problems. It is therefore probable that the selection and rationalization of words for learners at different levels is made in accordance with specific teaching and learning needs and goals from elementary to complex levels.

2.2.3.2 Translation Problems in Vocabulary Lists

Vocabulary lists in TCFL textbooks are considered as one of the main learning resources for students in class and after school. The compilation of TCFL textbook vocabulary lists therefore directly affects the comprehension of learners.

Vocabulary translation is therefore one of the most important elements of TCFL textbooks (Zhao, 1998). Translation problems in vocabulary lists can be summarized into three categories (Ruan, 2007). The first category concerns problems that occur at a semantic level. Such problems mainly concern the meaning itself (e.g. lexical meaning, connotative meaning or field of meaning), such as translation problems of synonymy, culturally loaded words, or words with different connotations being translated identically. (Li, 2014). For example, translation problems of synonymy commonly occur within the vocabulary translation field. Synonymy problems always occur when unclear distinctions of usage are made between two synonyms. For example, both "媳妇儿" (xífù'er) and "太太" (tàitai) can be explained as "wife" in English. However, "媳妇儿" (xífù'er) is commonly used in spoken language and "太太" (tàitai) is used as a polite word in formal situations. Although these words are broadly synonymous, the specific usage should be clearly explained to avoid any misunderstanding. Polysemy problems centre on the original word having more than one meaning in different contexts, and the given translation choosing an inaccurate meaning in the given context. For example, the lexical meaning of "门槛" (ménkǎn) is a part of a door and can be explained as 'doorsill' in the field of architecture terminology. But

besides its lexical meaning, there are three connotative meanings of "门槛" (ménkǎn). The first means difficulties or barriers; the second meaning refers to standards set for job applicants; the last means skills, techniques or tricks. The selection of meaning should be in accordance with the given context to avoid any misuse. In vocabulary translation, culturally loaded words are another notable area which often leads to misunderstandings (Huang, 2009). Culturally loaded words refer to words that directly reflect aspects of China's unique culture (Li and Jiang, 2008: 167). These words are specific and closely associated with traditional Chinese history, customs, regions and literature. For instance, "龙" (lóng, dragon) in Chinese culture is a symbol of royalty and luck and commonly used by emperors and leaders. However, in ancient Roman stories and other cultures, the dragon is seen as evil and is associated with horror, fear, or greed. Wherever possible, the independence and integrity of cultural identity should be maintained and considered as a key factor in the vocabulary translation process of TCFL textbooks. Detailed explanations should be provided for learners to avoid confusion and misinterpretation, but – as outlined later in the research – these rarely appear, since concise definitions appear to be an editorial priority in TCFL textbooks; these problems and non – equivalent translation problems of synonymy and polysemy may lead to the misuse of words.

The scenario where words with different connotations are translated identically means that two or more Chinese words have been annotated with the same English translation. For example, when retrieved from the HSK Dynamic Composition Corpus, both "参观" (cānguān) and "访问" (fǎngwèn) have been translated as "visit". In reality the first word refers to go sightseeing in a place while the latter term means to call on someone. These two Chinese words should be used accordingly with their fixed collocation (参观 cānguān + places and 访问 fǎngwèn + someone). If no distinction has been made between these two words, learners may misuse them.

The second category concerns problems in the pragmatic category. Here the pragmatic problems mainly refer to problems in context. Context can be divided into general context and specific context. The general context refers to the main context formed by the main bodies that anticipate in the communicative activity, linguistic context in communicative activities, and social background context (e.g.: the Olympic Games). By contrast, a specific context only focuses on one aspect of the general context (e.g. the Chinese delegation at the Olympic Games). For example, "你过来一下" (nǐ guò lái yíxià, Please come here). "来" (lái) in the above example is a verb translated as "come". Here is another example, "我来介绍一下" (wǒ lái jièshào yíxià) "Let me introduce to you". "来" (lái) in this example is used as preposition in front of a verb. In this fixed collocation, the part of speech has been changed into a preposition. The collocation "来" +verb can be translated as "to do", such as "我来帮你" (lái bang nǐ, "let me help you), "来收拾一下" (lái shōushi yíxià, come and clean the room) and "来接电话" (lái jiē diànhuà, come to answer the phone), etc. Thus, the meaning of the same word varies in different contexts. A translation should be in accordance with the context otherwise inappropriate translations may occur. In the present study, context refers to specific context. It means that the context is within a sentence, a paragraph and a text. The misuse of the collocation and usage of a word may also cause problems at the pragmatic level in translation. Problems like inappropriate word order, wrong collocation and loss of function information will affect a reader's comprehension of the meaning of a word.

The last category is grammatical problems. During the translating process, some of the translation problems may occur at a grammatical level, such as the conversion of a part of speech, the conversion of a sentence component or a change of sentence pattern. If no suitable translation can be found in the target language, the conversion of grammatical components should be applied to maintain the original word and translation equivalence at a grammatical level. (Zhao, 1998; Ruan, 2007; Huang, 2009; Wang, 2012). For example, "把豆腐切成

小块" (bǎ dòufu qiēchéng xiǎo kuài, Please cut Tofu into small pieces), "把" (bǎ) in Chinese is commonly used as a preposition to indicate how a person or thing is dealt with or affected. The word after "把" (bǎ) is the object to be dealt with or affected. In the given example, tofu is the object that has been cut into pieces. The given translation has introduced the collocation of "把" (bǎ) and the verbs. But the proper translation and usage of "把" (bǎ) should be provided to avoid any misunderstanding or misuse (table 2.4).

Table 2.4 Given translation and revised version of 把(bǎ)

把(bǎ)	Given Translation	Revised Translation
	used to put the object of a verb before it	to indicate how a person or thing is dealt with or affected (ba - type sentence pattern: 把 ba + noun)

The above issues have been commonly found in current TCFL textbook compilation and application, and the scale of the phenomenon arguably necessitates investigation in a research project such as this; all too frequently, information regarding a term's usage is lacking from TCFL textbooks due to the conciseness of definitions. However, as the focus of the present study is specifically on vocabulary translation and on translation issues stemming from the selected TCFL textbooks, the specific issue of word selection for textbook vocabulary lists will not be discussed in the study.

2.2.4 Justification of the Project

The present study has taken vocabulary translation from 12 TCFL textbooks as its research focus. An evaluation of the given translations will be provided after building the specific corpus of the study. A theoretical framework designed from

functional equivalent translation perspectives and linguistics-based approaches to translation has been provided and a self-designed evaluation framework has been used for identifying non-equivalent translation items. The translation problems specific to the textbooks will be discussed in the broader context of the most common translation issues between Chinese and English. Detailed illustrations of selected translation problems at the preliminary and intermediate levels will be provided in Chapter 5 as well as a comparative analysis of translation problems at the preliminary / intermediate levels and content / function word classes in Chapter 6. The following sections will introduce the design of the project's theoretical framework. The functional equivalence theory of translation and relevant linguistics-based approaches to translation will be discussed to form the foundation of the framework. The design of evaluation framework will be discussed in Chapter 3.

2.3 Approaches to Terminology Translation

Globalization is the main phenomenon affecting present day society. Economic interests and cultural world-views from different parts of the globe have co-operated and interacted closely with each other to face the great challenges involved in the integration process of globalization. An open culture is one that absorbs foreign culture to enrich its cultural body and introduces its own cultural diversity to other cultures at the same time. Language can be seen as a carrier of culture to build relationships among different cultural groups. As a result, translation between different languages has become an important communication tool for promoting the development of cross-cultural communication.

Translation is seen as a phenomenon which has had a huge effect on the daily lives of human beings (Hatim and Munday, 2004). The term "translation" can be traced back to the 1340s; it derives from the old French term "translation" or the Latin word "translatio" (transporting) to present the action as "to carry over".

There were many definitions of translation that were developed and discussed by Nida (1964):

Definitions of proper translating are almost as numerous and varied as the persons who have undertaken to discuss the subject. This diversity is in a sense quite understandable; for there are vast differences in the materials translated, in the purpose of the publication, and in the need of the prospective audience.

(Nida, 1964: 161).

Nevertheless, Nida then proposed a preliminary definition of translation as consisting of "reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source-language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style" (Nida and Taber, 1969:12). The emphasis of the definition arguably focuses on a process to "convey the meaning and arrange the corresponding style". It also can be seen as a process of reproducing the source language for target language readers.

Scholars in later times pursued the same emphasis on the conveying of meaning. For example, Bell translated the French theorist Dubois's definition of translation as "the expression in another language (or the target language) of what has been expressed in another, source language, preserving semantic and stylistic equivalences" (Bell, 1992: 5 - 6). This notion also emphasized the significance of "equivalence" which was also suggested by scholars such as Meetham, Hudson, and Catford (Catford, 1965; Meetham and Hudson, 1972). Thus, the equivalence theory of translation has attracted considerable scholarly attention from its theoretical basis to its applied use. The equivalent replacement of a text from one natural language to another natural language has been repeatedly specified in translation activities. The present study has taken equivalence theory – especially functional equivalence theory – as the main theoretical foundation for Chinese

vocabulary translation and will present a brief examination of the functional equivalence theory in the next section.

2.3.1 Equivalence Theory and Functional Equivalence Theory of Translation

Equivalence theory can be seen as an emerging theory of translation developed within the Western translation field in the 20th century. Equivalence theory has caused much debate on its definition, nature, and application in the Western translation research field (Hua, 2000). In the past 150 years, the word "equivalence" has been regarded as a technical term and can be applied to several scientific phenomena or to certain processes that characterize academic disciplines. For example, in mathematics and formal logic areas, equivalence presents an "absolute symmetric and equal relationship" (Wu, 1994). Meanwhile, equivalence in the linguistics field is seen as a vague term which means "with self-similarity" or "basically the same" (Hua, 2000). Equivalent and equivalence are strictly used as scientific terminology as well as being common words with a vaguer connotation, meaning "alike" or "basically the same". When introduced into English translation theory, "equivalence" is used as a common word with a general, non-mathematical connotation to seek the "equivalent law" which objectively exists in the translation process (Firth, 1968). In other words, equivalence of translation does not refer to an absolute symmetric relationship or "invariability" (Wu, 1994).

Equivalence theory can be seen as the central issue of modern Western translation theories; how to obtain "equivalence" has become a topic of debate among the different views that exist towards it. The concept of equivalence has been an important concern in translation research areas as it has been closely connected with both practical and definitional aspects of translating. Having been an important characteristic of translation theories in the late 20th century,

equivalence theory has tried to bring out "sameness" to a certain degree between source text and target text. With the rapid development of different branches of modern linguistics, this "sameness" has led to various kinds of equivalence for translation research.

The present study is based on a theoretical framework predicated on the equivalence theory of translation, especially on the functional equivalence theory of translation. There are different aspects of equivalence, such as dynamic equivalence, communicative equivalence, and formal equivalence. In essence, the equivalence theories analysed above have their independent characteristics but are also related to each other. For example, Jakobson and Catford developed Vinay and Darbelnet's theory of translation procedure and put forward their own theory on a similar basis; Newmark's semantic equivalence and communicative translation theory develops and highlights Nida's formal equivalence and dynamic equivalence theory; Koller's theory and Pym's theory are influenced by Nida, and both House and Baker incorporate linguistic features such as pragmatic features into the equivalence theory of translation. These equivalence theories closely interact with each other and cannot be isolated from one another. The present study is mainly based on Nida's functional equivalence theory which establishes an "equivalent norm" at the functional level for dealing with non - equivalence translation problems.

Eugene Nida has made a notable contribution to equivalence research in the field of translation studies. Previous research in this field focused on the scientific analysis of linguistic meaning and mainly involved translation equivalence at the level of individual works. Nida widened the focus on the meaning, defining it from broader contextual categories such as audience and culture in both the source text and target text. He established how processes of equivalence worked in wider production and reception contexts and how these contexts affect choices made in the translation process. With the theoretical basis of semantics, pragmatics and

generative – transformational grammar theory put forward by Chomsky, Nida published two famous books in the 1960s, *Toward a Science of Translating* (1964) and he also co – authored with Taber *The Theory and Practice of Translation* (1969). These two great works adopted many systematic approaches and attempted to give a more "scientific" sense to translation research.

Nida's attitude to translatability and comprehensibility created ideas from which he proposed two basic different types of equivalence by breaking through the limitations of treating equivalence from a semantic level: formal equivalence and dynamic equivalence. Formal equivalence is also referred to as "structural correspondence"; it conceptualizes the relationship as a "purely formal" replacement of the words or phrases from the source text to target text. It represents the closest equivalent of words or phrases of the source language text. For example, poetry translation (see table 2.5):

Table 2.5 *Poetry Translation 感觉 (A Feeling) by Gucheng*

Source Text	tiān shì huīsè de 天是灰色的。
Target Text	The sky is ash gray.

However, Nida and Taber also admitted that formal equivalents do not always exist between language pairs. They maintained that the ideal situation for applying formal equivalents is that the translation aims at achieving equivalence at a formal or stylistic level, rather than at the level of meaning (Nida and Taber, 1969). They also admitted that at times, the target text audience might not easily understand the use of formal equivalence as this may distort the stylistic patterns and grammatical patterns of the target language, and may cause misunderstandings (Fawcett, 1997).

As the need for explication and adjustment of the source text increased, Nida

(1964) proposed another equivalence which he called dynamic equivalence (also known as the functional equivalence theory in later times). Unlike formal equivalence which "focuses on the message itself in both form and content", functional equivalence mainly relies on "the principle of equivalence" (p. 159). Functional equivalence is used for situations when form is not significant in the process of conveying a particular meaning, or when a formal rendering is unnecessary in the translation process. Functional equivalence is an effort to make the translation process between the source text and the target text as natural as possible and improve the comprehensibility to a certain extent. Nida considers functional equivalence to be a more effective translation procedure; as functional equivalence requires a back translation process to check the consistency of the translated version in both source and target language, the contextual consistency in the transfer process can be kept as natural as possible in the receptor languages. Thus the message from the source text can be preserved and the translation is faithful (Nida and Taber, 1982).

Despite criticisms from other scholars (e.g. Munday (2000) pointed out that the receptor - based direction of Nida's translation style lacks the original sense of the source language, and Lefevere (1993) and Broeck (1987) argued that Nida's equivalence theory is focused at the word - level and lacks solutions if the source text reader and target text reader do not have the same understanding), Nida's contribution in producing a systematic and analytical procedure for translators is still instrumental in promoting the development of translation studies (Tan, 1999). Many new equivalence theories in modern times have been generated from his point of view. Nida's functional equivalence theory has attracted considerable attention from scholars in both the linguistics and translation research fields. Equivalence itself is little more than a mirage which is difficult to attain. However, some types of equivalence (e.g., functional equivalence and pragmatic equivalence) have contributed to provide a convincing answer to the heated debate between "word-for-word translation" and "free translation" (Li, 2002;

Colina, 2015). According to Nida's functional equivalence theory, the relationship between the target language reader and the translated work should be substantially the same as that between the original work and source language readers and be faithful to it. The word "faithful" here actually refers to the equivalence result at a functional level. Nida also absorbed information theory to make a clearer distinction concerning different acceptable ways between the target language receptor and the source language receptor to emphasize the importance of achieving a functional equivalence level.

The functional equivalence theory of translation has been established through recognition of the importance of language integration, cultural diversity and the acknowledgement of pragmatic factors as an influential element of translation (Nida, 1993; Xi, 2002; Cheng, 2003). Translation can be seen as a process of communication. Nida has proposed that "translating is communicating" which has become a renowned statement in the translation research field (Nida, 1993). Every language system has its own features in morphology, word order, syntax, and discourse markers, and every unique cultural and ethical feature is expressed by its own lexical system. The pragmatic factor is one of the most important factors in achieving a level of functional equivalence. Pragmatic meaning mainly refers to language usage and language users, since scholars of pragmatic meaning believe that the meaning of a word is generated and determined by usage (Wittgenstein, 1958; Austein, 1963; Firth, 1968; Grice, 1975). Research into pragmatic meaning concepts has not only developed a word's innate meaning in the linguistic environment of the language user, but has also taken into consideration the changeability of pragmatic meaning in the light of social and cultural factors, communicative intention, and the mentality of language users, which are in accordance with the requirement of functional equivalence (Zhang and He, 2001). The knowledge of the linguistic features of the target language and their proper usage should be taken into consideration. The limitations caused by an understanding of merely one aspect of a translation phenomenon and a single role

of the original language speaker / target language receptor may cause defective translation results. Although language systems are different, everything in one language can be articulated in another language through expressive language, and translators engaged in translation activities have traditionally taken dual positions both as the information receiver and the communicator. Thus the translating process should be enriched by taking note of the original author's intentions in order to pursue translation equivalence for the original source text; this is to render its concepts and language in such a way that they resonate with the thoughts, feelings and value systems of the target language reader to achieve the principle of effect. That is to say, in some situations, when absolute equivalence cannot be achieved, the translation can be achieved by other forms, such as using pragmatic factors, cultural information, and the reconstruction of the style and the semantic structure of the original text (Xu, 1998; Liu, 2000; Zhang, 2003). This is how the process of functional equivalence translation can be implemented. In this pragmatic translation process, it is important to combine the information conveyed by the original language with context, linguistic environment, social background, as well as with the comparison of different cultures to achieve equivalence at a functional level, rather than translating the text's literal meaning (Xi, 2002). As later sections of this research will indicate, a key problem with the vocabulary translated in TCFL textbooks is an occasional inability to render concepts and language in a meaningful, appropriate way for English-speaking users of the textbooks, and this raises operational questions about the information that is included in terminology translation, and about the translators who engage in this task.

The context factor is another influential component in functional equivalence research. Cruse (2009) believes that the meaning of a word comes from its context and the semantics of lexical items clarify the relationship between the lexical item and its potential context. Contextual factors include linguistic context and situational context outside the linguistic level. Cruse points out that linguistic

context is easier to understand and explain, and consequently linguistic context should be considered as an important research task in lexical research (Cruse, 2009: 15–20). This emphasis is also applied to lexical semantic research based on corpora which provides an actual operational environment for lexical research (Jia and Yang, 2013).

In addition to the linguistic context, social context and cultural context should also be taken into consideration. Whatever the categorization of language usage or the metaphor and metonymy of the semantic development mechanism, cultural factors cannot be neglected. The importance of culture for metaphor has gradually become a common worldwide concept, and with the development of globalization, cross-cultural research on metaphor pattern and conceptual metaphor have increased (Jia and Yang, 2013). Based on the dialectical relationship between language usage and linguistic systems presented by linguistics theory, grammar is not only the knowledge base, but is also the result of language usage. Research into the broadness of a word's meaning is the result of the acceptance of new meanings by the flexible usage of language users in different linguistic contexts. By contrast, the meaning of a word may gradually disappear as a consequence of rejection by language users. Hence, linguistic meaning should be presented in the context of language usage. The factors of context cannot be removed from functional equivalence research if objective and comprehensive explanations are to be achieved.

One branch of equivalence theory cannot be isolated from the other branches, and it is therefore hard to say whether only one approach has mainly been referenced within this the research project because translation studies is an open and synthetic discipline. The equivalence theory of translation is combined with semantics, social communication, and pragmatics to vividly symbolize the development of the discipline (Hua, 2000). With the progress of human society, traditional disciplines continue to break through the old boundaries and penetrate

into other new disciplines. Throughout the development of the equivalence theory of translation, the process of development is also the integrated process of translation studies and other disciplines (e.g. linguistics-based approaches to translation) from experience to scientific practice.

2.4 Linguistics-based Approaches to Translation

Translation research had been considered to be a branch of applied linguistics, especially before the 1950s. The synergy between the two disciplines, which together can be beneficial to the construction and application of translation study, has promoted and enriched the development of translation. The present study has been based on the equivalence theory of translation and on several linguistics-related theories concerning vocabulary and foreign language acquisition. After reviewing the functional equivalence theory of translation, certain linguistics concepts such as semantics, pragmatics, lexical semantics and lexical pragmatics will be introduced before the presentation of the definitive theoretical framework. These elements of linguistics research have functioned as a form of theoretical guidance in reaching the final theoretical framework. The present study concerning vocabulary translation is also an analysis of the meaning of words. Thus the importance of related linguistics-based theories should be applied together with translation theories to develop a comprehensive analysis of the meaning of words.

2.4.1 Semantics and Lexical Semantics

Lexicology can be explained as "research on vocabulary of chosen language" (Lipka, 2002). The research object of lexicology is vocabulary and its nature, structure, norm, characteristic, origin, classification, evolution and usage. In modern linguistics, the main research focuses have been influenced by research related to semantics, pragmatics, and also by sub-disciplines related to semantics and pragmatics (Wang, 2010). In modern linguistics research, semantic research

and pragmatic research are widely used in foreign language teaching and learning research, especially in the context of vocabulary research.

Semantics can be defined as a discipline "generally designed as the study of meaning" (Lyons, 1977: 1). Semantics concentrates on exploring how languages organize and express the meaning of the word, and semantics research gradually established itself as a scholarly discipline examining the development of words and the meaning of words (Kreidler, 1998; Zhang and Zhang, 2012).

Lexical semantics has developed from modern semantics and can be explained as the "research which takes the meaning of the word as its central level"(Wang, 2010: 2). It has narrowed the research focus of semantic research objectives and their key issues into the meaning of the word level, rather than levels of phrase meaning, sentence meaning and textual meaning. Lexical semantics has gradually become the principal research topic in the semantic research field (Chen, 2006).

2.4.2 Pragmatics and Lexical Pragmatics

Pragmatics can be defined as a discipline that is "concerned with the study of meaning as communicated by a speaker (or writer) and interpreted by a listener (or reader)" (Yule, 1996: 3). It can be seen as an independent discipline, which deploys a scientific analysis of language used in the target situation (Mo, 2010). This is a highly general explanation of pragmatics. From a specific perspective, pragmatics can be summarized as the science of language seen in relation to its users, or it can be said that the emphasis of pragmatics lies on the meaning in context rather than the meaning of the word itself (Mey, 1993). Pragmatics research has brought theoretical meaning research into practice (e.g. connecting meaning research to verbal behaviour). In pragmatics research, the meaning of the word depends on its use (Wittgenstein, 1958). When combining theoretical pragmatics research and practical pragmatics research together to carry out an

analysis of the meaning of different factors (e.g. utterance, interaction, and context, etc.), the hidden meaning (pragmatic implicature) will be shown to achieve the equivalence effect between source language and target language (Xi, 2002; Li, 2002).

Lexical pragmatic research can be traced back to the 1970s, but systematic research only started in the 1990s. Lexical pragmatics is a fairly recent development and can be explained as a branch of pragmatics "that investigates the process by which linguistically–specified (literal) word meanings are modified in use" (Wilson, 2003: 273).

As a new branch of linguistics, lexical pragmatics has developed rapidly in current research fields. As Lenaerts and Vylder pointed out, in a socio–cultural context, a single word may contain multiple functions and meanings, and one function or meaning in a different context may be represented by different expressions (Lenaerts and Vylder, 2006). Traditional lexical semantic research aims at explaining the meaning of the word rather than concerning itself with the word's linguistic context. However, lexical pragmatic research takes a dynamic pragmatic mechanism and context information to give a theoretical explanation and description of the word meaning as a way of solving semantic under – specification problems in its application process. Lexical pragmatic research gradually became a cross – disciplinary phenomenon and broke away from the restrictions of pragmatics and semantics.

2.4.3 Tripartite Theory of Glosseme

A number of academic perspectives subtend the analytical framework used in this study. Several conceptual elements, including the concepts of "tripartite theory of glosseme" with its classification and the functional equivalence of translation will be combined to form the theoretical framework for this study. The usefulness of

each of the conceptual elements incorporated into the analytical framework of this study will also be explained in this section.

Having reviewed a range of linguistics-based approaches such as developmental semantics, lexical semantics, pragmatics and lexical pragmatics, it is necessary to investigate how the theoretical guidance of these linguistics-based approaches can be applied to vocabulary translation research. Lexical semantics has divided various meaning units of the lexical level into four basic semantic categorizations: sememe, morpheme meaning, glosseme, and cluster (Cruse, 2009; Zhang and Zhang, 2012). Among the four semantic categorizations, the glosseme is the central element. The concept of the glosseme evolved from Bloomfield's linguistic research. In 1926, Bloomfield defined the glosseme as "the meaning of morpheme" and considered it to be a meaning unit of Structural Linguistics (Bloomfield, 1980). With the development of lexical semantics, scholars then summarized the concept of glosseme into three levels: macroscopic concept, mesoscopic concept, and microcosmic concept. The macroscopic concept refers to "the gathering of meaning items of the word". The mesoscopic concept minimizes the glosseme as "a meaning item of the word" (Nida, 1975; Zhang and Zhang, 2009). The microcosmic concept means "the semantic component of more than one meaning item" and is the chosen concept applied in glosseme research in modern lexical semantic research.

The concept of the glosseme is illustrated from different perspectives. The tripartite theory of glosseme has been widely used for analysing the meaning of a word. The tripartite theory of glosseme classifies the glosseme into three categories: semantic meaning, pragmatic meaning, and grammatical meaning (Cruse, 2009; Zhang and Zhang, 2012).

2.4.3.1 Semantic Meaning

There are two components of semantic meaning in a glosseme: the value of meaning and the field of meaning (Lyons, 1977, 1995). The value of meaning and the field of meaning are part of the micro structure of glossemes. The value of meaning is formed by lexical meaning and connotative meaning. Lexical meaning is the basic semantic feature of the glosseme (Shi, 1981). Lexical meaning has an equal status with the notional meaning and conceptual meaning of semantics and lexicology. In the vocabulary translation research field, non-equivalent translation problems commonly centre inadequacies, inappropriateness and incompleteness. Such problems reflect the complexity of Chinese polysemantics (Zhang and Zhang, 2012). For vocabulary translation of lexical meaning, the selection of polysemantic meaning is the key factor for improving the quality of translation. Another component of the value of meaning is connotative meaning. Connotative meaning is the accessorial meaning of a glosseme which can be explained as "an associated or secondary meaning of a word". Compared with the lexical meaning of the word, connotative meaning has communicative value and the function of improving and strengthening the verbal performance. Connotative meaning contributes to a number of semantic variants of a lexicon, and contributes to the enrichment of lexemes and the refinement of glossemes. Connotative meaning learning should come at the entry stage for foreign language learners, as the differences of homonym and synonym will help to foster a comprehensive understanding of language usage for non-native learners (Zhang and Zhang, 2012: 34 - 35).

Field of meaning refers to the broad semantic scope with meaning and usage (Humboldt, 1997). It can be defined as the "the gathering of meaning with glosseme features" (Zhang and Zhang, 2012: 59). In the vocabulary translation process, the usage scope of English translation of Chinese words may not be equivalent to the usage scope of Chinese words. It is the non-equivalence of field

of meaning. In some situations such as the English translation of a Chinese homonym, if the English translation lacks sufficiently accurate words to explain the Chinese homonym, using the same English translation will not show the distinction of the homonym and may lead to a misunderstanding of the word. As the English word and Chinese word have a non-equivalent field meaning, the homonym translation should be made with a clear usage scope and restriction to distinguish the differences (Lyons, 1977).

2.4.3.2 Pragmatic Meaning

Most research on the pragmatic meaning of glosses actually concentrates on context meaning research (Zhang and Zhang, 2012: 109). The context ranges from generalized to specific contexts (Leech, 1987). Generalized contexts include the subject context of communication, the linguistic context, and the objective context of the social background and target situation. The specific context only refers to a certain part of the generalized context. From the perspective of the generalized context, the research on vocabulary translation in TCFL textbooks mainly focuses on the linguistic and objective context. The pragmatic meaning closely interacts with the analysis of semantic meaning and grammatical meaning. As Chinese is always seen as a context-based language, pragmatic meaning is "meaning in use" together with influential contextual factors such as culture. The contextual meaning of the gloss is much richer and more complex than the semantic meaning. The specific context of vocabulary translation can be defined as a phrase, a sentence, a paragraph or a passage. Most words from the vocabulary lists of TCFL textbooks are polysemantic especially on their first appearance. It is necessary to limit information regarding context and social background rather than list all the meaning items in the vocabulary list (Cruse, 2009: 15 - 16), which is a common problem in the TCSL textbooks analysed in this research.

2.4.3.3 Grammatical Meaning

The grammatical meaning of the glosseme is the meaning generated from the grammatical function or relationship of the word (Huang, 2009). When an equivalent relationship cannot be made in the semantic meaning and pragmatic meaning categories, it is useful to find solutions from a grammatical perspective to achieve an equivalent status. The first aspect of grammatical meaning is the function of syntax, compositional characteristics, and collocation with other components. It can be explained as "whether the function of the word can be the appropriate component for composing the sentence and combining with other words or not" (Zhang and Zhang, 2012: 109). In the Chinese - English translation field, although most words can find an equivalent translation in the target language system, there are still many words that lack sufficient grammatical explanation to maintain consistency with the original terms. Thus, adding adequate grammatical information will improve the comprehension of the words and help learners to apply the terms properly.

Conversion is a translation strategy that is widely applied in vocabulary translation. That is, the translation has a different grammatical form from the original word. The replacement of grammatical phenomena can include the grammatical category, part of speech, component of sentence, and sentence category. In some specific circumstances, the translation results can be achieved by replacement of grammatical elements such as conversion of part of speech, sentence components and sentence pattern, etc. The conversion of a part of speech is a common form of grammatical element replacement. That is to say that both the original word and the translated version should have the same part of speech to maintain their equivalent relationship within a grammatical meaning category. If no equivalent part of speech or phrase can be found, it is useful to make a conversion to keep the consistency. Another situation is also relevant to grammatical meaning categories. When the given part of speech is incorrect or

missing, it is necessary to revise the incorrect examples or add adequate information. An incorrect part of speech here means two types. The first type refers to the part of speech that is mistaken. Another type is commonly found in vocabulary translation. When the original word is a polyseme with more than one part of speech, its part of speech within the specific provided context should be selected. If a different part of speech has been selected for the translation, it is also categorized as incorrect part of speech problem (Huang, 2009; Li, 2013; Liu, 2013).

Translation activities are closely involved in meaning. J. Lyons (1995) pointed out that the meaning of the word is the position of the lexical relation formed by the word itself and other words in the linguistic lexicon. The value of such a linguistic concept is presented through research on the semantic level of meaning rather than by dealing with meaning problems in communicative activities. For example, the translation of strong culturally-loaded words may cause different reactions in different linguistic groups. Thus the mere knowledge of a word's semantic meaning is far short of fully understanding the word (Zhang and He, 2001). In a foreign language learning process such as vocabulary learning, how to translate the meaning of the original word into the target language involves many linguistic meaning analyses. As Jacobson (1959/2000) pointed out, linguistic activities among linguists or ordinary word users can be explained as translation processes which entail translating the meaning of any linguistic sign into some further, alternative sign. Translation research and linguistics research have a close relationship with each other. The linguistics-based approaches listed above can be seen as the fundamentals of the theoretical framework for the present study. The following section will illustrate the analytical theoretical framework absorbed both by functional equivalence theory of translation as well as linguistics-based approaches to translation (semantics, lexical semantics, pragmatics and lexical pragmatics).

2.5 Theoretical Framework of the Study

The present study has designed a theoretical framework based on elements of functional equivalence theory and tripartite theory of glosseme illustrated from section 2.3 to 2.4 (see figure 2.6).

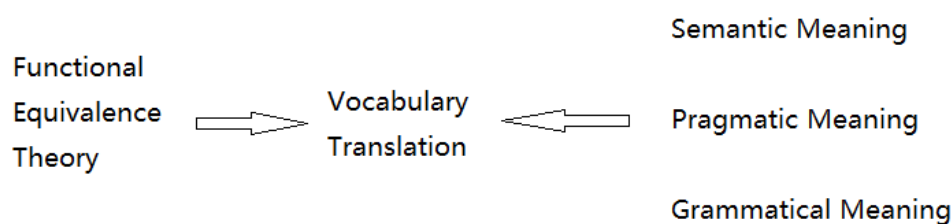


Figure 2.6 Theoretical framework of the study

The present study has taken vocabulary lists (Chinese words with corresponding English translations) and passages from the selected TCFL textbooks as the research objects. All of the vocabulary translations have been examined through the optic of the functional equivalence theory of translation from the semantic meaning category, pragmatic meaning category and grammatical meaning category. Back translations of each vocabulary translation (reflecting the requirement of the functional equivalence theory) have been carried out to identify items that are inconsistent with the given translations. The selected inconsistent pairs have been analysed from the perspective of the semantic meaning category, pragmatic meaning category and grammatical category (the elements of the tripartite theory of glosseme) to find out what kind of translation problems there are within the selected materials. A detailed analysis of translation problem types identified through the theoretical framework has been outlined in

2.6 Working Definitions of the Study

Before moving on to the methodology and data analysis chapters, several relevant working definitions should be outlined more accurately to improve the reliability and validity of the assertions that will be made.

2.6.1 TCFL Textbooks in the Study

Modern textbooks can take different forms, ranging from a general category to a specific category of texts. From a general point of view, textbooks include all kinds of video data, website data, image data, published materials, and private data that can be used for personal classroom teaching, while specific textbooks only refer to published paper books used for classroom teaching. Although in present day society, the rapid development of Internet technology means that online resources and visual materials have been gradually incorporated into many teaching activities on TCFL courses, nonetheless the value of the TCFL paper textbook should not be neglected. The TCFL textbooks examined in this thesis have been selected from the specific category which refers to published paper books (traditional books) used for non-native learners of Chinese to learn and improve their Chinese usage and comprehension (Zhao, 2009).

2.6.2 Selection Criteria of TCFL Textbooks of the Study

The selection of TCFL textbooks has been based on four criteria established below, the criteria being in accordance with the aims of the research. The textbooks are:

- a. widely used materials in TCFL teaching field;
- b. used for comprehensive courses covering all four key skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing);
- c. provided for learners from preliminary level to intermediate level;

d. published after 2010.

There are different elements of the TCFL curriculum, such as the listening course, the speaking course, the reading course, and the writing course. Such courses place a specific extra emphasis on listening training, oral practice, reading comprehension training, and writing skill training. Besides these specific courses and textbooks for these specific requirements, Chinese comprehensive courses refer to the courses that provide overall training for listening, speaking, writing, and reading. In comprehensive course textbooks, the listening, speaking, reading, and writing parts have been combined to improve the student's communicative abilities and comprehension of Chinese. In the education system of modern China, comprehensive courses have become the main teaching materials from primary education level to higher education level, and they have been widely used in universities and other training institutions. Current TCFL textbooks for English-speaking learners of Chinese provide English translations in the vocabulary lists at the preliminary and intermediate levels. When learners enter a higher level of study (advanced level), no English translation is provided. All explanations for new Chinese words at the advanced level of study are in Chinese to enhance the Chinese input of learners. Newly published materials have special features, such as creative formats (e.g. matched audio - visual materials) and content (e.g. up - to - date topics and real-life contexts, etc) that are closely connected to modern day society (Yang, 2011). Thus, according to the research tasks established above, the selected TCFL textbooks used for this study are newly published and widely used comprehensive course materials for preliminary and intermediate level.

After an investigation of current popular comprehensive coursebooks, 12 popular TCFL textbooks have been selected randomly to avoid any subjective judgement of their content or subjective advice from other teachers or from the media. The final selected TCFL books have been listed as follows (see table 2.6).

Table 2.6 TCFL textbooks for the study

Title of Books	Publishing Year	Country and Press
Erya Chinese: Comprehensive courses (Preliminary level 1、 2)	2011	China: Beijing Language and Culture University Press
Erya Chinese: Comprehensive courses (Intermediate level 1、 2)	2011	China: Beijing Language and Culture University Press
Developing Chinese: Comprehensive courses (Preliminary level 1、 2)	2013	China: Beijing Language and Culture University Press
Developing Chinese: Comprehensive courses (Intermediate level 1、 2)	2014	China: Beijing Language and Culture University Press
An Easy Approach to Chinese: Comprehensive courses (Preliminary level)	2010	China: Sinolingua Press
An Easy Approach to Chinese: Comprehensive courses (Intermediate level)	2010	China: Sinolingua Press
Discover China: Comprehensive courses (Preliminary level)	2011	UK: Macmillan Press
Discover China: Comprehensive courses (Intermediate level)	2011	UK: Macmillan Press

2.6.3 Vocabulary Lists Analysed in the Study

In current TCFL textbooks, vocabulary learning is not merely focusing on a word (Chinese unit) itself but it involves some characters, morphemes, as well as phrases. A "word" (Chinese unit) is regarded as the basic linguistic unit and the smallest meaning unit of language in Chinese, and word learning has always been considered the major element in vocabulary learning. For this thesis, "vocabulary list" is taken as the main term used to represent the collection of words. The term "word" (Chinese unit) has been chosen to refer to any Chinese word (including any single character form or compound form) from the vocabulary list and text (e.g. single character "你" nǐ – you, or compound characters "你好" nǐhǎo – hello, etc).

2.6.4 English Translations of the Vocabulary Lists in the Study

English is a universal language and an important inter-language widely used in foreign language teaching and learning. TCFL textbooks are designed for non-native learners of Chinese to improve their comprehension of the Chinese language. In this study, the TCFL textbooks under analysis are designed for non-native learners of Chinese who use English as their mother tongue or as a frequently used language. As explained above, the selected four series of TCFL textbooks use standard English translations and are targeted at non-native learners of Chinese from an English speaking background. These TCFL textbooks involve two different languages (Chinese and its corresponding translation) in each lesson, there are many annotations, explanations, and instructions alongside the Chinese words and texts. Here we use "English translation" as the main term to represent any annotation or explanation that conveys the meaning of Chinese words. The standard of English accords with the British Standard English.

2.6.5 Standard of Chinese in the Study

The language system of modern Chinese consists of a modern Chinese common language (Mandarin) and modern Chinese dialects (Sha and Zhu, 2014: 16). The common language of modern Chinese is also called Mandarin; it takes the Beijing accent as its standard pronunciation and the language used in the northern part of China (northern dialect) as its language basis. There are also many modern Chinese dialects in China which can be divided into seven major categories: northern dialect, Wu dialect, Xiang dialect, Gan dialect, Kejia dialect, Min dialect and Yue dialect, with more than eighty kinds of sub-categories of dialects (ibid). Although Mandarin has become popularized in present day Chinese society, dialects are still commonly used in different parts of China for daily communication by local people. Mandarin has a highly unified language structure and a highly unified writing system. With the development of politics, economics and cultural popularization, Mandarin has been strongly promoted and has become commonly accepted in Chinese daily life (Zhang, 1999). According to the National Law of Commonly-Used Language of the People's Republic of China, Mandarin is used as China's commonly-used language and official language. Mandarin is also the standard teaching language used in all levels of educational institutes, and in teaching and learning materials. For this study, Chinese words and explanations used in vocabulary lists and for data analysis are in accordance with standard Mandarin Chinese (northern dialect).

2.6.6 Word Classification in Chinese and English

A Chinese word is (for the most part) equivalent to a morpheme, which is defined as "the smallest unit of meaning" and the basic material for expressing ideas in everyday life (Li and Jiang, 2008: 162). From a syllabic perspective, if a word is represented by a single syllable, it is called monosyllabic word; if a word is represented by two syllables, it is a disyllabic word; if words are composed of

three or more syllables, they are polysyllabic words. In the Chinese system of writing normally a syllable is a character (Li and Cheng, 2015: 11–12). Thus a monosyllabic word is represented by one Chinese character, a disyllabic word is represented by two Chinese characters and a polysyllabic word is composed by three or more Chinese characters (see table 2.7).

Table 2.7 Syllabification

	Chinese	Pinyin	Translation of individual morpheme	Full translation
Chinese monosyllabic word	家	jiā	house	House
Chinese disyllabic word	家	jiā	house	family member
	人	rén	people	
Chinese polysyllabic word	家	jiā	house	house work
	务	wù	affair	
	活	huó	job	
	家	jiā	house	household appliances
	用	yòng	use	
	电	diàn	electric	
	器	qì	equipment	

Disyllabic words and polysyllabic words are also called examples of compound word formation and overlapped word formation. Among the various types of word formation in Chinese, compound word formation is of pivotal importance (Li, 1959; Xue, 2011). Over 90% of modern Chinese words are compound words which are composed of more than one morpheme (Lu, 2008). As modern Chinese word formation takes compound formats as the main method of word formation, it

becomes a complex task for non-native Chinese learners to obtain an accurate meaning of a word without the proper translation and explanation of the word.

There are many different standards that have contributed to the classification of modern Chinese vocabulary, some of which can be traced back to ancient times. In the Tang and Song dynasties,³ words were classified into content words and function words, based on their meaning. According to *Ma Shi Wen Tong*, content words include every word that can be explained with a clear definition, such as nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs, while function words act in an auxiliary way in a sentence, such as prepositions, conjunctions, particles and interjections (Li, 2003: 60–61). This classification has had an important influence on the modern Chinese grammar research field. In modern times, a new standard of classification of Chinese vocabulary has been proposed by several scholars from the perspective of grammatical function. Hu Yushu stated in his work *Modern Chinese* that from this perspective, content words refer to words which can be used individually as a grammatical component in a sentence while function words cannot be used individually to act as a grammatical component (Hu, 1978: 284). Huang Borong and Liao Xudong developed this classification and added "grammatical meaning" into the classification. From their point of view, content words can work as a component with lexical meaning and grammatical meaning to form a sentence, while function words only work with grammatical meaning and cannot be used to form a sentence individually (Huang and Liao, 1997: 8). This classification has been widely used in modern Chinese linguistics and translation research fields.

This study has taken the vocabulary classification of Huang and Liao in their work *Modern Chinese* as its reference point, given that their classification criteria are unambiguous and extremely well delineated. According to their classification, content words include nouns, verbs, adjectives, numerals, measure words, adverbs,

³ Tang and Song Dynasties: AD 618 – AD 1279

and pronouns, while conjunctions, prepositions, particles, modal particles, interjections, and onomatopoeia (i.e. meow in English and 喵 (miāo) in Chinese) have been classified as function words.

Normally one Chinese word belongs to a certain part of speech. Besides the classification of Chinese words listed above, there are certain words that possess the grammatical function of two or more parts of speech. These words are context dependent in the Chinese grammatical system. They keep their original form without any changes but alter their function as a particular part of speech in accordance with the context in which they are used. For example:

qǐng	gěi	wǒ	yī	běn	Shū
请	给	我	一	本	书
please	give	me	one	a measure word for books	book
Please give me a book.					

给 (gěi) in the above Chinese sentence is used as a verb and can be translated as "give". Whereas in another example:

qǐng	gěi	wǒ	Jiè shào	yī	xià	Tā
请	给	我	介绍	一	下	她
please	to	me	introduce	one	a measure word for a short time	she
Please introduce her to me.						

给 (gěi) in this example is used as a preposition "to". Such words are very common in Chinese grammar and their explanation and comprehension becomes a difficult task for Chinese teaching and learning.

In English grammatical systems, a content word refers to a type of word that expresses a full lexical meaning of its own to denote concepts such as actions, objects, ideas, and attributes (Fromkin, Rodman and Hyams, 2007: 79). Content words are also called open class words as new words may be added to given groups of content words with the development of society, technology, and science. A content word independently contributes to the construction of a sentence. Nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs have been classified into the English content word class (Fromkin, Rodman and Hyams, 2007: 79). Function words in English are also known as form words. These words are devoid of lexical meaning and cannot be independently used as components in forming a sentence. They are usually used to indicate a functional relationship among various content words, or to form a phrase with another word to act as its grammatical function in the sentence (Fromkin, Rodman and Hyams, 2007: 79). Compared with content words and the changeable status of the groups to which they belong, function words are much more fixed and stable, and can be classified as closed class words. In the function

word classification, there are prepositions, determiners, conjunctions, pronouns, measure words, particles, modal particles, interjections, and onomatopoeia (ibid). The classification of English content words and function words is sometimes different from those of Chinese (see table 2.8).

Table 2.8 Word Classification of Chinese and English

Part of Speech	Chinese	English
Nouns	Content word	Content word
Verbs	Content word	Content word
Adjectives	Content word	Content word
Adverbs	Content word	Content word
Conjunctions	Function word	Function word
Prepositions	Function word	Function word
Determiners	N / A	Function word
Pronouns	Content word	Function word
Numerals	Content word	Content word
Measure words	Content word	Function word
Particles	Function word	Function word
Modal particles	Function word	Function word
Interjections	Function word	Function word
Onomatopoeia	Function word	Function word

Chinese content word classification does not feature determiners whereas they are common in English. Moreover, pronouns and measure words in Chinese belong to the content word category while in English they belong to the function word category. Measure words are a feature of Modern Chinese. In Modern Chinese, measure words are used to indicate the specific unit or measure of actions or things in a obligate and extensive way (Li and Cheng, 2008). Although English also features a similar linguistic concept, such as the difference between "two

packs of cards" and "two bunches of bananas", the range of Chinese measure words is rather more extensive. Besides complicating the selection of appropriate lexical meanings between Chinese and English, such differences regarding the categorization of content/function words will also directly affect the attempts of English learners of Chinese to gain a better understanding of Chinese words at a vocabulary level.

2.6.7 Context in the Study

Context can be divided into general context and specific context (Huang, 2009: 34). The general context refers to a very broad context, such as the linguistic context in communicative activities and the social background context, while the specific context only focuses on one aspect of the general context. In this study, the context refers to the specific context (e.g. a collocation, a sentence, a paragraph and a passage of Chinese textbooks). It is within the general context of Chinese language.

2.6.8 Translation Type in the Study

Colina defines translation as "the process of, or the product resulting from, transferring or mediating written text(s) of different lengths (ranging from words and sentences to entire books) from one human language to another" (Colina, 2015: 3). There are three core translation elements from the above definition that most scholars and practitioners have proposed: written texts, transfer or mediation, and from one natural language to another. A translation deals with the meaning transfer of written texts between different languages. This study aims to discuss problems of translation within written texts. The term used for oral texts is "interpretation" or "interpreting". "Interpretation" or "interpreting" will not be discussed in this study.

2.7 Summary of the Chapter

TCFL textbooks are the main learning materials for non–native learners of Chinese, and during these language learning processes, non–native learners of Chinese have to use translations into their own language to understand new words. The learning achievements of students are therefore strongly influenced by the quality of vocabulary translation. It stands to reason that vocabulary translation in high quality TCFL textbooks will cultivate in non–native learners of Chinese the ability to understand, analyse, select, and predict the meaning of a word. It will help non–native learners of Chinese to use Chinese words to communicate effectively (Huang, 2009: 4 – 13). This chapter has introduced TCFL methodologies especially for teaching and learning issues of vocabulary translation and reviewed the functional equivalence approach to terminology translation and linguistics–based approaches to terminology translation (e.g. semantics, lexical semantics, pragmatics, and lexical pragmatics) which have been used to establish the theoretical framework for the present study. The tripartite theory of glosseme and functional equivalence theory, among the theoretical articles and volumes outlined above, have been established as the theoretical basis for the next stage of the analysis of the translation issues identified in the project as well as helping further improve the quality of translation.

The following chapters will discuss the research methodology that has been applied to the present study and outline the process of data collection and analysis.

Chapter 3 Methodology

3.1 Introduction

In Chapter 2, a wide range of literature regarding the analysis of the meaning of words in the fields of translation and linguistics-based approaches to translation, as well as foreign language teaching and learning, has been reviewed to establish the theoretical framework for this thesis. Recent empirical research has reinforced the argument that the evaluation of translation work by identifying the systematic problems at the word level between two different languages should be put in a pivotal position within the foreign language teaching and learning process (Li and Jiang, 2008; Xing, 2011). Several recent translation studies and Chinese teaching and learning studies (such as projects led by Professor Tony McEnery and Dr Richard Xiao) have utilized mixed research methods to investigate problems that exist within translation work between different languages, such as building bilingual corpora, and using questionnaire surveys and assessment tests for an in-depth contrastive analysis of the meaning of words between Chinese and English; this approach is more effective than a simple descriptive textual analysis (McEnery and Xiao, 2010; Xing, 2011).

A theoretical framework combining theories of functional equivalence, vocabulary learning and the tripartite theory of the glosseme discussed in Chapter 2 has been used to analyse and critically evaluate my research questions. Functional equivalence translation theory is widely used in translation analysis between two different languages (e.g. Chinese food menu translation). When translation research between Chinese and English is concerned, translation equivalence issues particularly related to the analysis of the meaning of words cannot be separated from a linguistics-based approach to translation (e.g. analysing the meaning of the word according to the semantic meaning category). Thus, although a translation equivalent standard cannot be completely judged or

defined, the meaning of the same word in two different languages can be analysed from its semantic meaning category, its pragmatic meaning category, and its grammatical meaning category, to achieve the functional equivalent level (Catford, 1991; Nida, 1993).

Based on the theoretical framework in Chapter 2, the purpose of this study is to address three specific questions: (1) What are the pedagogical perspectives of teaching practitioners regarding translation as a teaching method in Chinese vocabulary teaching? (2) What kinds of translation problems are there within TCFL textbooks at the preliminary level and intermediate level? and (3) Are there any differences between the translation problems at the preliminary level/intermediate level, and in the content word class/function word class, and how can these findings be applied to improve the quality of vocabulary translation in TCFL textbooks? In order to engage with the questions one by one, the following sections will illustrate the specific methods which have been used to apply the theoretical framework in a practical way, and Chapters 4 – 6 will outline and explain the data gathered from the selected materials in detail.

This methodology chapter will start with an explanation of the research design for this project in section 3.2. The description of research design in this study will be provided to help justify the research questions. The chapter will conclude with the introduction of the data preparation and collection for the project.

3.2 Research Design

This study conducts a comparative analysis of the translation of vocabulary within the chosen materials to identify the non – equivalent items and differences at preliminary level and intermediate level by the methods of questionnaire survey, assessment test and a self – built corpus. It is based on a theoretical framework encompassing the tripartite theory of glosseme and functional equivalent to

explore the translation problems identified within the selected materials. The following sections will explain why these research methods can be specifically applied to answer the established research questions. Firstly, the design of the questionnaire survey regarding teachers' opinions of the quality of vocabulary translation in current TCFL textbooks will be illustrated to set up the rationale of the study. Then a self - designed evaluation framework for evaluating vocabulary translation in the textbooks will be illustrated, followed by corpus design in section 3.2.3; this part of data is the main research object and will be discussed in detail in Chapters 4, 5 and 6. The design of the assessment test for confirming the problematic status of the identified translation problems will be presented in section 3.2.4.

Before moving on to the sections of questionnaire survey and assessment test, the sample of population will be briefly introduced. Sample and population are terms commonly used in statistics. The term population refers to a complete set of elements, such as all members of a defined group or all objects of interest, while the sample is a portion of the whole, or properly refers to a representative part of the population (Good and Hardin, 2006: 5 - 6).

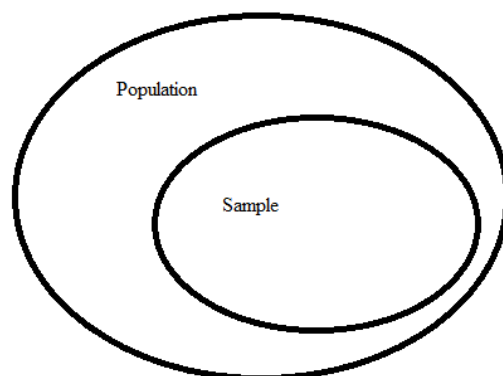


Figure 3.1 Relationship of population and sample. (Ella, 2011)

For this study, the population and sampling for the questionnaire survey and assessment test have been designed as follows:

Table 3.1 Population and Sample of questionnaire survey and assessment test

	Population	Sample
Questionnaire survey	All the qualified Chinese teachers in TCFL field.	160 teachers randomly selected from all the qualified Chinese teachers in TCFL field (both from China and UK).
Assessment test	Undergraduate students from English departments of Chinese universities. These students can either expertly use Chinese or use English through their background of advanced English language study.	150 undergraduate students (third year and final year) from English departments at the Chinese universities (Inner Mongolia, Tianjin, Shanxi Province and Shandong Province.)

During the investigation process, biased sampling may occur if the selection of sample elements systematically favours or leans towards certain characteristics. Although these distortions have seldom been eliminated completely, many potential sources of bias must be reduced to a minimum level to present reliable results (Good and Hardin, 2006: 8–10). Here are some justifications for my sampling:

1) Due to the time limitations and the scale of the project, the Chinese participants have been clearly limited to a small and highly-educated cross-section of the population, namely Chinese university students or staff in China and the UK. The participants in the questionnaire survey are qualified Chinese teachers from Chinese universities, Confucius Institutes (Glasgow and Edinburgh) and

Confucius classes (Scotland) in the UK. They all teach Chinese to non-Chinese learners from English speaking countries, and have years of experience. In order to ensure that the evaluation assessment test was representative and reasonably homogenous, undergraduate students of third year and final year from English departments of Chinese universities were chosen for the study. These Chinese students can either expertly use Chinese or use English through their background of advanced English language study. At this stage, these Chinese students of English are taking or have already passed the Test for English Majors–Band 4. These participants will increase the reliability of the judgements expressed concerning the identified translation items.

2) The selected Chinese teachers were chosen to represent the different teaching and working cultures in two countries – China and the UK – in order to obtain a balance and reduce possible bias in terms of the cultural differences between China and the UK. The teachers from Mainland China are from universities in Beijing, Tianjin, Shanxi province, Shandong province and Inner Mongolia. The teachers from the UK are mainly from Scotland’s Confucius Institutes and classes in Edinburgh and Glasgow. The third year and final year undergraduates are from English departments at the Chinese universities (Inner Mongolia, Tianjin, Shanxi province and Shandong province) to attempt to reduce the regional bias and achieve a balanced representation.

3.2.1 Questionnaire Survey of Chinese Teachers in TCFL Field

160 Chinese teachers from China (Universities in Beijing, Tianjin, Shanxi, Shandong and Inner Mongolia) and UK (Confucius Institutes and classes in Edinburgh, Glasgow, and Chinese classes from other parts of Scotland) were invited to take part in the questionnaire survey research. All these participants are qualified Chinese teachers in the Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language field.

They were chosen and contacted after attending conferences, workshops and other academic activities. The aim of the questionnaire survey was to ascertain current practice in terms of vocabulary teaching and to elicit their perspectives concerning the translation problems within TCFL textbooks. The questionnaire survey was posted online and sent via email/post (in case some of the TCFL teachers were not familiar with or unable to use the online survey system). A brief introduction to the aims of the research was provided for participants, and they were required to fill in the questionnaire survey alone. The questionnaire survey was naturally anonymous for questions of reliability. The participant information sheet and participant consent form clearly indicated that the participants could withdraw at any time without giving any reason, but that the obtained data would be retained and used as part of the study.

The questionnaire survey is clearly structured with pre-coded questions (see Appendix 1). These data are used to establish the rationale of the study. The aim of questionnaire survey was to obtain overviews concerning attitudes towards, and usage of, vocabulary translation in current TCFL textbooks, rather than asking them to talk about their views towards types of translation problems. All the questions in the document are pre - coded questions and there were 11 in total. The first question (Q1) is a general question about the participants' gender. Besides the first question, each question provides 4 - 5 options for the participant to select from (see appendix 1). For example:

Q5:请问您现在在使用或曾经使用过以下哪套教材? * [多选题]

- A. 尔雅中文综合课程教材
- B. 发展汉语综合课程教材
- C. 汉语入门综合课程教材
- D. 发现中国综合课程教材
- E. 其他,请说明 _____ *

Q6:您在课堂教学过程中,词汇教学部分所占课堂时长比例?(以45分钟为一标准课时) *

- A.10分钟以及10分钟以内
- B.11-15分钟
- C.16-20分钟
- D.21-30分钟
- E.31分钟及31分钟以上

Q7:您认为现在的对外汉语教材生词给出英语释义是否必要? *

0%

Figure 3.2 Example of questionnaire survey

Q2 to Q5 are general questions for exploring the background details of the participants, such as their number of years teaching, course types and teaching levels. The options are all in accordance with the main focus areas of the research project. For example, course types are from specific courses (speaking, listening, writing and reading courses) to comprehensive courses, teaching levels from preliminary level to advanced level, and teaching materials include the selected TCFL textbooks of the study as well as other materials. Q6 was designed to see if the vocabulary teaching of the participants was in accordance with the requirements of the Chinese National Language Committee. Q7 to Q9 were designed to elicit the attitudes of participants towards vocabulary translation and to establish the importance that they gave to vocabulary and its translation in the learning process. Q10 and Q11 were designed to verify the research value and rationale of the study. These two questions are central to the project's aim of vocabulary translation evaluation, as they explore the overall picture concerning vocabulary translation quality and its influences on learners' learning achievements. Blank spaces were left for participants if they had any comments about the questionnaire survey. Overall, these questions were designed to validate the significance and feasibility of the research.

All these participants were required to complete the questionnaire survey within two weeks. An overview and detailed data analysis for each question have been provided in Chapter 4.

3.2.2 Evaluation Framework for Vocabulary Translation in TCFL Textbooks

When considering possible investigative criteria for this project, one of the most important considerations is the evaluation standard for identifying non - equivalent translation problems. In order to establish an appropriate form of evaluation, I decided to apply a user-based evaluation framework; this will be discussed in detail in the following paragraphs.

Translation consciously or unconsciously involves an assessment or evaluation of translation quality. Conceptualizations of translation are various across different countries, societies, and cultures. Thus, the concept of "quality" is a topic that elicits considerable attention from translators and scholars. Quality evaluation is very important in translation, because without some form of measurement for assessing the quality of translation, it is not possible to make improvements in the way current translation work is carried out, nor is it possible to know whether the work is of a high quality, and whether it is appropriate to maintain similar approaches for further translation work (Schiaffino and Zearo, 2005: 3). Quality evaluation is a crucial element in the translation field because it assesses whether a product has met a set of standards.

Translation Quality Evaluation methodology (e.g. TQI - Translation Quality Investigation methodology and LISA QA-Quality Assessment Model) is a quantitative - based research method for evaluating translation quality (Schiaffino and Zearo, 2005: 3). Although evaluation approaches have enjoyed some degree of success and applicability in certain contexts, they still constitute one of the

most controversial topics in the translation research field. Texts are commonly embedded in specific contexts or situations. Such non - linguistic elements are also known as situational features or extra - linguistic features (Colina, 2015: 254). There is no specific answer to the question "how - do - you - translate?" unless the translator has a strong background knowledge of the situational features of the target culture. So far it has been clearly difficult to produce a general framework that can be used to provide a standardized system to evaluate the overall quality of any translation work for Translation Studies, but attempts (e.g. formulating evaluation frameworks for specific purposes and products) have been made for the further implementation of evaluation system building (Schiaffino and Zearo, 2005: 1). Researchers are encouraged to develop relevant evaluation tools or criteria for their own work when no existing evaluation systems are available for their specific purpose (Schiaffino and Zearo, 2005; Colina, 2015).

To sum up, based on my understanding of Nida's criteria of translation judgment and the existing evaluation tools/models developed by scholars, such as the Translation Quality Index model (TQI) by Schiaffino and Zearo and the Translation Quality Assessment tool (TQA) by Colina, I have designed a translation evaluation framework for my specific evaluation requirement, namely that of identifying non - equivalent translation problems. The evaluation framework has been designed by selecting criteria from the tripartite theory of glosseme and functional equivalent theories (see Chapter 2). The style of the evaluation framework is in accordance with the evaluation model style of Colina (see table 3.4).

According to Nida's functional equivalence theory, there are three fundamental criteria for translation evaluation.

Table 3.2 Nida's three standard criteria of judging a translation

Category	Criteria	Description
Functional equivalence of translation	Improving the effectiveness of communication	Being able to identify the right meaning for the given context from various meanings (at a word level).
	Understanding the intention in both cultures	Being able to understand and explain both source and target cultures.
	Obtaining equivalent responses	Being able to get back functional equivalence responses between source language culture and target language culture.

(Nida and Taber, 2004: 182-183)

These criteria mainly concern the translation at a textual level. When applied to terminology translation at a word level, the effectiveness of communication can be understood as a process of seeking the meaning that is the best fit for the context. The second criterion requires translators to improve comprehension of the original intent of the source language and then to obtain accuracy in both cultures, or, stating this in other terms, to achieve a functional equivalence effect between source language and target language. The last evaluation criterion seems to be the ideal result of the second criterion. It attempts to build a bridge between the source culture and target culture to obtain "accuracy", "fidelity" or "correctness". In reality, no-one can assume "accuracy", "fidelity" or "correctness" unless the original intention in the source language is entirely understood. Thus the intention and response criteria are considered to be difficulties for those engaged in translation activities.

These criteria accurately explain what the suitable standards and parameters for

translation work should be. In order to obtain an equivalent response from target language readers, the intention of the original text should be well understood and conveyed by the translator to provide comprehensive, accurate work. However, evaluating intentions and responses is difficult to achieve due to the independent translation processes of translators, and to unpredictable responses from readers that can not be subjectively judged and obtained in a limited timeframe. Thus, only the first standard (effectiveness of communication) has been used together with the tripartite theory of glosseme (see table 3.3) for designing the evaluation framework for the present study.

As discussed in Chapter 2, besides the requirements of the functional equivalence theory, the analysis of translation has also been influenced by the tripartite theory of glosseme. A detailed discussion of this has been provided in Chapter 2; therefore in this section, only an outline of the theoretical framework will be provided, and this is as follows:

Table 3.3 The tripartite theory of glosseme

Category	Criteria	Description
Semantic meaning	Value of meaning	Lexical meaning and connotative meaning, such as stylistic meaning, time meaning, time meaning, register meaning, etc.
	Field of meaning	Application scope, usage of the word.
Pragmatic meaning	Context meaning	Specific context (within sentence and discourse).
Grammatical meaning	Functional meaning	Convention of part of speech.
		The function of syntax.

Drawing on the theoretical frameworks set out above, an evaluation framework

was generated. The evaluation framework has been used in the exploration and identification stages of non – equivalence translation problems. It was then revised to become an evaluation instruction for participants in the subsequent assessment test to assess the identified translation problems.

Table 3.4 Evaluation Framework of the Study

Criteria	Description
Criteria of Semantic Meaning	<p>1. Does the translation accurately reflect the lexical meaning of the original Chinese? (or are there imprecisions, e.g. inaccurate renditions and/or some changes in meaning, omissions or additions).</p> <p>2. Does the translation accurately reflect the connotative meaning of the original Chinese? (e.g. formal or informal words; oral or written words, etc).</p> <p>3. Does the translation accurately reflect the application or collocation of the original Chinese? (e.g. fixed collocations; the range of meaning).</p>
Criteria of Pragmatic Meaning	Does the translation present the context meaning within the original context? (or are there inaccuracies, e.g. ignorance of specific context; insufficient knowledge of the meaning selection of the polysemy).
Criteria of Grammatical Meaning	Does the translation accurately explain the grammatical function of the original Chinese word? (or are there deficiencies, e.g. parts of speech that are inconsistent with the original Chinese word; insufficient explanation of sentence pattern).

The above table (table 3.4) has been specifically designed for evaluating vocabulary translation in TCFL textbooks. As Colina suggested in *Fundamentals of Translation*, researchers are encouraged to set up evaluation criteria or

frameworks for their specific evaluation purpose (Colina, 2015). Compared with evaluations of text translation, terminology translation has more requirements in terms of equivalence and accuracy. Thus the evaluation framework designed for the study has drawn on relevant linguistics-based approaches centred on the meaning of word as well as on functional equivalence theory of translation to carry out an investigation of translation quality at word level. The evaluation framework has mainly been based on the requirements of functional equivalence theory. Each translation has been analysed within the semantic meaning category, pragmatic meaning category, and grammatical meaning category to see if it has met the equivalent function of the original Chinese word. Any translation that does not fit any of the evaluation criteria has been selected for further investigation.

As the evaluation results of the translated vocabulary items were to be passed to the participants of the assessment test for further analysis, the participants confirming whether given vocabulary translations were inadequate or not, an evaluation instruction based on the self-designed evaluation framework was generated. The evaluation instruction contained four options summarized from the Likert Scale (see table 3.5).

Table 3.5 Evaluation instruction for assessment test

Option	Description
<p>A Agree</p>	<p>The translation accurately reflects the content contained in the original without unwarranted alteration:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The translation presents lexical meaning / connotative meaning / context meaning within the original context / application / collocation at a functional equivalent level. 2. The translation presents a part of speech consistent with the original Chinese word and a complete explanation of sentence pattern / syntax.
<p>B Partially agree</p>	<p>The translation partially reflects the original Chinese meaning:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The lexical meaning is accurate but the connotative meaning / context meaning / collocation / application is inaccurate (e.g. formal or informal, oral or written, and mandarin or dialect, etc). 2. Incomplete explanation of lexical meaning / sentence pattern / syntax. 3. The translation is a polysemy / synonym which reflects or contains changes in meaning, omissions or additions. 4. The translation is accurate, but the part of speech of the translation is inconsistent with the original Chinese.
<p>C Disagree</p>	<p>Serious / frequent terminological problems occurred:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The translation inaccurately reflects the semantic meaning (presents non - equivalent lexical/connotative meaning or application / collocation). 2. The translation inaccurately reflects the pragmatic meaning (presents complete unawareness / ignorance of special terminology / insufficient knowledge of specialized content or context). 3. The translation inaccurately reflects the grammatical function (both the translation and part of speech are inaccurate; lack of

	explanation of sentence pattern / syntax).
D Don't know	Not sure.

Option A, "Agree", means that the translation accurately conveys the original meaning without any amendment or supplementary information. The given translation effectively conveys the original meaning of the Chinese words (semantic meaning/pragmatic meaning/grammatical meaning). "Unwarranted alteration" here refers to any unnecessary amendment or additional information which is not implied in the original meaning. The part of speech of the given translation is in accordance with the original Chinese word and the syntax has been well explained. Option B, "Partially agree", used in the study means that the translation has reflected part of the original meaning of the Chinese word. However, the translation is incomplete or lacking in necessary information to accurately convey the original meaning, or contains parts of speech inconsistent with the original Chinese and English. There may be some inconsistent information in the given translation in the semantic meaning category/pragmatic meaning category/grammatical meaning categories (e.g. the lexical meaning is accurate but the connotative meaning/context meaning/application/collocation is inaccurate). Such translation problems essentially reflect inaccurate renditions, unnecessary changes, or meanings that are different from the given context. From the perspective of part of speech, although the translation is accurate, the inconsistent part of speech of the translation compared with the original Chinese word has led to a non - equivalent result. Such problems are also categorized as translation outcomes that are only partially acceptable. Option C, "Disagree", clearly shows that the translation is inaccurate. These translations are considered as isolated from original context or containing serious terminological translation problems and fully inconsistent part of speech problems. Compared with the part of speech problems illustrated in section B, both the part of speech and translation

are inaccurate in section C. The last option, "Don't know", has been provided for the participants of the assessment test in case they are unable to judge or did not want to answer the given questions. The evaluation framework was firstly used to identify translation problems within the corpus research, and was then revised to enable participants in the assessment test to express an opinion about the translation quality of vocabulary items.

3.2.3 Corpus Design for the Selected TCFL Textbooks

This section will explain the corpus design for the present study. The approach to the corpus designed for this research project includes two stages. The first is to build up a corpus of vocabulary lists and passages from the selected TCFL textbooks in order to identify translation problems within contexts. Preliminary level data and intermediate level data have been analysed separately to explore potential differences and answer the second research question "What kinds of translation problems are there within TCFL textbooks at the preliminary level and intermediate level?" After building the Chinese/English parallel corpus of vocabulary lists and textbook passages and identifying the translation problems, these translation problems have also been indexed by different parts of speech for further investigation of any differences between content word and function word classes.

Each TCFL textbook provides translated versions of vocabulary lists, but not every textbook provides a translated version of passages and texts in each lesson. Thus, I have translated the passages when needed. Both the Chinese term and the translated version in English have been provided for corpus building. All of the selected TCFL textbooks have the same layout for vocabulary lists as below:

Chinese word	Pinyin	Part of speech	Translation
作业本	zuòyèběn	名词 noun	exercise book

All the Chinese terms have been analysed within their context. Firstly, all the Chinese texts were uploaded to build the corpus. Word lists with original Chinese words were generated for each text in the TCFL textbooks. The word lists were then uploaded for concordance searching, and Chinese words from the vocabulary lists were highlighted within the corresponding texts (see figure 3.3).

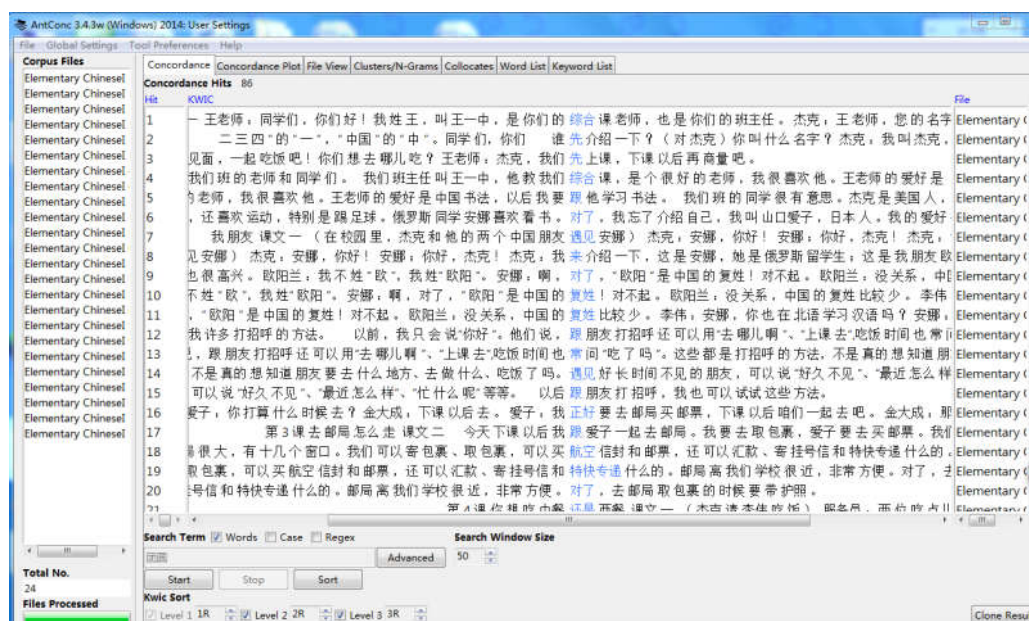


Figure 3.3 Concordance search for word lists

Current translation approaches for TCFL textbook vocabulary involve different translation strategies such as using synonyms, antonyms, phrases, and sentence patterns to explain the original Chinese words. Thus, non-equivalent items have been analysed by using criteria from the tripartite theory of glossemes. According to the criteria of functional equivalence theory of translation (see section 2.3.1), firstly each Chinese word will be highlighted by corpus concordance to provide its collocation, context, and usage. A back translation of every existing translation has been made to see if it has effectively explained the original meaning of the Chinese word. This comparison work has been carried out to find any translation that is not in accordance with the original meaning of the Chinese word as established by dictionaries and the existing corpus. These translations have been

considered as non - equivalent translations. For example, the Chinese word "碗" (wǎn, bowl) has been translated as "a measure word for some food" in one vocabulary list. As found via corpus concordance searching, the context for this word is that of a measure word for rice within an appropriate container (e.g. a bowl). In Chinese, the lexical meaning of "碗" (wǎn, bowl) is "a bowl for containing food, such as rice, noodles, and porridge, etc". There are two parts of speech for "碗" (wǎn, bowl). When it is used as a container, the part of speech is a noun. But it is also used as a measure word for illustrating how many bowls of rice have been ordered. It only refers to food contained in bowls, not in other containers such as plates or pots. Such translations may lead to confusion concerning measure words for food because there are other measure words for food, such as "盘" (pán, plate), "碟" (dié, small plate) for food served on plates, "锅" (guō, wok) for food like stir - fry dishes and "盆" (pén, basin) for dough in Chinese. In this given context, "碗" (wǎn, bowl) is used as a measure word. But the existing translation does not distinguish it from other measure words for food. According to the evaluation criteria of the tripartite theory of glosseme, the translation has translated the original Chinese word from the field of meaning category (semantic meaning category), but it lacks the essential and specific condition "food contained in bowls". It has been identified as a non - equivalent translation in the field of meaning category. The suggested translation for "碗" (wǎn) is "a measure word for some food contained in bowls" (see table 3.6).

Table 3.6 Different measure words for food in Chinese

Chinese measure words for food	Examples
碗 (wǎn, bowl)	
盘 (pán, plate)	
碟 (dié, small plate)	
锅 (guō, wok)	
盆 (pén, basin)	

The identified translation problems have been used in the assessment test for participants to make judgements as to whether they consider these to be translation problems or not. A detailed analysis of the identified translation problems is subsequently provided in Chapter 5. Another corpus-based process of comparison focuses on the different parts of speech of the identified non-equivalent translation items. These identified items have been tagged by their part of speech and indexed to see whether there are differences (e.g. which level

features the most problems, which part of speech causes the most translation problems, etc) between content word and function word classes.

In summary, all of the original Chinese vocabulary items have been processed by corpus to show their collocation and contexts, and assessed by the evaluation framework to see if the provided translation is in accordance with the original meaning of the Chinese words. The non - equivalent translations have been categorized according to different parts of speech and collocated at preliminary / intermediate levels and content / function word classes. Analysis of the identified differences is then provided.

3.2.4 Assessment Test for Bilingual Chinese Participants with Professional Chinese and English Education Backgrounds

Unlike examining language learners' performances and grading them, the assessment test applied in this study aimed to gather information from bilingual language speakers to evaluate the findings of the study (the non - equivalent translation items identified from the corpus research). These bilingual speakers are Chinese students with an excellent educational background in both Chinese and English. They are from the English Department of Chinese universities in their third and final year of undergraduate study with an English major. They have taken English as their foreign language and have years of learning in this area. All of the participants were taking or have passed the Chinese English Test for English Majors–Band 4. Since it would have been highly problematic, given their rarity, to have attempted to gather together a group of non–native Chinese learners who are able to use Chinese as fluently as native Chinese speakers, they were not considered to be suitable target participants for the assessment test included in the study. Instead, the above bilingual Chinese students were chosen to take the

assessment test with the universal acceptability.

150 students were invited to take part in an assessment test centring on the identified translation problems found during the evaluation work. Each participant was given the same paper with the identified translation problems, their corresponding translation and original contexts (see table 3.7).

Table 3.7 Example of the assessment test paper

Chinese word	Part of speech	Translation
羡慕 xiànmù	动词 verb	Envy
王玉：我很羡慕你的工作。 Wangyu: I admire you for your good job.		
A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know		

These non – equivalent translation problems were identified and selected by the comparison process of the corpus research illustrated in section 3.2.3. The assessment test aimed to discover whether the participants agreed that the identified translation issues were indeed problematic. It was designed to elicit reflection by the Chinese students as to whether these Chinese words and their corresponding translations were at an equivalent level or not. The front page of the test paper provided a brief introduction concerning the aim of the assessment test (see appendix 2). The evaluation framework of the assessment test was provided as well.

These criteria were summarized from the evaluation framework, and have been explained in section 3.2.2. The assessment test was based on a paper format. The test paper contained 195 items (a Chinese word and its corresponding translation was considered to be one item). The students were required to read every Chinese word within the provided context and then to use their professional knowledge to decide whether they agreed with the translations or not. They were required to take the test alone. The students were also informed one day in advance to bring

printed dictionaries or electronic dictionaries in case they needed to use them.

The assessment test took about 100 minutes, excluding breaks between two ordinary classes (45 minutes for each class). After 100 minutes, all the test papers were collected to be incorporated into the next stage of the research in Chapter 4.

In summary, the research design section has provided an illustration of the questionnaire survey for TCFL teachers, an evaluation framework for vocabulary translation from the selected TCFL materials, the corpus of the selected materials, and the assessment test for participants to express an opinion on whether the identified translations contained problems and described how these research methods have been applied to each correlated case. The aim of the questionnaire survey was to ascertain current practice in terms of vocabulary teaching and to elicit their perspectives concerning the translation problems within TCFL textbooks. The responses from the participants of questionnaire survey have validated the rationale and feasibility of the research. When considering possible evaluation standard for identifying non - equivalent translation problems, a user-based evaluation framework designed by selecting criteria from the tripartite theory of glosseme and functional equivalent theories has been established for the study. The evaluation framework was firstly used to identify translation problems within the corpus research, and was then revised to enable participants in the assessment test to express an opinion about the translation quality of vocabulary items. Corpus research has been used together with translation evaluation methods for processing the data gathered from the selected TCFL textbooks and identifying non - equivalent translation problems for in - depth analysis and comparative analysis between different levels and word classes. All of the original Chinese vocabulary items have been processed by corpus to show their collocation and contexts, and assessed by the evaluation framework to see if the given translation was in accordance with the original meaning of the Chinese words. These non - equivalent translation problems were then given to the participants of the

assessment test. The assessment test aimed to gather information from bilingual language speakers to verify the problematic status of the identified non-equivalent translation problems gathered from corpus. It was designed to elicit reflection by the Chinese students to see whether these Chinese words and their corresponding translations were at an equivalent level or not. The criteria of the evaluation instruction were summarized from the evaluation framework, and have been explained in section 3.2.2 (see figure 3.4).

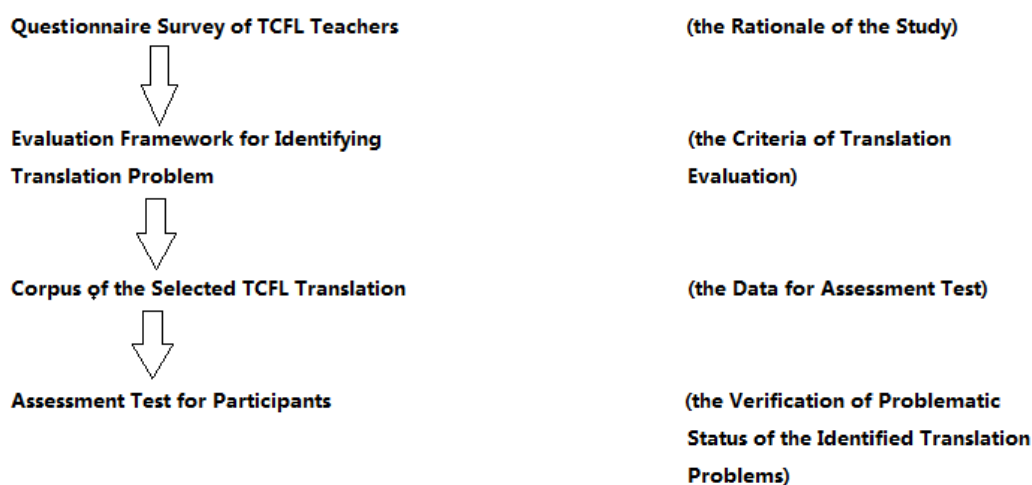


Figure 3.4 Correlated Cases of the Study

The sampling involved in the questionnaire survey and assessment test, and the aims and content of questionnaire survey have firstly been illustrated. Then a self-designed translation evaluation framework has been introduced for identifying non-equivalent translation problems in the corpus data processing procedure. The regular corpus building procedures, such as data preparation (convention, cleaning and alignment) and data processing (tokenization and part of speech tagging) have been illustrated with examples. The assessment test that is used to confirm the determinacy of the identified non-equivalent translation problems has been provided in the last part of the research design section (section 3.2.4).

3.3 Data Collection

This study has applied mixed research methods for identifying translation problems in TCFL textbooks, thus different methods for data collection and processing which were in accordance with each research method will be illustrated in section 3.3. The main data collection method followed the basic requirements of corpus compilation as well as using software for the questionnaire survey and assessment test data collection. The following paragraphs will explain the data collection and preparation processes for this study.

3.3.1 Data Collection for Questionnaire Survey of TCFL Teachers

The data from the questionnaire survey was obtained by online survey software and email. All the participants in the questionnaire survey research were requested to finish it or return the questionnaire survey material within two weeks. After collecting 160 questionnaire surveys, each question from the survey was analysed individually in order to establish an overall perspective of the participants' view on vocabulary translation within current TCFL textbooks. The online survey software "So Jump" is equipped with simple statistical and calculation functions for basic data analysis. By compiling reports on each question from the questionnaire survey aided by Microsoft Word's graphic analysing function, the overall investigation of vocabulary translation issues within TCFL textbooks and the results of the evaluation work will be provided in order to answer the questions established in Chapter 3 for the study (see figure 3.4 for example).

Q1: How long have you been a Chinese teacher?

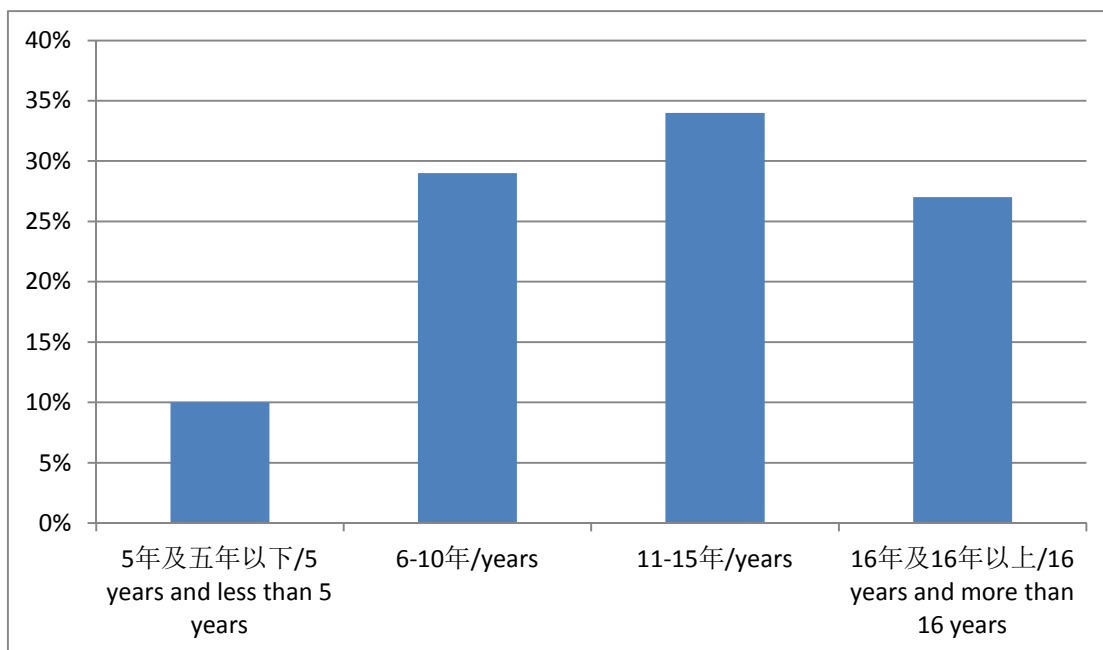


Figure 3.5 Distribution of teaching years

As shown in figure 3.5 for example, the higher percentage for option C indicates that most of the participants in the questionnaire survey had 11 – 15 years' teaching experience, followed by those who have been a TCFL teacher for 6 – 10 years, and 16 or more than 16 years. Only 10% of participants had 5 or less than 5 years' teaching experience. All the questionnaire survey data was analysed individually to establish a percentage for each option before collating all the results for in – depth analysis.

3.3.2 Building the Corpus of the Selected TCFL Textbooks

The process of preparing the corpus data was complicated and time consuming. Due to copyright restrictions, none of the four series of selected TCFL textbooks provided electronic versions of the texts in machine-readable format. Given these circumstances, every lesson in the four series of selected TCFL textbooks was saved as a scanned document in pdf format. Every folder contained two sub folders, one being used to store the original Chinese documents and the other storing the translated work in English. After the scanning process, professional

OCR (Optical Character Recognition) software (ABBYY Fine Reader 10 Professional) and screenshot software was used for converting all the pdf files into a machine-readable format that could be edited by computer. For the study, the parameter setting in ABBYY is English and it achieved results at an 80% successful recognition rate. The remaining 20% was due to the inability of ABBYY software to recognize Chinese characters. Some Chinese characters were interpreted as incorrect code and could not be corrected into appropriate words during the conversion process. In order to solve such problems, another piece of software called CoCo pic recognition was used for recognizing the remaining 20% of Chinese words. Although these types of software reduced most of the conversion work, there was still some manual work (e.g. checking for spelling mistakes and grammatical mistakes) involved in terms of checking the accuracy of the work and correcting the remaining conversion problems and inadequacies. The final data format is text format with a .txt file extension. The built-in code of the data is UNICODE which can be recognized by corpus software.

Text cleaning is also a data pre-processing process. There are many problems related to the blank spaces that remain in converted texts, such as blank spaces at the beginning of paragraphs and blank spaces within sentences. Such problems may lead to insufficiencies and mistakes in word division and the tagging of corpus work. Text Editor 3.0 was used for eliminating such editing problems in order to get clean texts (with no blank spaces).

As a parallel corpus involves two different languages, the source text in the source language and its translated version in the target language should be in an aligned relationship. Text alignment is a process of making the source language and its translated version in the target language achieve a one-to-one correspondence relationship at word level/sentence level/paragraph level. In this one-to-one correspondence relationship, the format of the source text and its translation in the target language should be consistent. These cleaned texts in Chinese and English

have been aligned by an application called Transmate (edited by UE company) and through some manual checking work (after automatically aligning actions, manual checking work was carried out to see if there were still some problems with inconsistency). The alignment of data for the present study is at word level and sentence level (see table 3.8 and table 3.9)

Table 3.8 Alignment style at word level

Paragraph	Source Text	Target Text
1	第 13 课我记错时间了!	Lesson 13 I have remembered a wrong time!
2	课文一	Text 1
3	电子邮件	Email
4	航班	Flight
5	起飞	to take off
6	电脑	Computer

Table 3.9 Alignment style at sentence level

Paragraph	Source Text	Target Text
1	第 13 课我记错时间了!	Lesson 13 I have remembered a wrong time!
2	课文一	Text 1
3	(早晨, 爱子陪金大成在首都机场接朋友)	(In the morning, Aizi was accompanying Jin Dacheng to pick up his friend at Beijing Capital Airport.)
4	爱子: 快看看你的朋友出来了没有. 看到了吗?	Aizi: Come and see if your friend has come out. Have you found him?
5	金大成: 没有啊! 他在电子邮件里说飞机八点到北京, 现在都十点了, 早该接到了。	Jin Dacheng: No, I haven't ! He has told me in an email that his flight would arrive in Beijing at 8 o'clock. It is about 10 o'clock, he should have arrived already.
6	爱子: 咱们去看一下航班时间表吧。	Aizi: Let's go to check the flight schedule.

The cleaned texts obtained by the text cleaning process and the alignment process are raw texts. These raw texts have been obtained from different TCFL textbooks in different compilation forms and this may cause recognition problems (e.g. abbreviation) for each word by corpus software. Such internal inconsistencies potentially cause difficulties in data retrieval (e.g. a term identified in the vocabulary translation process cannot always be matched to its equivalent in Chinese, and sometimes its collocation disappears or is unclear). Thus, tokenization is considered as an essential step in the corpus building preparation period. Tokenization is a process of transforming character strings into separate and distinguishable tokens. An English token is widely accepted as a single

English word (e.g. "desk") (Liang, Li and Xu, 2013). This token format has been chosen for English tokenization and blank spaces have been added between each token to distinguish them from tokens of other categories and symbols.

Unlike English from the alphabetic system which has blank spaces between each word, a Chinese character (from an ideographical system), whether in a single form or combined with other characters, does not have any blank spaces between characters when comprising sentences (e.g. 我记错时间了 I have remembered a wrong time) (Liu, 2013). Thus, tokenization for Chinese texts was distinguished from that of English, and different tokenization software was used for each language. For English raw text, Tokenizer software was used for automatic tokenization. Chinese raw texts were tokenized and tagged simultaneously by ICTCLAS (Institute of Computing Technology, Chinese Lexical Analysis System) (see figure 3.6 and table 3.10).

Part of speech tagging (PoS tagging) is an automatic tagging process for words. Both tokenization and PoS tagging are two essential steps of corpus building. Without tokenization and PoS tagging, corpus software can not recognize any Chinese/English word. Corresponding labels are automatically added after words in different parts of speech in order to make them easily recognized and processed by the corpus. PoS tagging is the basic task for a corpus's natural language processing. For the present study, PoS tagging of both Chinese and English raw texts are used for part of speech indexing for a contrastive analysis of content word class and function word class. Chinese raw texts and English raw texts were tagged by different tagging software. The CLAWS WWW tagger developed by the Lancaster University Computer Corpus Language Research Centre is recommended by many linguistics researchers for its high performance and high accuracy (96%–97%) (Liang, Li and Xu, 2010: 8). All English raw texts were processed by the CLAWS WWW tagger with C5 tagset (see figure 3.6 and table 3.10).

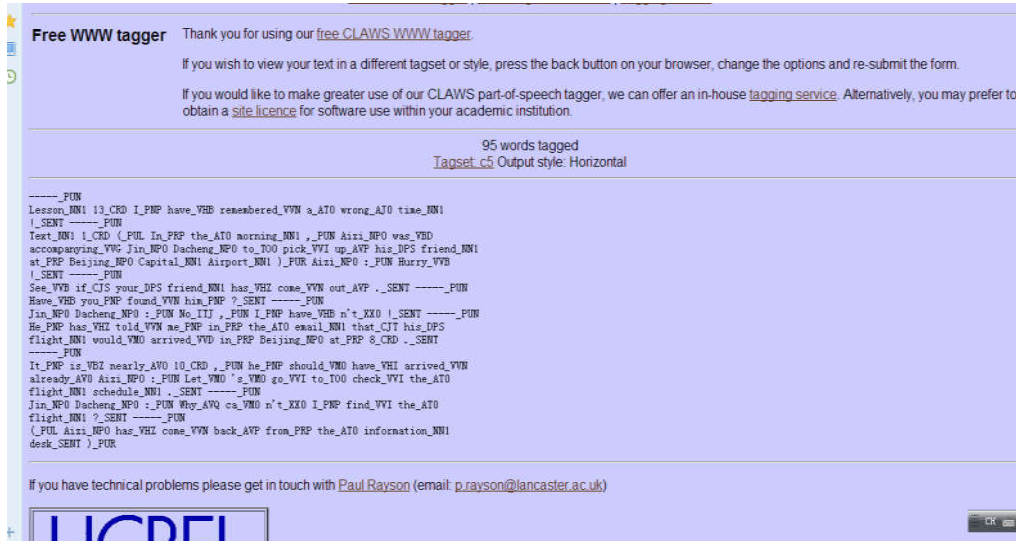


Figure 3.6 Tokenization and part of speech tagging – English

Chinese raw texts were tokenized and tagged through the Chinese Lexical Analysis System, known as ICTCLAS, and developed by the Chinese Academy of Science. This is a suitable tagging software for tagging parts of speech in Chinese texts, with a high accuracy rate of 98.45% (Official website). All Chinese raw texts were tagged by ICTCLAS with ICTPOS level 1 code (see figure 3.7 and table 3.10).



Figure 3.7 Tokenization and part of speech tagging – Chinese

Table 3.10 Chinese and English part of speech tagging

Original	Chinese tagging	Original	English tagging
电子邮件	电子邮件/n	email	email_NN1
都...了	都/d .w .w .w 了/u	already	already_AVO
接	接/v	picks. up	pick_VVI sb_NNO._PUN up_AVP
航班	航班/n	flight	flight_NNI
时刻表	时刻表/n	schedule	schedule_NNI
着急	着急/v	worried, anxious	worried_AJO ,_PUN anxious_AJO
人员	人员/n	personnel	personnel_NN2
晚点	晚点/v	to be late	to_TOO be_VBI late_AVO
起飞	起飞/v	to take off	to_TOO take_VVI off_PRP
电脑	电脑/n	computer	computer_NNI
完	完/v	to finish	to_TOO finish_VVI
糟糕	糟糕/a	terrible	terrible_AJO

The tokenization and part of speech tagging are basic requirements for corpus building and data indexing. As the present study has focused on identifying non-equivalent translation items and differences of parts of speech aided by corpus, all raw texts (before tokenization and part of speech tagging) obtained from the selected TCFL textbooks have to be tokenized and tagged to turn them into annotated texts which can be recognized and processed via corpus.

After the preparation process, all the corpus data was used for building the final

corpus. For this study, which is a parallel corpus research project, Antparaconc, a newly developed and convenient piece of software was chosen for corpus building. Antparaconc is a powerful and useful bilingual concordancer used for parallel corpus building and analysis. All annotated texts were saved in different folders according to their original derivation. Both Chinese texts and English texts were uploaded to build the corpus and processed to bring out the results used for data analysis.

Word lists for each text were uploaded after the corpus building project. Then the Chinese words in the vocabulary list were highlighted within text. Thus the Chinese meanings were examined within their context and collocation with the assistance of dictionaries and an existing corpus (CCL – Centre for Chinese Linguistics and CNcorpus). The examined meanings were compared with the given translation to see whether they matched or not. According to the evaluation frameworks outlined in section 3.2.2, when the given translation lacks essential information related to the original Chinese word's meaning, or if the translation is totally different from the original Chinese word, these translations were collected as non – equivalent translation problems for the next stage of analysis.

3.3.3 Data Collection for the Assessment Test of Bilingual Chinese Undergraduates

The assessment test data was collected in the classroom. Each class's responses were collected individually and all the test papers were collected within a duration of 100 minutes. The paper format assessment test data was manually inputted into the computer for calculating the total amount of preferences for each option. Microsoft Office Excel 2007 was used to generate the distribution of preferences for each option. The assessment data was categorized into preliminary level and intermediate level. There were sub-categories of parts of speech for each level. The analysis of each option's total amount of preferences was carried out

according to different parts of speech (figure 3.8 for example).

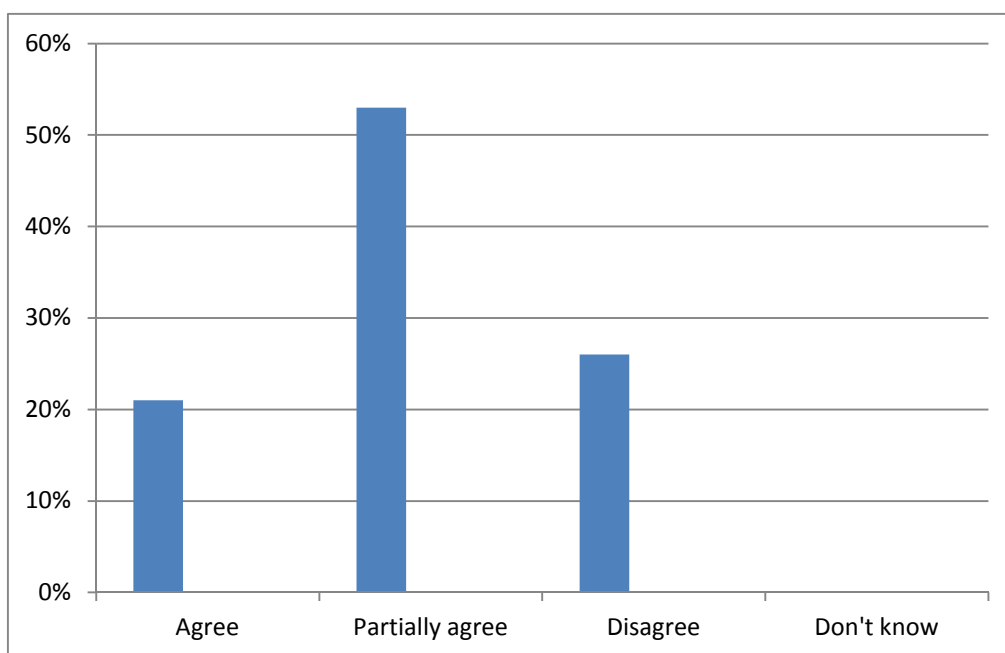


Figure 3.8 Responses to adjectives at the preliminary level

As shown in figure 3.8 for example, the higher percentage of preferences for option B indicates that the majority of participants do not totally agree that the given translation has accurately conveyed the original meaning. According to the evaluation instruction (table 3.5), "partially agree" means that there are unnecessary deviations from the original or that the definition contains inaccurate renditions and / or some changes in meaning, omissions or/and additions. Both option B "partially agree" and option C "disagree" have shown that the translation is not complete and contains non - equivalent items, either unnecessary deviations or terminological problems in meaning, etc. Thus, the higher percentage of participants opting for "partially agree" and "disagree" indicates a belief that the translation contained non - equivalence problems.

In summary, the questionnaire survey data has been gathered and analysed via online survey software to present an overview of participants' (TCFL teachers) attitudes towards vocabulary translation in current TCFL textbooks. The results have shown that the majority of participants agreed that there are non - equivalent

vocabulary translation problems in current TCFL textbooks and these problems have affected the comprehension and performance of learners of Chinese to some degree. All vocabulary lists with their corresponding translations, as well as passages of text, have been put through a series of corpus building processes, such as cleaning, tokenization and part of speech tagging, and then inputted into the corpus. The corpus research has helped to identify non - equivalence translation problems within the selected TCFL textbooks for assessment and contrastive analysis. The processed corpus data has been used for carrying out a classroom assessment to enable a group of participants (Chinese students) to pass judgment on the translations. These responses have been analysed according to categories of parts of speech. The results have shown that the majority of participants in the assessment test agreed that the selected corpus data featured non - equivalence problems and these issues will be discussed in Chapters 4, 5 and 6.

3.4 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter focuses on the methods that are applied to identify answers to the research questions: (1) What are the pedagogical perspectives of teaching practitioners regarding translation as a teaching method in Chinese vocabulary teaching? (2) What kinds of translation problems are there within TCFL textbooks at preliminary level and intermediate level? and (3) Are there any differences between translations problems at the preliminary level/intermediate level and in the content word class/function word class, and how can these findings be applied to improve the quality of vocabulary translation in TCFL textbooks? This study concerns both Chinese and English, thus it has led to contrastive analysis between Chinese and English. Corpus research methods have been used together with translation evaluation methods for processing the data gathered from the selected TCFL textbooks and identifying non - equivalent translation problems for the next stage of analysis. Questionnaire survey methods and assessment test methods have been used to establish the rationale and confirm the feasibility of the

research. The research design section has described how these research methods have been applied to each correlated case. The data collection section has introduced how this data has been processed and prepared for analysis in the following chapters. The questionnaire survey data has been analysed by online survey software in order to establish an overview of Chinese teachers' attitudes towards the vocabulary translation problems in TCFL textbooks and to confirm the importance of this research. All vocabulary lists with corresponding translations, and relevant passages from the selected TCFL textbooks have been processed as corpus data and numerous non-equivalent translation problems have been identified as a result. This data has subsequently been used as the content of the assessment test for students to express their opinions on whether the translations contain problems. The responses of the assessment test participants have shown that they agreed that translation problems had been identified by the corpus research. The last part of the chapter has clarified certain key concepts related to data to validate the assertions that will be made later in the study. These elements of investigation have been combined to address the research questions of the study. Thus, the identified translation problems have been illustrated in detail and they form the basis for a contrastive analysis of the differences between preliminary and intermediate levels, and between content word and function word classes. Examples from the questionnaire survey, corpus and assessment test have been listed as well as from the self-designed evaluation framework. After the explanation of the design of each element of the research process, the next section will explain how this data was prepared and processed for analysis.

The fourth chapter will firstly address the questionnaire survey analysis and assessment test analysis; Chapters 5 and 6 will provide a detailed investigation of the non-equivalent translation problems identified, as well as of the differences between the preliminary and intermediate levels, and between the content word and function word classes.

Chapter 4 Analysis of Users' Views on the Translation of Vocabulary in TCFL Textbooks

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapters have emphasized the importance of vocabulary learning and translation within TCFL textbooks in the Chinese teaching field and laid out a theoretical foundation for critically exploring and analysing the existing translation problems in the selected textbooks. The methodology chapter firstly discussed the different types of preceding research and the main discoveries of previous studies. Then, a detailed illustration of this study's research design for answering the research questions, as well as details of the project's approaches to data processing and preparation, have been presented to contextualize the subsequent chapters of analysis (Chapters 5 - 6). As outlined in the methodology chapter, the data gathered for the present study includes three types, extracted from a range of settings (see table 4.1).

Table 4.1 Types of setting

Types	Settings
Corpora	4 series of TCFL textbooks (6599 Chinese words and 14803 English words) (see chapter 3 section 3.2.3)
Questionnaire Survey	160 qualified Chinese teachers (see chapter 3 section 3.2.1)
Assessment Test	150 Chinese students from English Departments at Chinese universities (see chapter 3 section 3.2.4)

The present chapter outlines my research rationale and justifies the originality and importance of this research. This chapter provides a robust and clear description

of the motivation for the study through the empirical evidence collected from the questionnaire survey data, and it attempts to answer the first research question (1) What are the pedagogical perspectives of teaching practitioners regarding translation as a teaching method in Chinese vocabulary teaching? The thesis establishes a key aspect of its rationale by its analysis of the responses given to the questionnaire survey by qualified Chinese teachers in TCFL field. The questionnaire survey data provides a detailed and well - informed description of the current non - equivalent translation problems in TCFL textbooks. The results of the questionnaire survey clearly articulate the importance of vocabulary translation standards and their influence on the comprehension of foreign language learners. The findings of the questionnaire survey exercise confirm that the present research is urgently needed – and the results corroborate my own arguments concerning translation problems in the TCFL textbooks under analysis.

The emphasis on vocabulary teaching and vocabulary translation in the Chinese pedagogical context of the textbooks is confirmed by the empirical evidence of questionnaire survey data. As discussed in Chapter 2, in the Chinese pedagogical field, textbooks are the main materials for foreign language learners and are used in and after classes. Thus, the accuracy of vocabulary translation affects the comprehension of learners and their learning outcomes from preliminary level to higher levels and also influences the application of these words in daily communicative activities. The evaluation work centring on translations from the selected materials has been carried out along with corpus indexing procedures. As explained in Chapter 3 (section 3.2.2), an evaluation framework and evaluation instructions have been designed based on translation evaluation theories. The translation problems have been systematically identified by corpus and translation evaluation research procedures. The identified items whose translations are problematic emerge regularly and consistently across the textbooks, and a wide-ranging analysis of these problems according to the conceptual foundation (see chapter 2) has been confirmed by the empirical evidence of the assessment

test. The assessment test data shows that there are some serious, recurring translation issues in the existing TCFL textbooks, and these are compelling reasons for conducting this study. The proof that has emerged beyond the anecdotal evidence of translation inaccuracies in textbooks confirms and validates the rationale for the thesis.

The current chapter aims at presenting an overview of non-equivalent translation items according to the evaluation criteria (tripartite theory of glossemic and functional equivalence) established in Chapter 3 (see Chapter 3 section 3.2.2). The present chapter has been structured as follows. The first section (section 4.2) begins by presenting an analysis of vocabulary translation in textbooks used in the TCFL teaching field. The data gathered from the questionnaire surveys is set out and examined. This is followed by a detailed illustration of the assessment test in section 4.3. All the identified non-equivalent translation problems were extracted from the corpus and were subsequently given to 150 third year undergraduate students majoring in English. Their views on the non-equivalent translation items were taken into consideration for confirming the reliability of the identified non-equivalent translation problems. A detailed illustration of these non-equivalent translation problems will be presented in Chapter 5, followed by a comparative analysis of non-equivalent translations between the preliminary level/intermediate level and the content word class/function word classes in Chapter 6; suggestions for improvements to resolve these problems will also be made. The current chapter ends with a summary of the key findings of the questionnaire survey data and the assessment test data. The following section (4.2.1) presents an overview of vocabulary translation in the TCFL textbooks used in the Chinese teaching field.

4.2 Analysis of the Questionnaire Survey

4.2.1 Overview of Vocabulary Translation in TCFL Textbooks

For foreign language learners, target language textbooks are the main material for their ongoing learning in and after class. The content of textbooks strongly influences the comprehension of learners, especially learners at a primary level (Huang, 2009:2). In order to improve the comprehension of learners of Chinese, most current Chinese textbooks provide translations alongside the original Chinese words. Nowadays there are various languages provided for vocabulary translation and lexical annotations, such as English, French, German, Korean, Japanese, etc. The translations and annotations in English have undoubtedly assisted the learning of Chinese for students from English-speaking countries (Huang, 2009; Yang, 2012). However, as translation issues always exist between two completely different languages and cultures, whether each individual translation from the vocabulary lists of TCFL textbooks properly conveys the meaning of the original Chinese word, is still questionable. Thus, an investigation into translation issues and problems within TCFL textbooks has been carried out as a basis for further exploration.

The following sections illustrate the data gathered from the questionnaire survey responses.

4.2.2 The Analysis of Questionnaire Survey Data

160 teachers (110 female) participated in the questionnaire survey research. Most of them are Chinese teachers in the TCFL field with years of teaching experience; therefore the respondents had considerable familiarity with the textbooks under analysis, as well as a clear perception of the reliability of vocabulary translation in

these extensively used teaching materials. They were invited to take part in this research in order to share their perspectives regarding the teaching of Chinese and the teaching materials currently used. These were the sections featured in the questionnaire survey:

The first question is a general question about the background of participants.

Q1: Your gender:

Option Question	Option A Male	Option B Female
1	50	110

There were 160 Chinese teachers taking part in the questionnaire survey exercise. According to the Chinese Education Statistic Yearbook, in the past two decades, the proportion of female teachers and male teachers in higher education has been at a ratio of 7:3 and the number of female teachers has increased year after year (retrieved from <http://www.moe.gov.cn/>). Thus, the majority of participants of the study were female teachers. The data identified in the present study therefore essentially matches the data regarding teacher gender in China as a whole, so any risk of disproportion is minimized.

Q2: How long have you been a Chinese teacher?

Option Question	Option A Less than 5 years	Option B 6 to 10 years	Option C 11 to 15 years	Option D More than 16 years
2	10%	29%	34%	27%

These Chinese teachers all have a professional educational background in both Chinese and English. A clear majority of the participants – 61% – have already

had a TCFL career for 11 years or more. The rest of these participants have less experience, working as Chinese teachers from 1 to 10 years. These experienced and qualified Chinese teachers have been equipped with either professional, academic background knowledge or rich, practical and extensive teaching experience. Their responses are therefore authoritative, providing the necessary validity to support the argumentation of the study.

Q3: What types of class do you teach? (tick each option that applies)

Option Question	Option A Speaking	Option B Reading	Option C Listening	Option D Writing	Option E Comprehensive course (all of the above)
3	75%	56%	41%	85%	100%

This question allows participants to choose more than one answer that may apply. Listening, speaking, reading, and writing are considered to be the four basic and traditional language learning skills and they form the basis for language courses in China (Zhu and Zhao, 2011: 47). These courses have been established to train learners of Chinese in key language and communicative skills in a systematic way. Such courses are key elements of the curriculum in the TCFL field. The comprehensive course has been an official course within the TCFL teaching field ever since the 1980s. In the Chinese teaching field, specific courses (the listening course, speaking course, reading course and writing course for different levels) have been set up for specific teaching and learning purposes. Besides such specific training activities, comprehensive courses which focus on the four language learning skills as a whole have blossomed in recent years and have become the main courses in the TCFL field at present. In comprehensive courses, training in all these four language learning skills is provided. However, specific courses are still provided together with comprehensive courses for enhancing

specific aspects of a learner's academic performance. For the present study, all the Chinese teachers chose the last option "Comprehensive courses" as none of them was solely teaching a single type of class. Besides the comprehensive course, most Chinese teachers were also teaching writing and speaking courses. 56% of the participants were also teaching reading courses. Teachers who teach individual listening courses constituted the smallest percentage in the present study. The selected materials are textbooks for comprehensive courses. The responses to the previous question mainly confirm that all the participants have experienced comprehensive course teaching and are familiar with TCFL textbooks for comprehensive courses. Therefore their responses to the other questions put to them – including the translation of vocabulary items – are authoritative and reliable for the purposes of this study and its aims.

Q4: At what level do you teach now?

Option Question	Option A Preliminary level	Option B Intermediate level	Option C Advanced level
4	54%	29%	17%

According to occupational qualification requirements, all Chinese teachers embarking on a TCFL career should start their careers at the preliminary level and then move on to higher levels (intermediate level and advanced level). All the participants are qualified Chinese teachers working from the preliminary level to the advanced level. Everyone teaching at intermediate and advanced level has also taught at lower levels. The question was therefore designed to ascertain the language levels that they currently teach. The results show that 54% of the participants teach preliminary level students, around 29% teach intermediate level and the rest are advanced level teachers at the moment. Chinese universities and Confucius Institutes are two providers of language classes at different levels for adult learners. The preliminary and intermediate level classes offer basic Chinese

communicative skills for the general purpose of learning Chinese. Usually the learning outcomes of most learners of Chinese, especially in terms of vocabulary learning, are achieved at the preliminary and intermediate levels (Xing, 2011). However, advanced level is the most difficult and challenging learning stage. Advanced level classes are provided for learners with an adequate background knowledge of Chinese (listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills) or who have a specific reason for acquiring enhanced skills (e.g. migration to China for personal or professional motives, business or trade involvement, job applications). For this study, however, only preliminary and intermediate level TCFL textbooks have been chosen, as the advanced level materials no longer provide translations for learners. The main duties of the 17% of advanced level teachers who completed the questionnaire survey are indeed focused on delivering advanced language classes, but since they have also previously given classes to lower level learners, their input is therefore relevant to this study.

Q5: Which of the following TCFL textbooks do you use now or have you used in the past? (tick each option that applies)

Option Question	Option A Erya Chinese	Option B Developing Chinese	Option C An Easy Approach to Chinese	Option D Discover China	Option E Others please specify
5	70%	66%	15%	17%	59%

Four series of TCFL textbooks were selected for the study. These series of books are all widely used materials for Chinese teaching classes and Chinese training agencies. *Erya Chinese* textbooks are used by most of the participants (70%), followed by *Developing Chinese* (66%). *An Easy Approach to Chinese* (15%) is less popular than the above two series of TCFL textbooks as it is also commonly used by certain specialized training institutes or in language classes for specific

purposes. There is a range of specialized topics in *An Easy Approach to Chinese*, such as classroom conversations, business/trade conversations, and experiences while travelling. Compared with the other three series of TCFL textbooks which are compiled and published in mainland China, *Discover China* (17%) is compiled and published by the Macmillan Press in the UK. 17.5% of the participants have used *Discover China*, and most of them are Chinese teachers in the UK; this series of books is predominantly used in the UK, and is recommended and used by the British Chinese Language Teaching Society (BCLTS) and the Universities' China Committee in London (UCCL). The respondents have also used other TCFL textbooks, but the present study only takes the above four series of TCFL textbooks into consideration. All the data has been obtained from the above four series of TCFL textbooks (*Erya Chinese, Developing Chinese, An Easy Approach to Chinese, and Discover China*).

Q6: How do you manage your vocabulary teaching time in your class? (assuming 45 minutes for a standard class)

Option	Option A	Option B	Option C	Option D	Option E
Question	Less than 10 minutes	11–15 minutes	16–20 minutes	21–30 minutes	31 minutes and above
6	84%	16%	0%	0%	0%

This study has taken vocabulary as its main research focus. This question aims at differentiating and emphasizing the specific research object of the study – vocabulary – from other areas of teaching (pronunciation, syntax and discourse). A typical standard comprehensive class at preliminary and intermediate levels is scheduled as follows: phonetic teaching, vocabulary teaching, syntax/grammar teaching, discourse teaching, and discussion. Vocabulary teaching time here refers to the time duration of vocabulary knowledge teaching. Vocabulary reinforcement teaching through syntax/grammar teaching and text teaching is not included in

this question. As seen in the table above, all the participants limit their vocabulary teaching time to 15 minutes or less. 84% of the participants dedicate less than 10 minutes to vocabulary teaching and the remaining 16% of participants spent an extra 5 minutes on it. According to TCFL teaching requirements, the vocabulary teaching time allocated by a teacher to each standard comprehensive class should be less than 40% of the total teaching time (Xing, 2011: 30). Normally one Chinese teaching period contains two standard classes. The first class is for learning and practicing new words, and the second class is for applying the students' new vocabulary learning to other training skills. As each standard class in China takes 45 minutes, it means that teachers are advised to fit their vocabulary teaching into a 15 - 20 minute timeframe. The results of the questionnaire survey are therefore in accordance with the requirements of the TCFL teaching outline.

Q7: Do you think it is necessary to give English translations in the vocabulary lists of TCFL textbooks?

Option Question	Option A Very necessary	Option B Necessary	Option C Less necessary	Option D Not necessary at all
7	70%	30%	0%	0%

This question focuses on clarifying the participants' standpoint towards translation in the TCFL field. Currently there are two main viewpoints concerning the teaching of language in Chinese classes (see table 4.2).

Table 4.2 Language types of Chinese teaching

Types	Explanation
L1 & L2 method	Using both L1 of learners (e.g. English) and L2 (e.g. Chinese) at the primary stages of the L2 learning process (e.g. preliminary level and intermediate level), and then gradually using L2 as the only teaching language.
L2 method	Only using L2 (e.g. Chinese) for classroom teaching from preliminary level to advance level.

The above approaches in table 4.2 regarding the selection of language also apply to TCFL textbook compilation. Whether to provide translations for learners from English speaking countries in TCFL textbooks has led to extensive debates in the Chinese teaching and research field (Yang, 2012). Both types are favoured by many Chinese teachers and scholars, and are widely applied in Chinese textbook compilation and classroom teaching. The present study agrees that providing translation is necessary in TCFL textbooks. The results of the questionnaire survey also show that all the participants were in agreement regarding the importance of English translations in textbooks. All participants considered English translations of Chinese vocabulary to be either very necessary or necessary in TCFL textbooks. Most of the Chinese teachers agreed that it is very helpful to provide English translations for their students. The rest of the participants thought that English translation is necessary, but slightly less important compared with the perspective of the majority of their colleagues. The slight differences regarding "very necessary" and "necessary" reflect that although the participants all agreed that it is important to provide English translations, 30% of them exercise a little more caution towards using English translations as supportive teaching references. Overall, however, the responses from the participants are unambiguous and authoritative, and reflect a shared view with the author of the present study – a perspective which is based on using translation along with Chinese in classroom teaching and textbooks.

Q8: How often do you take English translation of vocabulary into consideration when you prepare your class?

Option	Option A	Option B	Option C	Option D
	Very often	Often	Not often	Not at all
Question				
8	85%	15%	0%	0%

As stated in question 7, most of the participants in the study consider English translation to be very necessary in TCFL textbooks; therefore, the majority of Chinese teachers place a considerable degree of importance on English translation during their preparation time. According to TCFL teaching requirements, using a translation-oriented approach is one of the main vocabulary teaching methods. Thus many teachers with both a Chinese and English educational background can use English translations appropriately for illustrating the meaning of Chinese words and their collocations and usage. Translation will help learners to grasp the exact meaning of the word; however, as stated above, scholars such as Li and Jiang have emphasized that they cannot rely on translation entirely. Teachers are required to regulate the amount of time that they allocate to processes of translation, balancing this with the degree of Chinese input in a class, and they should encourage learners to use Chinese most of time. The enhancement of Chinese language input during classes will help learners to accustom themselves to Chinese more effectively. The clear-cut responses of the participants also indicate that vocabulary translation remains an important part of modern Chinese teaching pedagogies. The importance of the application of translations in the TCFL field is another compelling reason for carrying out this study.

Q9: Do you think it is helpful to give English translations to learners of Chinese?

Option	Option A	Option B	Option C	Option D
Question	Very helpful	Helpful	Slightly helpful	Not helpful
9	69%	26%	5%	0%

Question 9 is very similar to Question 7. Based on the shared recognition of the importance of providing translations in the Chinese teaching field, this question seeks to establish whether the provided translations are useful for learners or not. Most Chinese teaching materials provide different vocabulary translations for language learners, such as English, Japanese, Korean, and French (Huang, 2009: 1). As the target language learners are non - native speakers of Chinese, their knowledge of Chinese speaking, reading, writing and listening is either extremely limited or non-existent. Thus, any notion of a "total immersion" in the foreign language is impractical and almost unworkable, and a range of supportive teaching methods must inevitably be provided, such as providing translations of Chinese words in the learners' own language, using pictures, body language, and multi - media resources (Li and Jiang, 2008: 7). English translations are essential for learners from English speaking countries as they can use their own language to understand the meaning of corresponding Chinese words in the textbook both during classes and after classes when they are studying independently.

Nearly 69% of the participants agreed that English translations are very helpful for students. Learners from English-speaking countries are encouraged to use their knowledge of their first language to explore the meaning of the foreign language. Just over 26% agreed that it is merely helpful for learners to use their knowledge of a primary language to learn a new language. Only 5% of the participants suggested that it is important to balance the influence of the first language and foreign language. This reflects the perspective of certain scholars who have stated that students should treat translation as an aid or tool rather than

relying too much on it. Whether at the preliminary level or intermediate level, it is necessary for teachers to give their students a clear (though very simple) explanation in Chinese to reinforce the input of the Chinese language. Learners are also encouraged to use Chinese as much as possible to enhance the Chinese input. English translations in vocabulary lists are their main method of understanding the meaning of a new word, but learners are encouraged to use Chinese when they want to practice their new knowledge of the words.

Q10: Do you think the English translations in your teaching material are accurate?

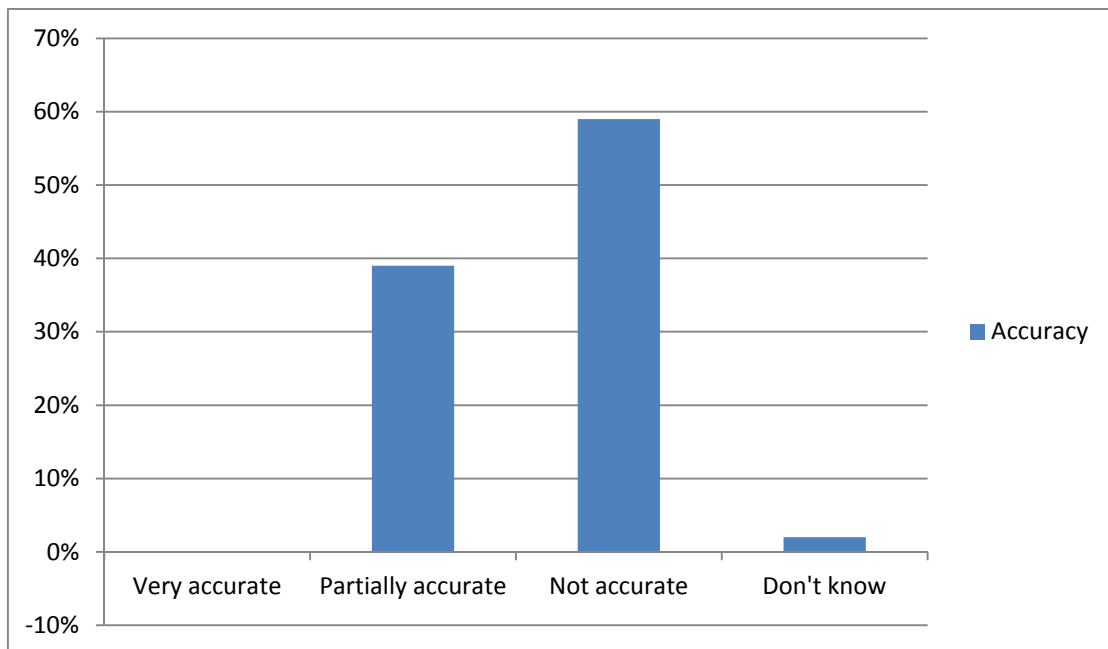


Figure 4.1 Response to accuracy of TCFL textbooks

This question – and the responses to it – is central to another of the research questions in this study, and the participants' responses are clear – cut in terms of expressing the reservations that they have towards the teaching materials that they use.

Before providing a detailed analysis of the question and the participants' responses, an explanation of the options should initially be introduced. The whole questionnaire survey was designed in Chinese (although an English version was

also provided for readers). In Chinese, there are differences between option A, very accurate (非常准确 fēichángzhǔnquè), and option B, partially accurate (部分/比较准确 bùfèn/bǐjiàozhǔnquè). Very (非常 fēicháng) in option A means that the word is accurate to a high degree, whereas "partially" (部分 bùfèn/比较 bǐjiào) in option B refers to a more limited degree. Thus when participants choose option A, it indicates that they fully agree that the translation is accurate with no amendments necessary; the selection of option B indicates that inaccuracies exist in the translation to a greater or lesser extent, but part of the translation can be accepted (with revision necessary to achieve accuracy at a functional level). For option C, "not accurate" (不准确 bùzhǔnquè), "not" is a direct translation of (不 bù), and is used to show a negative possibility. It indicates that the participants disagreed with the given translation due to serious terminological inadequacies or to the inappropriateness of the translation in the given context.

This study explores non – equivalent translation items from the selected materials. As explained in Chapter 2, common translation problems are categorized into semantic meaning, pragmatic meaning and grammatical meaning categories. For example, from a perspective of semantic meaning, as most Chinese words are compound words consisting of two or more single characters, in most cases the meaning of a compound word cannot be fully conveyed by an explanation that only conveys a single part of the compound word. For example, "你" (nǐ) means "you" and "好" (hǎo) means "good", but "你好" (nǐhǎo) is a greeting meaning "hello". A single element of this expression, literally translated into English as "you good", would fail to convey its overall meaning. These problems of translation inaccuracy are commonly found in Chinese – English translation research. As the participants are all qualified Chinese teachers in the Chinese teaching field, they all have an advanced level of Chinese language and extensive cultural background knowledge. Their extensive teaching experience and knowledge enable these participants to make informed judgments in terms of identifying inaccurate translations. Among the 160 participants in this part of the

study, it is very striking and disturbing that none of them considered that the English translations featured in the textbooks conveyed the original meaning of the Chinese words very accurately. Just under 39% of the participants agreed that there was some accuracy within the translations offered. This reflects a key issue that has emerged in contemporary Chinese – English translation research, as translation problems between Chinese and English are proving to be difficult to eliminate. Thus, in a context where a range of cultural, social and historical nuances that are specific to China confer a uniqueness on any given term that is difficult to replicate in English, it is therefore extremely difficult to identify a "very accurate" translation for words. Based on this fact, in most cases the responses from participants hardly suggest much faith in the reliability of vocabulary translation in textbooks. This is attributable to several factors ranging from a lack of cross-cultural collaboration between the writers of these textbooks (many of them are written and edited without input from English natives), to the accepted convention of short, succinct vocabulary definitions – often only one word – in language textbooks, a practice that disadvantages Chinese with its compound terms and nuanced meanings. The majority of the questionnaire survey participants chose the third option as they do not think that the English translations provided can accurately explain each original Chinese word. Only 2.5% of the participants admitted that they had no idea about potential translation problems in the textbooks they use. The results suggest that there are clear translation issues that exist in the English translations featured in TCFL textbooks; therefore, it is equally arguable that the problem is not merely going to be limited to the TCFL textbooks examined in this study. The information obtained from the respondents suggests that there are significant weaknesses in the didactic materials that they use. This study attempts to explore and identify with precision the non – equivalent translation problems that emerge from examining the selected materials. The results of the corpus research show that a range of non – equivalent translation problems definitely do exist in the selected materials. The

identified non - equivalent translation problems will be discussed in Chapters 5 and 6.

Q11: Do you think inaccurate English translations affect the comprehension of learners of Chinese during their vocabulary learning process?

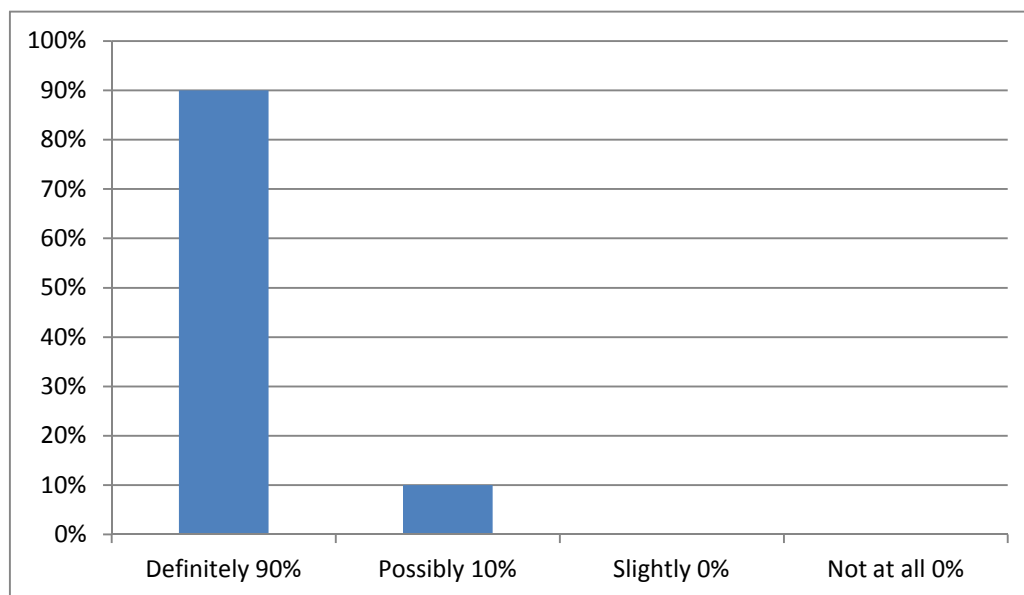


Figure 4.2 Response to the influence of inaccurate translation

Research into learning Chinese as a foreign language is based on the conceptual foundation of language acquisition theories. Vocabulary teaching is a key element of the Chinese language learning process. It can be seen as the foundation of Chinese teaching and learning (Li and Jiang, 2008:162). In the Chinese teaching system, although there is limited time for vocabulary teaching in the duration of each standard class, both teachers and students have traditionally spent a substantial amount of time concentrating on vocabulary teaching and learning, such as doing extra vocabulary exercises and vocabulary tests both during and particularly after classes. In the foreign language learning process, the translation of the learners' first language has been considered as an efficient way to facilitate their learning of a foreign language. Thus, the majority of foreign language learning materials, such as textbooks, use the learners' first language within translations to give them an "easy way into" their foreign language learning

activities. Chinese textbooks for learners from English speaking countries have used standard British English in their translations. As substantial gaps between two completely different languages have always existed, it is hard to find items that are absolutely equivalent in both languages. Thus, achieving the effect of equivalence at a functional level has become an important way of illustrating the meaning of a word for learners. In this study, all the Chinese teachers agreed that inappropriate translations or non - equivalent translations have a significant influence on learners, distorting their comprehension. 90% of participants agreed that the influence of inappropriate English translation will affect the comprehension of the learners. The reason for this originates from the theory of language transfer. Language transfer means that the foreign language learning process has been influenced by first language habits (Jing, 2008: 57). Language transfer can be categorized into positive transfer and negative transfer. Positive transfer refers to a successful process of foreign language learning which is influenced by the first language, while negative transfer is the opposite outcome. Negative transfer means that the neglect or unawareness of differences between the first and foreign languages may lead to misuse and misunderstanding in the foreign language learning process (Li, 2008: 98). In the foreign language acquisition process, a negative transfer of the first language may bring out biased problems that affect foreign language learning (Corder, 1967: 162–169). Behaviourists (such as Skinner) have identified that a person's first language has normally been acquired by a "stimulate–react–reinforce" process. This process emphasizes that the stimulation from external spaces is very important in the L1 acquisition process of children. The same process has also been identified in foreign language acquisition (Zhu and Zhao, 2011: 24). When learning a foreign language, "stimulations" are the learning objects (e.g. vocabulary learning with the aid of translation), "react" refers to the learning outcomes (e.g. the learning outcomes of vocabulary) and "reinforce" requires teachers of foreign language to increase the input of foreign language (e.g. by using Chinese for most of time in class). As stated in the L1 acquisition process, stimulation is an important link in

both L1 and foreign language acquisition activities. Thus, this re-emphasizes the importance of translation quality especially in foreign language learning materials and its influence on the comprehension and learning outcomes of learners.

Both Question 10 and Question 11 are by far the most important in this section, as they emphasize the research value of, and motivation for, the study. The results provide a consensus that non-equivalent translation problems have become a serious issue that affects the learning outcomes of L2 learners. The study has identified 195 non-equivalent translation problems from the selected materials which form a basis for answering the main research question (2) What kinds of translation problems are there within TCFL textbooks at preliminary level and intermediate level? An in-depth analysis of these issues is illustrated in Chapter 5.

Besides answering the 11 questions, some of the participants left comments in the context of questions 10 and 11. These comments attempted to convey further information about the overall attitudes of Chinese teachers towards the translation standards in current TCFL textbooks. 90% of participants who chose option B or C for question 10 and 11 provided either explanations or illustrations of non-equivalent translation examples. The majority of participants stated that inaccuracies exist to a greater or lesser extent within these current TCFL textbooks. They acknowledged that many of the translations conveyed most of the original Chinese meanings, but lacked details regarding the essential usage or the specific applications of the terminology, an issue which may lead to misuse of the terms by learners. The respondents admitted that problems of total inaccuracy are rare, but emphasized that the frequency of non-equivalence problems was still notable. In their answers, many teachers provided non-equivalent translation problems, for example the issues that occur when addressing family members and relatives. In Chinese, there are many different forms of address for presenting different kindred relationships, such as "叔叔" (shūshu), "伯伯" (bóbo), "舅舅"

(jiùjiu), "堂妹" (tángmèi), and "表妹" (biǎomèi). However, in English, "叔叔" (shūshu, younger brother of father), "伯伯" (bóbo, older brother of father), "舅舅" (jiùjiu, younger brother of mother) are all covered by the term "uncle", and "堂妹" (tángmèi, daughter of father's brothers / sisters), "表妹" (biǎomèi, daughter of mother's brothers / sisters) are both referred to as "cousin". The differences between Chinese and English terminology to address relatives may lead to misuse by learners if there is insufficient additional information provided alongside "uncle" and "cousin" to distinguish their specific applications. These examples typify the kinds of inaccuracies in translation that can occur, and indicate that the improvement of translation quality and standards is both crucial and urgent in TCFL development. Most participants also suggested that although it is hard to achieve a very accurate translation outcome between Chinese and English, some solutions (e.g. adding clarificatory information such as "伯伯" (bóbo, uncle; older brother of father) can be used to improve the quality and standard of translation work (see Chapter 6).

The results of the questionnaire surveys show that translation problems are widely considered to exist by teachers. It is not merely a specific phenomenon highlighted in the present study, it is a common problem that recurs in Chinese – English translation activities (Li and Jiang, 2011:164). The following section will briefly illustrate the findings of the corpus research and it is followed by a detailed report of the assessment findings.

4.3 Analysis of the Assessment Test

4.3.1 Overview of Assessment Test of the Study

The emphasis on the pedagogical purpose of vocabulary teaching and vocabulary translation in the Chinese pedagogical context of the textbooks has been confirmed by the empirical evidence within the questionnaire survey data in

section 4.2. Since the results of the questionnaire survey data show that non-equivalent translation problems have become an influential factor affecting Chinese learning activities, a detailed analysis of the identified translation problems in the corpus research has been carried out. Unlike the common learning outcomes of examinations – the grades and performances of language learners – the assessment test within this study is designed to evaluate the findings (the non-equivalent translation items obtained from the corpus research) of the study before detailed analysis of the identified problems takes place. These translation problems have been systematically identified by corpus and translation evaluation research procedures in previous chapters (Chapters 2 and 3) and recur with regularity across the selected textbooks. The empirical evidence of the assessment test shows that the participants all agree that some serious translation problems affect these commonly used TCFL textbooks, and this also confirms that the reasons for conducting this study are compelling.

150 third year undergraduates with an excellent educational background in both the Chinese and English languages attended the assessment tests. These bilingual speakers are from the English Department at Chinese universities and have an English major. They have taken English as their second language and were taking/have passed Chinese Test for English majors-4. As non-native Chinese learners are generally not able to use Chinese as fluently as native Chinese speakers, and as it would be very difficult to locate sufficient numbers of them within the UK Higher Education system (or that of other English-speaking countries) they were not considered to be suitable target participants for this assessment test.

The materials for the assessment test were designed using the study's corpus data. As 195 non-equivalent translations of the vocabulary items featured in the textbooks were selected from the corpus data, this data was given to the participants in the assessment test to see whether they agreed with the results. The

assessment materials were divided into preliminary level material and intermediate level material. These two sets of materials were given to the same group of participants as part of the assessment test. The assessment test materials contained all the Chinese words and English translations as well as the original contexts and collocations. The 150 participants in this stage of the research were required to take the assessment individually within a 100 minute timeframe. In line with the information sheet provided before the assessment, all the participants were required to evaluate each Chinese word and its English translation, and express an opinion about the quality of the translation by ticking the appropriate option.

4.3.2 The Analysis of the Assessment Test Data

As explained in Chapter 3 (section 3.2.2), the present study has chosen the Likert Scale for the design of the assessment test paper. The aim of the assessment test was to confirm the identified translation items as non-equivalent, and therefore validate the rationale of the thesis. Such assessment tests are used to assess levels of preference or agreement and response scales should be words or phrases that denote bi-polar extremes, rather than scoring by numbers (Braunsberger, 2009). The design of the assessment test template encompassed an attitudinal range from "agree" to "disagree".

All the assessment papers were collected in their entirety within 100 minutes. According to the rating criteria in Chapter 2, when participants chose "agree" (option A) it meant that the translation accurately reflected the content contained in the original, without unwarranted alterations, omissions or additions and that the participants agreed that the translation conveyed the original meaning of the Chinese word. When participants chose "partially agree" (option B), it meant that the translations contained some accuracy but contained certain unwarranted deviations from the term's original meaning. These problems might include

inaccurate renditions, unnecessary changes in meaning, omissions, additions, or meanings outside the context provided. The option of "disagree" (option C) shows that there is a complete unawareness/ignorance of special terminology and/or insufficient knowledge of specialized content, and that the translation contains serious/frequent terminological problems. "Don't know" (option D) was provided for participants who were unable to judge or who did not want to answer given questions.

According to the theoretical framework that was established and explained in Chapter 2 (see section 2.5), the selected translation items were evaluated from a functional equivalence perspective with relation to their semantic meaning, pragmatic meaning and grammatical meaning. After the evaluation project, 195 translation problems were identified and selected for participants to assess. It is important to clarify that the assessment category "partially agree" has been placed together with "disagree", as both of them show that the translations are not complete and contain non - equivalent items, either unwarranted deviations, terminological problems in meaning, or other issues. Thus, when participants chose "partially agree" and "disagree", it can be argued that they were not in agreement with the current translation, that this translation was deficient in some way, and that such translations can be categorized as featuring problems of non - equivalence.

The analysis of the assessment test has been structured according to the different parts of speech of the original Chinese words. The Chinese words and translations in the assessment test are the original versions shown in the textbooks. These translations were considered as non - equivalent translation items which were identified during the corpus data analysis. These non - equivalent translation items were provided to participants to see whether they agreed that there was an issue compromising the translation quality. The following sections will illustrate

the assessment test results of the preliminary level and the intermediate level through specific parts of speech (a full list of responses can be found in Appendix 3).

There were a total of 195 items at the preliminary level and intermediate level. Some problems occurred more than once. These recurring problems have also been listed together with other problems.

The analysis has been structured by the part of speech of the original Chinese words. For example, "verbs" means that in this category, all of the identified Chinese verbs have been listed.

Table 4.3 Overview of non - equivalence translation problems

Part of Speech	Preliminary level	Intermediate level
Verb	34	20
Noun	19	16
Adverb	10	9
Adjective	4	4
Measure word	29	7
Pronoun	2	4
Numeral	3	2
Particle	5	3
Preposition	6	1
Conjunction	2	3
Idiom / Sentence pattern	4	6
Interjection	1	1
Total	119	76

Verbs

There were 34 verbs at the preliminary level and 20 verbs at the intermediate level of the assessment test.

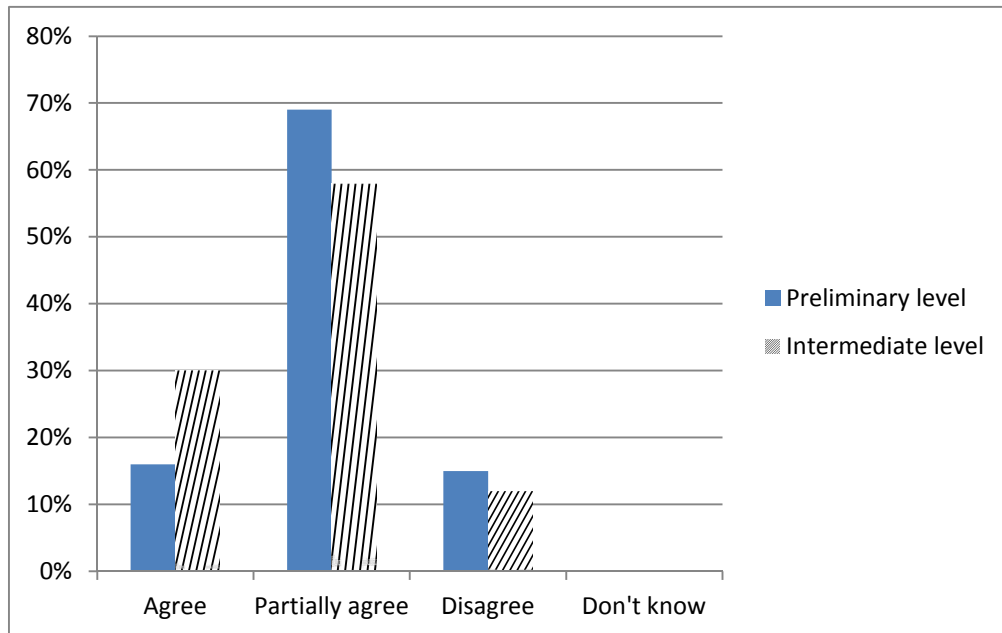


Figure 4. 3. Responses to verbs at both levels

With regard to the preliminary level, as shown in figure 4.3, as far as verbs are concerned, 16% of participants chose option A to show that the given translation was essentially acceptable; nearly 69% of the participants, a clear majority, preferred option B which shows that the respondents only partially agreed that the translations were appropriate; a minority of respondents categorized the remaining verb translations as option C (around 16% of the total), therefore disagreeing with them. The results show that just over 84% of the total participants considered that the given translations were not accurate enough in the given contexts. Two words, "开" kāi translated as "drive (a car); open; prescribe", and "去世" qùshì translated as "die; pass away" (see Appendix 3), attracted a notably different reaction from respondents, with none of them choosing option A to agree with the suggested translation. This means that nobody agreed that the translations of "开" kāi and "去世" qùshì were perfectly acceptable in the given contexts. These two words,

according to the report (see Appendix 3), attracted a high number of preferences for option B. As more than one translation was provided for both of these words, the results were probably caused by the inappropriateness of one or more of the translations in the given contexts.

At the intermediate level, option B was also the choice preferred by a majority of the respondents. As was the case with the entries studied in the context of the preliminary level, there was a clear reluctance on the part of participants to approve the quality of the translations by using option A (30%). Option C at the intermediate level attracted a lower number of participants compared with the preliminary level.

An overall macro-level interpretation of the results for this category encompassing both the preliminary level and intermediate level indicates that the majority of participants considered that the translations were only partially acceptable. It further indicates that frequent terminological problems (e.g. unnecessary changes in meaning, omissions, or additions, etc) occurred in the verb category. This is an emphatic consensus that underlines that the respondents agreed that the selected translation problems were indeed non - equivalent translation problems in the vocabulary lists and that more accurate information and explanations were needed.

Nouns

There were 19 nouns at the preliminary level and 16 nouns at the intermediate level of the assessment.

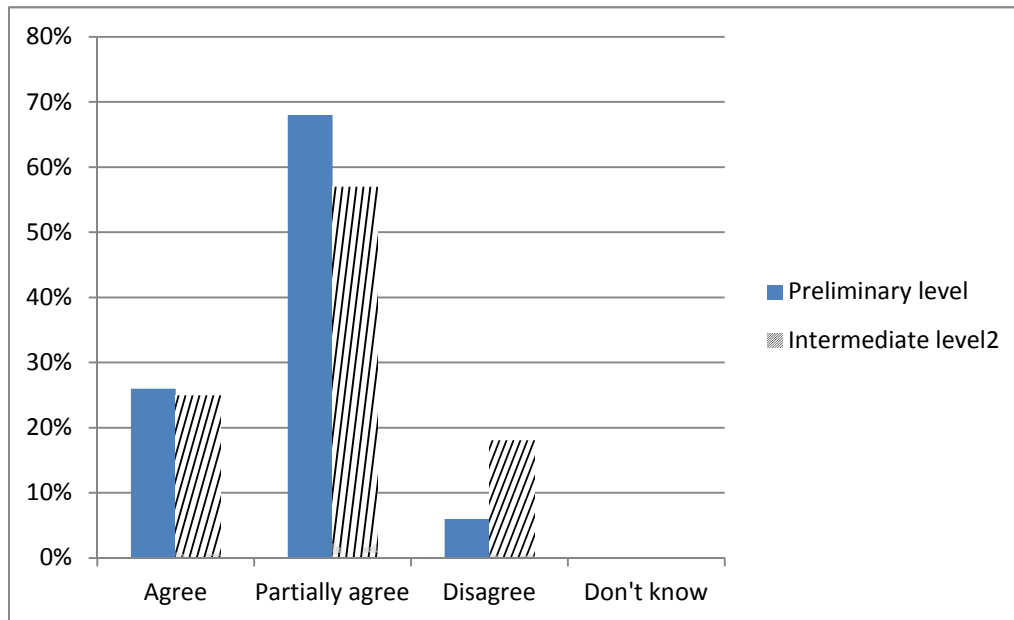


Figure 4.4 Responses to nouns at both levels

As regards the preliminary level, the results show that a majority of respondents selected option B (68%), followed by 26% of respondents favouring option A, and 6% choosing option C. Only one item, "特快专递" (tèkuàizhuāndì, EMS), received a majority of option A preferences (66% of the respondents chose option A for that question). Similarly, only one item, "快递" (kuàidì, EMS), attracted a majority of option C preferences, although this was an overwhelming indication of disagreement with the translation (83% of the respondents chose option C for that question).

The results at the intermediate level were close to those at the preliminary level. Option B still attracted a large group of respondents (57%), followed by option A (25%). There were more participants (18%) who indicated option C at the intermediate level than those at the preliminary level (6%). No individual entry

attracted a consensus of responses in favour of option A, a result which again implies a lack of confidence on the part of the respondents with regard to the translations of these items. Even a specific cross-cultural term such as "微博" (wēibó, microblog), attracted 48% of preferences for option A, and fell short of a majority of responses fully approving the translation. Option B was again the preferred majority option, but option C – outright disagreement with the translation provided – emerged as a key issue for 2 of the 16 entries. "鬼" (guǐ, ghost) and "家" (jiā, home – measure word for business establishments) both elicited disagreement from over half of the participants, and the inference is that the cultural nuances of the Chinese terms were not adequately conveyed by the rather prosaic attempts to convey them in English.

Compared with the preceding category (verbs), there was also a larger majority of respondents who tended to select option B in the context of nouns, partially agreeing with the proposed translations, but not feeling that they could fully endorse them. The overall interpretation of the nouns at both the preliminary level and intermediate level continues to indicate that the majority of participants felt that the selected terms constituted non-equivalent translation problems and the translations of the terms were only partially acceptable.

Adverbs

There were 10 adverbs at the preliminary level and 9 adverbs at the intermediate level of the assessment test.

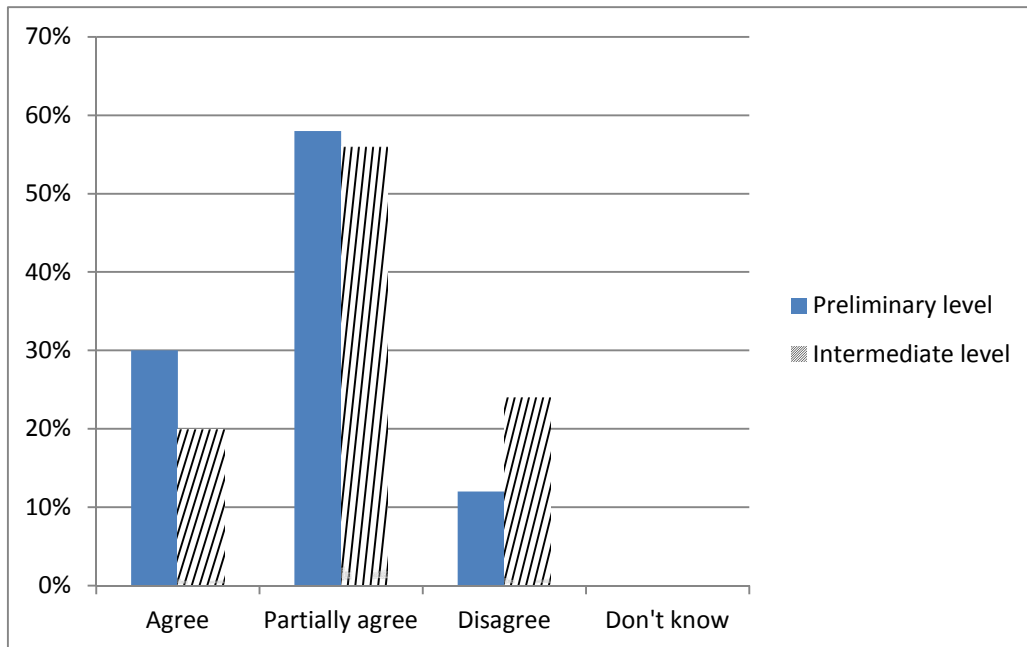


Figure 4.5 Responses to adverbs at both levels

As regards the preliminary level, in the adverb category, again, most of the participants chose option B "partially agree" as their answers for 58% of the terms in the category, reiterating the pattern established in the context of verbs and nouns. The only deviation from this pattern was for the term "还是" (still, get) which attracted an overwhelming majority of option C responses (80%) (see Appendix 3). According to an analysis of the selected translation problem, "get" was a wrong translation of "还是" (háishì). Thus the high level of disagreement here mainly concerns a problem of incorrectness. Although part of the translation – "still" – was judged to be acceptable, the majority of participants rejected "get". As occurred with the previous "verbs" category, no individual translation attracted a majority of option A preferences, which is again notable in terms of signaling the extent of the current problem of non-equivalent translations in mainstream TCFL textbooks.

As regards the intermediate level, the adverb category replicated the pattern of the preceding categories of verbs and nouns, with no entry even coming close to attaining a majority of option A responses. Compared with adverbs in preliminary level, besides the majority of option B responses, option C (24%) attracted more responses than option A (20%). One word "恐怕" (kǒngpà, for fear of) received a majority of responses for option C (53%), meaning that there was disagreement with regard to the term's translation in the given context. It is a result that reflects the extent of disapproval expressed towards to the vocabulary item at the preliminary level that also received a majority of option C preferences. According to an analysis of the translation problem in this case, the given translation "for fear of" was potentially a valid translation of "恐怕" (kǒngpà), but it was inappropriate in the given context.

In summary, the problems within the adverb category at both the preliminary level and intermediate level were consistent with those that emerged in the previous verb and noun categories, the translations again attracting a majority of responses for option B. This result also indicates that most participants only partially accepted the given translation and continued to maintain that improvements were required in the standard and accuracy of translation.

Adjectives

There were 4 adjectives at the preliminary level and 4 adjectives at the intermediate level of the assessment.

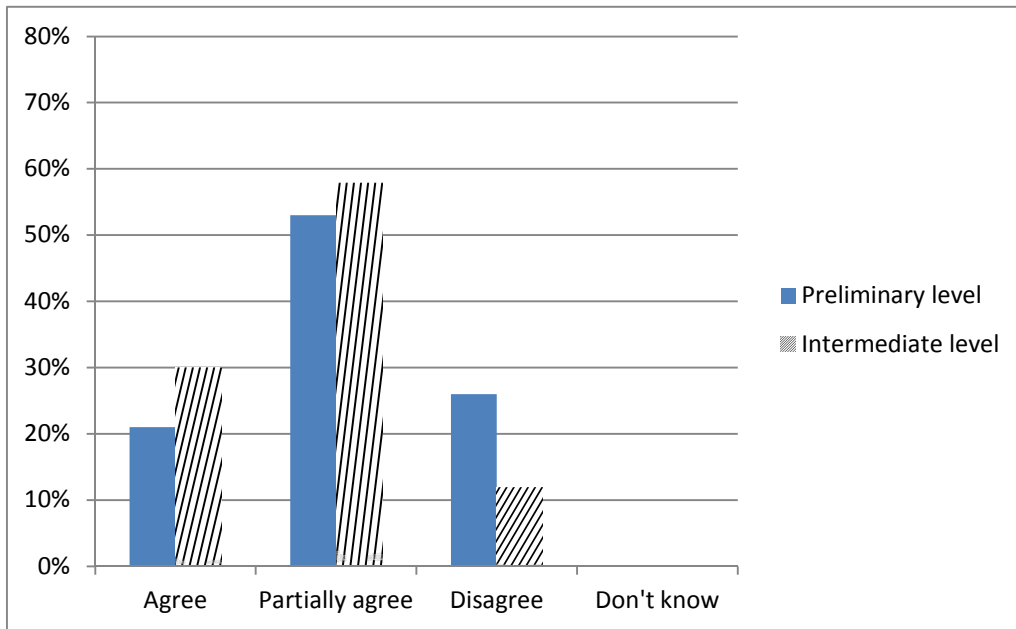


Figure 4.6 Responses to adjectives at both levels

At the preliminary level, a majority of the respondents considered the translations in this category to be partially acceptable (53% in favour of option B), followed by 25% preferring option C and 21% selecting option A. The adjective category is different from the verb, noun, and adverb categories of the preliminary level, as option C was ranked the 2nd most favoured option. One word, "花" (huā, flowery), was considered to have been translated inadequately by a clear majority of respondents, with 55% choosing option C to show their disagreement with the translation in the given context. Again, there was a total absence of a majority of option A preferences for any translation.

The results for this category of intermediate level terms were distinctive as they showed a slight shift towards option A. The average of option A responses was higher than that at the preliminary level. Option B continued to be preferred by

the majority of respondents for all of the entries in this category (58%). Although there was a lower average of participants expressing total disagreement (option C) at the intermediate level, the clear preference for option B – partial agreement with the translation – shows that the majority of participants only partly accepted most translations as they were still lacking the full sense of the original Chinese terms.

In summary, the given translations of adjectives at both the preliminary level and intermediate level attracted a majority of responses where there was at least some level of disagreement with the translations presented in the textbooks. This reflects the emerging pattern of response discerned in previous categories such as "adverbs".

Measure Words

There were 29 measure words at the preliminary level and 7 measure words at the intermediate level of the assessment.

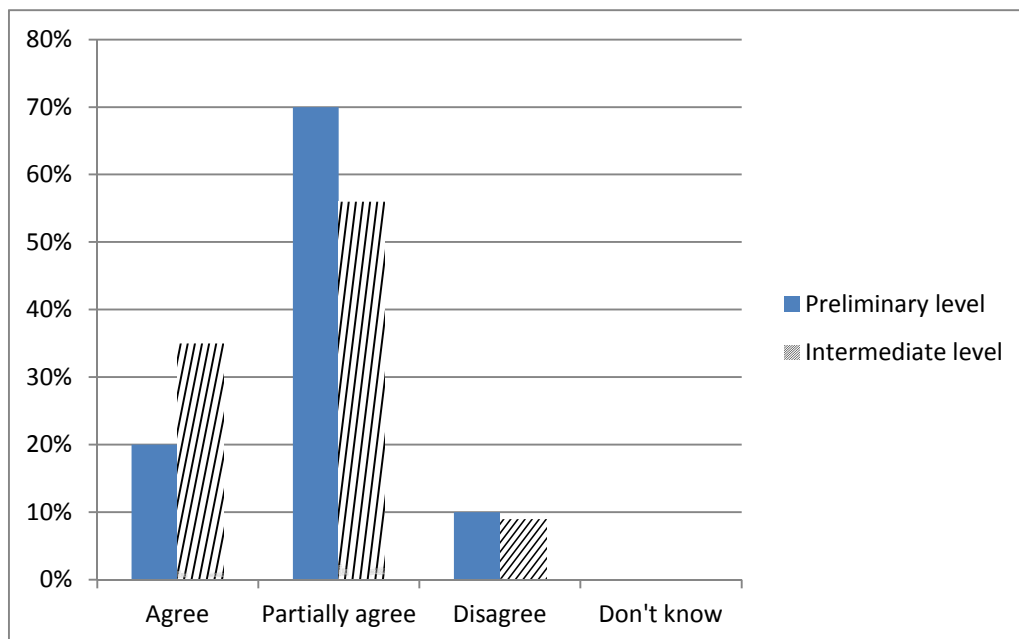


Figure 4.7 Responses to measure words at both levels

Measure words in Chinese are used to illustrate the quantity of people, objects or actions (Chen, 1979). Chinese measure word learning is always considered to be a difficult task for the complexity and versatility of such terms, as such terms are not as well defined in their application as in English (e.g. five loaves of bread, three flocks of sparrows) but are applicable to a whole range of very different objects depending on the objects' shape and qualities (Wang, 2011: 2).

Conspicuous non - equivalent translation problems at the preliminary level were found in the verb category, the noun category and also this measure word category. 70% of respondents showed their preference for option B, namely "partially" agreeing with the translations for measure words. The number of responses for option A is higher than option C in the measure word category. But one term, "张" (zhāng), attracted a majority of preferences (54%) for option C, "disagree". It was considered to be accompanied by an unacceptable translation with serious translation or terminological problems.

The results at the intermediate level were similar to those at the preliminary level, but option A had a slightly higher average of preferences. Once again, option B was the most favoured preference with 100% of the terms in the category attaining an option B majority. A solid minority of the respondents recognized – through selecting option A – that the essence of the original Chinese term had been preserved in translation. However, none of these translations was convincing enough to attract a majority consensus.

Overall, the high rate of partial agreement at both preliminary level and intermediate level again shows that most of the respondents considered the given translations to have conveyed part of the meaning of the original Chinese words, but without achieving fully functional equivalence.

Pronouns

There were 2 pronouns at the preliminary level and 4 pronouns at the intermediate level of the assessment test.

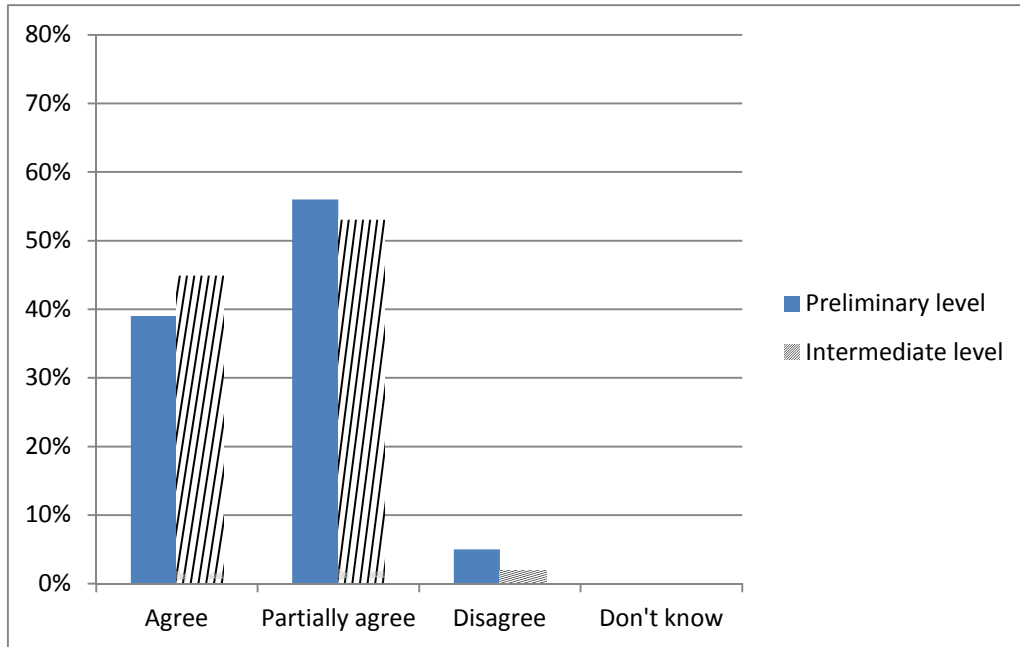


Figure 4.8 Responses to pronouns at both levels

The results in the pronoun category at the preliminary level were slightly different from the previous categories because the average of option A preferences (39%) was approximately 8 times that of option C (5%). Option B in this category was again approved by a majority of the participants. These translations were considered to be partially acceptable, but more detailed information or explanations needed to be added to improve the accuracy of the translation in application. Although the use of relatively clear-cut translations in English to convey unambiguous concepts such as "这儿" (zhèr, here) and "那儿" (nàr, there) attracted a greater proportion of option A selections compared with other categories such as particles, the fact that option A again remained a minority choice indicates that the respondents did not consider the cultural and linguistic differences between English and Chinese to have been effectively bridged.

The gap between option A and option C was even larger at the intermediate level than that at the preliminary level. This category essentially features a dichotomization of responses between A and B, which is unsurprising given the clarity of the concepts involved. The results showed a far greater balance between options A and B than in other categories, but even then, not a single term gained a majority of option A responses. A small minority of people (ranging from 1 to 6 individuals) persisted in selecting option C, disagreeing with how apparently unambiguous terms such as "西洋" (xīyáng, West) and "一切" (yíqiè, all, every) had been translated in the given contexts.

In summary, although option A in the pronoun category at both the preliminary level and intermediate level attracted the approval of more people than other word classes, option B still dominated the results for each entry. It again shows that over half the respondents opted for either B or C and problems of non-equivalence (or a perception of such problems) affect this category too.

Numerals

There were 3 numerals at the preliminary level of the assessment and 2 items at the intermediate level.

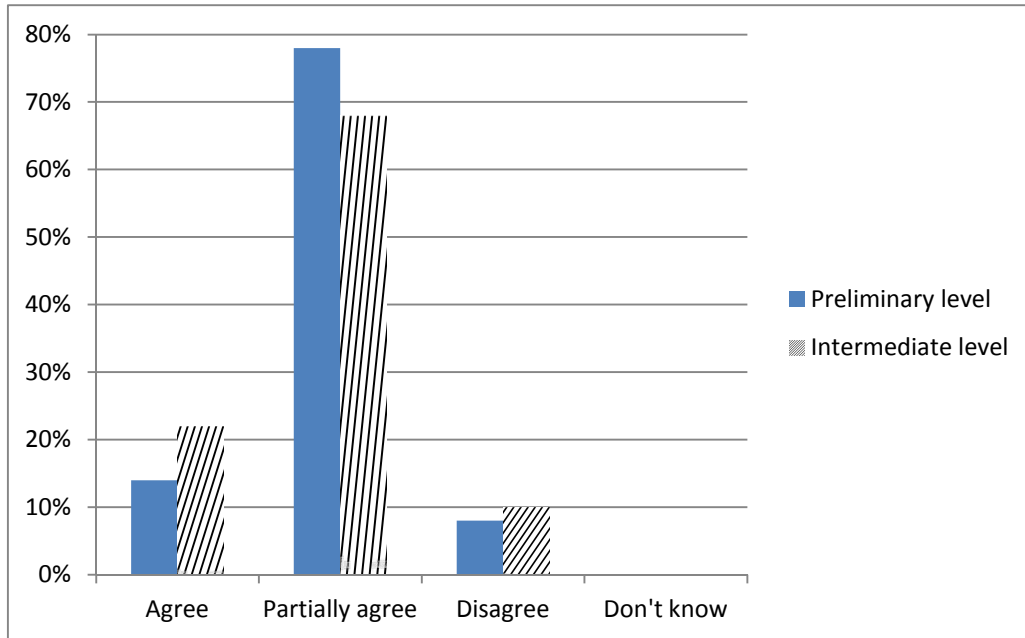


Figure 4.9 Responses to numerals at both levels

The gap between option A and option C in the numeral word category at both the preliminary level and intermediate level was reduced again. Option B preferences were consistent with the results from previous categories and dominated the results of the numeral word category. 100% of these terms attracted a majority of option B preferences from respondents, and in all cases this was an overwhelming majority, the respondents partially agreeing that the translations of the words in the numeral word category were appropriate.

The situation at the intermediate level was quite similar to that at the preliminary level. In this category, although the number of preferences for option A increased, option B again attracted a majority of preferences from respondents. The results continue to show that the given translations were partially accepted by the majority of participants and more precise and detailed explanations were required to avoid any misuse or misunderstanding.

The overall situation again implies that the given translations in the textbooks were only partially accepted by the respondents. The strong preference for the "partially agree" option by the respondents is a call for more specific information or explanations to improve translation accuracy and achieve a result of functional equivalence.

Particles

There were 5 particles in the assessment test regarding the preliminary level and 3 relevant to the intermediate level.

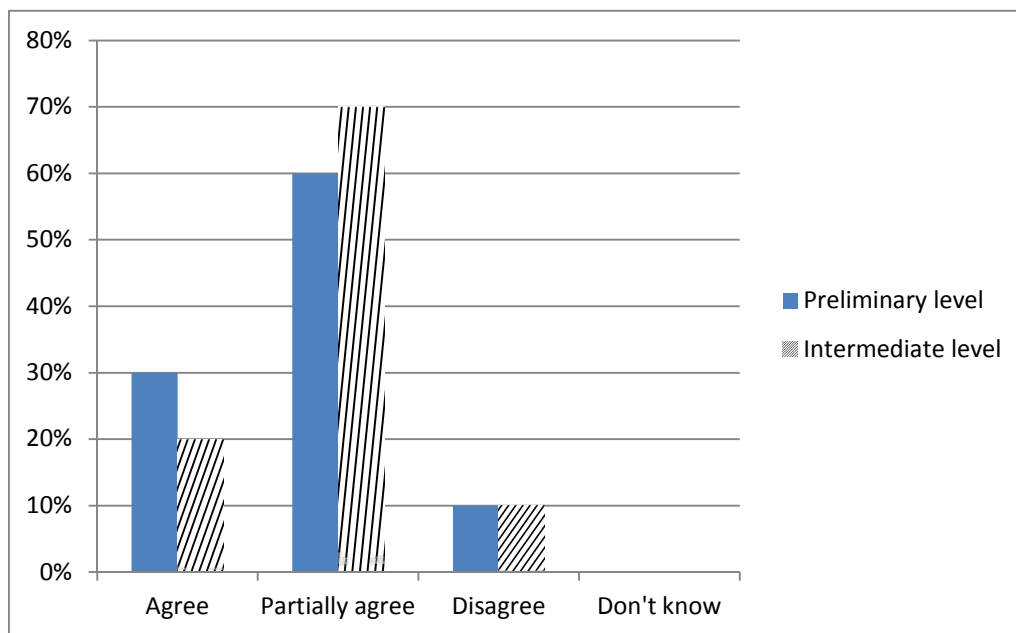


Figure 4.10 Responses to particles at both levels

Each entry attracted a high average of option B preferences, since a clear majority of respondents categorized every particle translation as partly accurate. These results show that the given translations again fell short of the standards of equivalence that the respondents clearly hoped for.

The problems at the intermediate level were comparable to those at the

preliminary level. Option B was again selected by a majority of respondents (a greater percentage than that at the preliminary level), which continues to demonstrate that the given translations in the context were only partially accepted. The notable preference for "partially agree" evidently shows that the translations provided in the given context did not meet the respondents' expectations in terms of accuracy, and that more accurate information was needed to achieve a result of functional equivalence.

In summary, the preference for option B at both the preliminary level and intermediate level were consistent with the results that occurred in the previous categories of content words, followed – at a considerable distance – by a second preference for option A. Most participants recognized that the provided translations had some validity, but expected more accurate information to achieve the result of functional equivalence.

Prepositions

There were 6 prepositions at the preliminary level and 1 preposition at the intermediate level of the assessment.

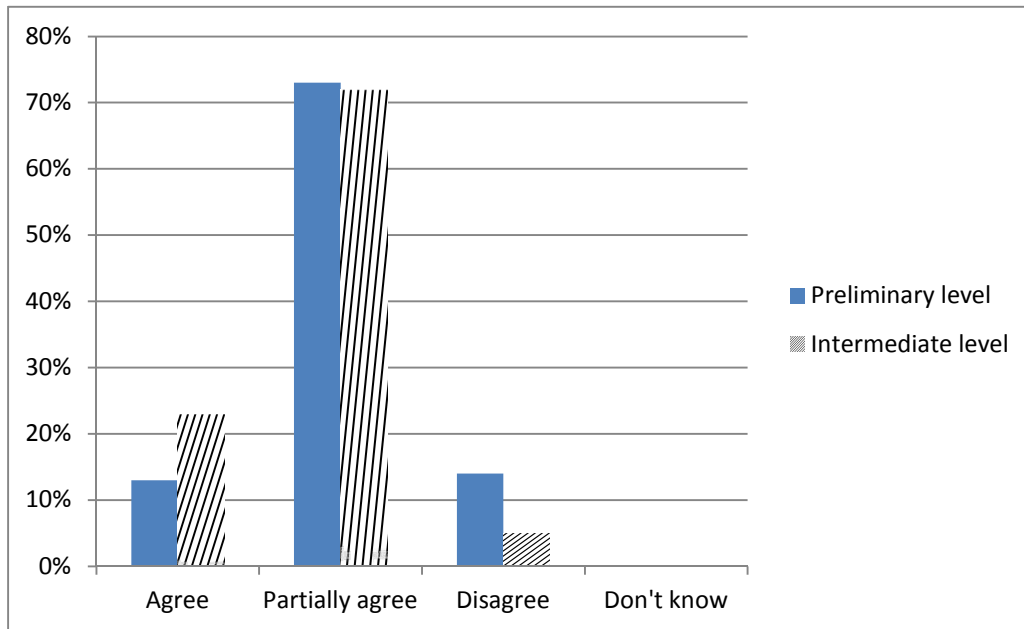


Figure 4.11 Responses to prepositions at both levels

The average number of participants expressing disagreement (14% selecting option C) in this category of the preliminary level was slightly higher than those agreeing with the accuracy of the translations (13% choosing option A). But once again, option B "partially agree" was chosen by a clear majority of participants for every word entry in this category. It shows that most of the participants were partially satisfied with these translations, but that more detailed and accurate information should have been added to avoid potential confusion and misunderstanding. It is therefore notable that for each preliminary level entry, at least 73% of the respondents had doubts about the accuracy of the translation – sometimes very strong doubts (see Appendix 3).

Prepositions at the intermediate level also attracted a strong option B consensus (72%), with a clear majority of the respondents only "partially agreeing" that the

translation conveyed the sense of the original. The given translation often featured more than three explanations of the original Chinese characters, but even then, less than a quarter of the respondents felt sufficiently convinced by them to opt for option A.

The overall results in the preposition category of both the preliminary and intermediate levels show that the assessment again brought to light serious reservations about the quality of the translations in this category. An amalgamation of the scores for options B and C is potentially informative in terms of giving a general overview of the limited level of confidence that the respondents had in the translations evaluated in this category.

Conjunctions

There were 2 conjunctions at the preliminary level and 3 conjunctions at the intermediate level of the assessment test.

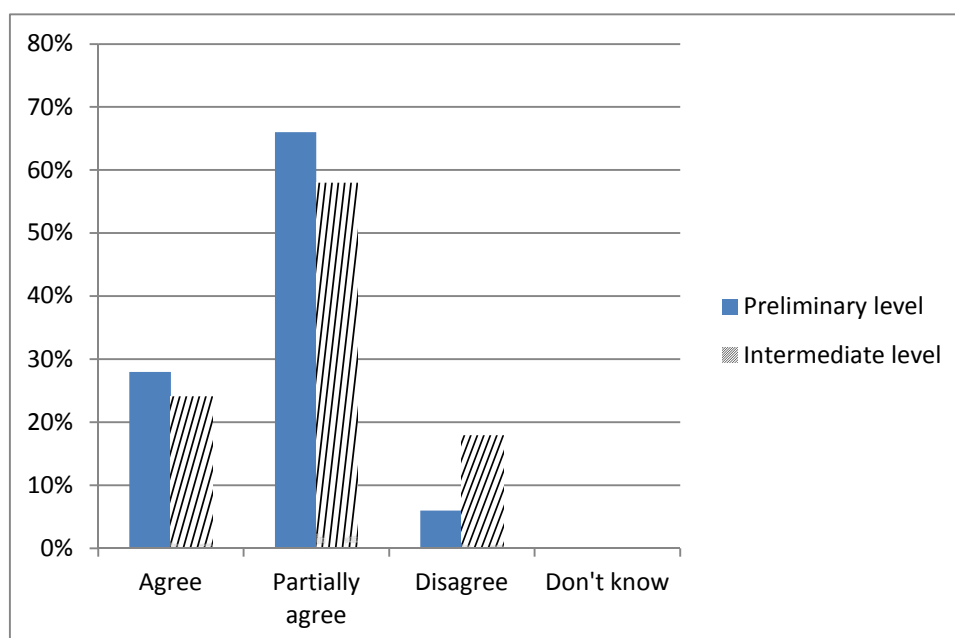


Figure 4.12 Responses to conjunctions at both levels

With regard to the preliminary level, in this category both terms attracted a

majority of option B preferences from respondents who considered the translations of these two words to be partially accurate. Although the number of option A preferences was again much higher than those for option C, a substantial majority of respondents still preferred option B; this showed that more precise and detailed explanations needed to be provided to ensure that learners of Chinese used them correctly.

The results at the intermediate level were relatively similar to those at the preliminary level, but there was an increase in the number of preferences for option C, the "disagreement" option. All 3 conjunctions again attracted a majority of responses for option B, "partially agree". It means that the translations in the given contexts were generally acceptable, but fell somewhat short in terms of unwarranted deviations, inaccurate renditions, changes in meaning, omissions or / and additions. One notable issue was that each of the three conjunctions has also attracted about a quarter of the respondents on disagreement option, which shows that some of them do not agree with the published translation of this character in the given context.

Overall, the respondents' strong preference for option B continues to show that the majority of participants only partially accepted the given translations. More accurate information or detailed explanations were required to achieve the result of functional equivalence.

Interjection

Both preliminary level and intermediate level contain 1 interjection problem.

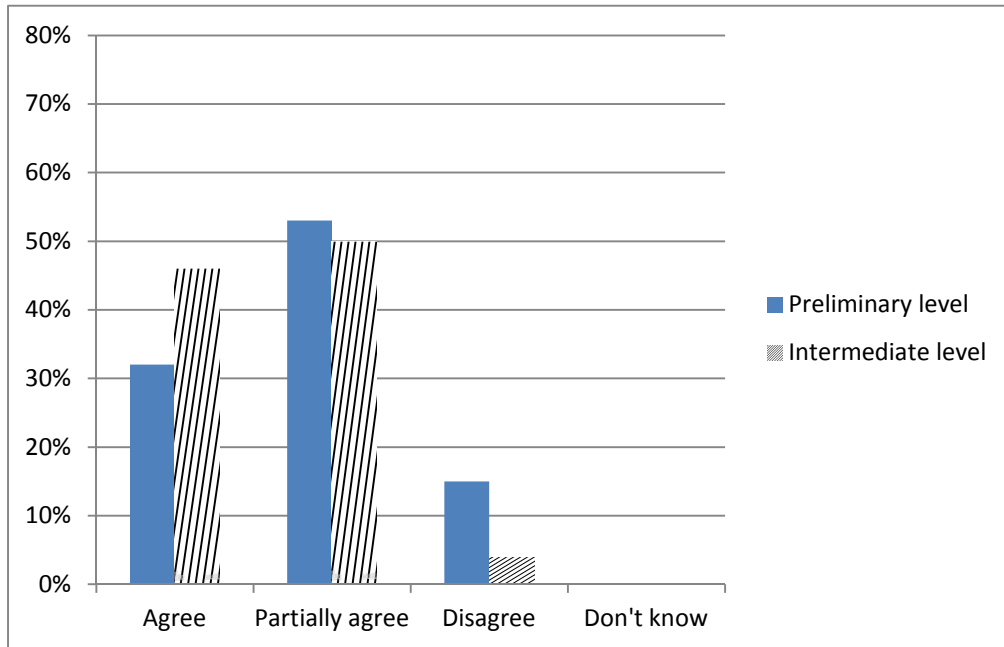


Figure 4.13 Response to interjections at both levels

At both levels, these two interjections were considered as partially acceptable by at least half the participants, 50% of them (and slightly more at the preliminary level) selecting option B. This response shows that the translations of these relatively uncomplicated concepts could have been improved by giving a more detailed explanation of the application of the terms. While it is notable that 32% and 46% of participants believed that the given translation properly conveyed the original Chinese meaning, these results did not exceed the responses for option B. The results in favour of option A and B at the intermediate level are relatively close, while at the preliminary level, there was a more notable margin of difference in favour of option B, the participants evidently agreeing that it was a non-equivalent translation of the original Chinese word. For both preliminary and intermediate levels, 15% of the participants who analysed the preliminary level data and 4% of the participants who responded to the intermediate level data "disagreed" with the given translations. Again, if the responses to option B and C

are merged together, the outcome is that a majority of respondents were dissatisfied to some extent with the translations, and that more detailed explanations or specific information for improving the comprehension of the translation were required.

Idioms and sentence patterns

There is 1 idiom and 3 sentence patterns at the preliminary level and 4 idioms and 2 sentence patterns at the intermediate level of the assessment.

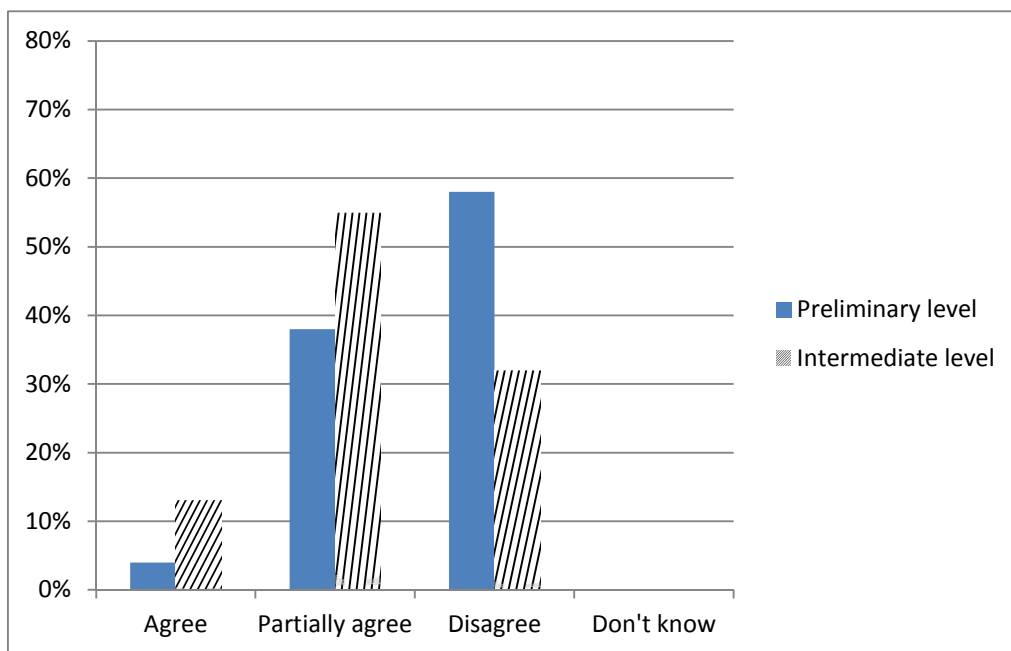


Figure 4.13 Responses to idioms and sentence patterns at both levels

Idiom and sentence pattern translation is always a considerable challenge between languages (Li and Jiang, 2009:167), but even taking this into account, the degree of disagreement with the quality of translation in this category is notable. At the preliminary level, the figures indicate that one of these constructions (25%) attracted a majority of option B preferences from respondents, but three of them (75%) attracted a majority of option C preferences from respondents. An overwhelming majority of participants (86%) chose the "disagree" option for the translation of the idiom "愚公移山" (yúgōngyíshān, Foolish Old Man who

removed the mountain – Spirit of perseverance). Only 14% of the participants even considered that this particular translation was partially acceptable, and nobody selected option A. Therefore, due to the immense differences in terms of grammar and culture between English and Chinese, the transfer of particular sentence types and culturally loaded idioms should be more carefully distinguished to avoid inaccuracy.

The results at the intermediate level show a shift in preferences from option C to option B compared with the preliminary level. As stated earlier, the translation of idiom and sentence pattern – strongly influenced by cultural and grammatical factors – is always a difficult process in Chinese – English translation activities, and the significance behind the lexical meaning of the idiom should be indicated clearly for the benefit of learners. The sentence pattern involved in the grammar system should ideally also be explained with usage to avoid any misuse or confusion. In this category, option B was the most popular choice in 100% of the cases that were evaluated, as occurs in many of the categories analysed in the assessment.

In summary, when the scores for option B and option C are amalgamated for this category at both the preliminary level and intermediate level, it is notable that for each entry, an overwhelming majority of respondents had reservations about the accuracy of the translations – sometimes very serious reservations.

4.4 Summary of the Chapter

In this chapter, the first research question "What are the pedagogical perspectives of teaching practitioners regarding translation as a teaching method in Chinese vocabulary teaching?" has been answered through a detailed analysis of questionnaire survey and assessment test responses.

The research rationale has been established and the originality and importance of this research has been justified. A clear description of the motivation for the study has been supported by empirical evidence provided by the questionnaire survey data. The data gathered from the assessment test supports the selection of the identified non - equivalent translation problems in the existing TCFL textbooks, and these constitute compelling reasons for conducting the research outlined in this study, validating its rationale. The implementation of the questionnaire survey and assessment test has produced data with the aim of developing an overview of the quality of vocabulary translation within TCFL textbooks – the quality of translations as perceived by practitioners who use these books in their daily teaching – and of the translation issues that emerged during this investigation. The results of the questionnaire surveys indicate that vocabulary translation continues to be considered as an essential element in courses using the contemporary TCFL textbooks analysed here, these publications being an influential resource in vocabulary teaching activities. The translation of terms in the books' vocabulary lists should effectively improve the comprehension of non - native learners of Chinese. The participants in the questionnaire survey research also emphasized that translations where equivalence is achieved will invariably help learners to improve their vocabulary learning performance, while inaccurate translations will inevitably lead to insufficient vocabulary learning outcomes.

For data analysis purposes, there were four options in the assessment test paper. According to the rating instruction established in Chapter 3 (section 3.2.2), both option B "partially agree" and C "disagree" mean that the given translations do not meet the requirement of an equivalent standard. The overall results have shown that at the preliminary level and intermediate level, for every different part of speech category such as "nouns" or "verbs", option B "partially agree" attracted the consensus of a majority of participants, followed by either option A and option C. For each entry, most items achieved a higher rate of consensus for option B "partially agree". The consistently high rate of participants selecting option B and

option C therefore implies that most people agreed that the selected translations were unsatisfactory and only partially acceptable, featuring an unwarranted degree of deviation from the source term, or were out of the given context. None of the participants chose option D "don't know" and this indicates that they were comfortable about expressing distinct views on the terminology that they were being asked to evaluate.

In summary, the data analysis has confirmed that translation problems evidently exist in the selected vocabulary translations and this forms a possible answer to the first research question "(1) What are the pedagogical perspectives of teaching practitioners regarding translation as a teaching method in Chinese vocabulary teaching?". Practitioners continue to place considerable emphasis on the importance of dedicating sufficient class time to vocabulary teaching, they acknowledge that it has a key role in the TCFL learning process, but they openly express doubts about the quality of vocabulary translation in many of the textbooks in circulation, and show concern about the effect of substandard translations on their students' progress. The practitioners' perspective regarding translation quality was corroborated by the respondents who completed the assessment test. Aside from the very few items where a majority of respondents chose option A "agree", the rest of the translated items were considered – to a greater or lesser extent – to be non – equivalent translations of key elements of vocabulary from selected TCFL textbooks. The scale of the task facing translators is illustrated by the reservations of respondents even in cases where three or more alternative translations were provided, and particularly so in the context of the negative reaction from respondents to the attempted translations of idiomatic or culturally specific phrases.

The following chapters (5 and 6) will provide detailed illustrations of translation problems at the preliminary/intermediate levels, and within content/function word classes, as well as providing a comparative analysis of differences at the

preliminary/intermediate levels and in the content / function word classes.

Chapter 5 Analysis of the Identified Translation Problems from the Selected TCFL Textbooks

5.1 Introduction

As discussed in the previous chapters, this study aims to explore the translation problems originating from vocabulary presentation at the preliminary and intermediate levels of TCFL textbooks, and to analyse the increasingly evident differences in perception between the authors of these books – in terms of the way they set out and define items of vocabulary – and the teaching practitioners who regularly use these publications. Chapter 4 has addressed the originality of this project and the reasons for carrying out the present research by specifically evaluating the attitude of practitioners towards the translation of vocabulary in TCFL textbooks, and the data suggests a clear reluctance on the part of teachers to endorse fully the translations of given vocabulary items. The purpose of this chapter is to answer my second research question "What kinds of translation problems are there within TCFL textbooks at preliminary level and intermediate level?" It explores current scenarios and techniques in the context of vocabulary teaching and vocabulary translation in the Chinese teaching field, and identifies a range of specific translation problems from the selected TCFL textbooks. This chapter and the following chapter also aim to address the remaining research question: "Are there any differences between preliminary level/intermediate level and content word class/function word class, and how can these findings be applied to improve the quality of vocabulary translation in TCFL textbooks?"

Based on the theoretical framework and translation quality evaluation framework in previous chapters, the translation problems have been divided into the categories of semantic meaning, pragmatic meaning, and grammatical meaning.

Besides the three main categories of translation problems, there are sub-categories within each main category as well as problems regarding parts of speech. As discussed in the methodology chapter, this study aims at analysing translation issues after a process of data analysis and then developing a comparable analysis of differences at the preliminary level and intermediate level as well as in the content word class and the function word category. Translation items chosen from the corpus of the selected materials have been categorized into the content word and the functional word classes. The translation problems have been summarized into three types: translation problems in terms of semantic meaning, translation problems in terms of pragmatic meaning, as well as translation problems in the context of grammatical meaning, the omissions of parts of speech and problems within parts of speech. Suggested translations for the original meaning of the word will also be provided as a resource for further revision and modification in the future. The next section will give a brief introduction to the translation principles and current translation strategies featured in TCFL textbooks.

5.2 Translation Principles and Current Translation Strategies Used in TCFL Textbooks

Current TCFL textbooks provide translations in different languages for various target learners, languages such as English, French, Korean, etc. The aim of vocabulary translation is to help improve a learner's comprehension as well as to offer specialized information of the sort provided in a tutorial (Huang, 2009: 1–7). As a discipline of terminology translation, vocabulary translation also requires a high standard of accuracy. It is a common belief that the selection of meaning should be in strict accordance with a word's context (ibid). But it is also reasonable to provide broader definitions and more explanations if needed. Vocabulary teaching cannot be separated from semantic, grammatical, pragmatic, phonetic, and cultural teaching; therefore by giving a detailed illustration of a

word's usage, its fixed collocations and its characteristics, this process will help to develop the comprehension and communication skills of students (Li and Jiang, 2008: 162).

5.2.1 Translation Principles of Vocabulary in TCFL Textbooks

Vocabulary translation in TCFL textbooks mainly aims at offering assistance for learners of the Chinese language. This kind of assistance not only helps to improve their comprehension of Chinese vocabulary, but offers guidelines for normalizing usage as well. There are three main principles of vocabulary translation in the current TCFL textbooks.

5.2.1.1 The Principle of Conciseness and Accuracy

The principle of conciseness and accuracy is a general principle in translation studies. In the Chinese teaching and learning field, conciseness and accuracy are also highly recommended for vocabulary translation (Xue, 2005: 61; Wang, 2012: 10; Huang, 2015:43). The principle of conciseness and accuracy in TCFL textbooks basically requires a one-to-one relationship between vocabulary translation and original Chinese words in most cases. Unlike dictionaries or vocabulary databases with multiple explanations for one word, vocabulary translation in TCFL textbooks normally provides only one of several explanations which is in accordance with the given context to attain an accurate function. Other explanations of the same word within different contexts do not need to be provided. Another requirement of the principle of conciseness and accuracy is to avoid unnecessary long and complicated explanations (e.g. a long phrase or sentence). Besides essential explanations, and information for certain function words and also for words that do not have a concrete meaning, vocabulary translation should essentially be kept concise and simple. The principle of

conciseness and accuracy is also closely related to the requirement of semantic meaning of this study.

5.2.1.2 The Principle of Context Orientation

The principle of context orientation is mainly relevant to Chinese polysemy. Most Chinese words are compound words with polysemous characteristics. A single Chinese word (both in single and compound forms) cannot be defined without being located within contexts (Xue, 2005: 62; Wang, 2012: 10; Huang, 2015:45). The selection and compilation of vocabulary lists cannot be separated from original texts. Thus the contexts, whether it is a general context or a specific context, should be used for generating translation. This is also closely connected to the requirement of accuracy. As explained in the principle of conciseness and accuracy, the translation should be chosen from several explanations by combining contextual factors. The context-oriented principle is also closely related to the requirement of the thesis's pragmatic equivalence function.

5.2.1.3 The Principle of Guidance

The principle of guidance is a general principle which aims to use vocabulary translation to guide learners to use Chinese words in a correct and proper way (Xue, 2005: 63; Wang, 2012: 11; Huang, 2015:44). Besides the requirement of accurateness, the translation of Chinese vocabulary also emphasizes the applied function of each word to guide learners. Such information regarding the application of vocabulary mainly concerns collocation and grammatical information (e.g. part of speech). For example, this might involve providing adequate information about the application of the word when being perhaps unable to explain the original meaning of the Chinese word by equivalents. The guideline principle is closely related to the thesis's grammatical meaning category.

5.2.2 Current Translation Strategies Used in TCFL Textbooks

There are different translation strategies used in vocabulary translation, such as using synonyms / antonyms, transliteration and grammatical explanation (Ye and Shi, 2009: 3–10; Wang, 2012: 12). The above styles are commonly used in current TCFL textbooks and have been found in this project's data analysis. The translation strategies of the selected materials have been summarized into three main types: word–for–word translation, free translation, and mixed translation strategies. The following paragraphs will give a brief introduction of these styles.

5.2.2.1 Word–For–Word Translation

Word–for–word translation, also known as literal translation, mainly refers to "following the original language structures" in the target language (Ye and Shi, 2009: 5). In vocabulary translation research, it can be simply understood as using synonyms/antonyms in the target language as a translation of the source language. Most Chinese words can be conveyed through equivalent items in English and vice versa. If the target word is a polyseme, more target words (synonyms or antonyms) will be selected to restrict the proper meaning of the original Chinese word. For example, "红色" (hóngsè) – "红" (red) and "书架" (shūjià) bookshelf. Red is a very distinct kind of colour in English, and it is the same as "红色" (hóngsè) in Chinese. "书" (shū) in "书架" (shūjià) refers to books and "架" (jià) in Chinese means "shelf". Thus "bookshelf" perfectly conveys the original meaning of "书架" (shūjià).

5.2.2.2 Free Translation

Free translation is much more flexible than literal translation as it normally "would completely ignore the original language structures" (Ye and Shi, 2009: 5).

In vocabulary translation research, it is commonly used to convey the original meaning of the Chinese word at its phonetic level or its figurative level. For example, "太" (tài) "极" (jí) is translated as "Taichi". It is a translation at a phonetic level. "愚公移山" (yúgōngyíshān) is translated as "a spirit of perseverance". It is a translation at a figurative level. These translation styles are commonly used in idiom translation and cultural translation.

5.2.2.3 Mixed Translation Strategies

Mixed translation strategies are mainly related to grammatical translation. They are commonly used to give explanations for usage, function and fixed collocations (Liu, 2013: 25). For example, "嘛" (ma) is translated as "indicating that something is obvious". The translation has explained "嘛" (ma) at a functional level.

Mixed translation strategies can also be understood as the combination of the other two strategies and are commonly used in functional word translation and sentence pattern translation (Wang, 2012: 12). For example, the same example "愚公移山" (yúgōngyíshān) has its literal translation as "a man called Yugong who removed the mountains". The full translation of "愚公移山" (yúgōngyíshān) is "a man called Yugong who removed the mountains – spirit of perseverance". This translation has explained the original word at both a lexical level and figurative level.

The translation principles and translation strategies in section 5.2.1 and 5.2.2 are commonly featured in the current vocabulary lists of TCFL textbooks. Based on the Translation Evaluation Framework designed before, the evaluation work has been carried out by examining vocabulary translation at its meaning level. Translation strategies are also taken into consideration for illustrating translation problems. Besides translation problems regarding equivalence at a word level, part of speech problems such as omissions and inadequacies have also been

included as translation and explanation problems emerging from the vocabulary lists of TCFL textbooks (Chao, 2009: 21). The next section will provide a detailed analysis of the translation problems within five categories.

5.3 Translation Problems at the Preliminary Level and Intermediate Level of the Selected TCFL Textbooks

This research has taken 12 books as its specific research objects. 6 books have been used to exemplify the preliminary level and 6 books to represent the intermediate level. Based on a process of corpus data analysis, 6599 Chinese words and 14803 English words have been processed and analysed within their specific context through dictionaries and the corpus. 195 Chinese words have been identified from both the preliminary and intermediate levels for further investigation. The translation problems that emerged have been categorized into five types. Table 5.1 shows the translation problem types and their distribution at preliminary and intermediate levels.

Table 5.1 Types of translation problem

Translation problem types	Sub-types	Preliminary	Intermediate
Semantic meaning category	Value of meaning	89	55
	Field of meaning	6	3
Pragmatic meaning Category	Contextual meaning	14	11
Grammatical meaning category	Functional meaning	2	1
	Mistaking / Omission of Part of Speech	6/2	2/4

Among the 119 extracted translation problems at the preliminary level, there are 95 translation problems in semantic meaning (80%), 14 translation problems in pragmatic meaning (12%) and 10 translation problems in grammatical meaning (8%). At the intermediate level, among 76 identified translation problems, there are 58 translation problems in the semantic meaning category (76%), and 11 translation problems and 7 translation problems were found in the pragmatic and grammatical meaning categories, which account for 15% and 9% respectively. Some translation problems also concern parts of speech, such as omissions of parts of speech and mistakes of parts of speech; these are also included as translation problems within the grammatical meaning category at both levels.

Based on the theoretical framework of the tripartite theory of glosseme, after the process of corpus research, the identified translation problems presented different features. Based on the above major types of translation problems (see table 5.1), the semantic meaning has been divided into sub-categories (see table 5.2).

Table 5.2 Sub-categories of translation problems within the semantic meaning category

Semantic meaning category			Preliminary level	Intermediate level
Value of meaning	Lexical meaning	Inadequacy	25	16
		Inappropriateness	36	18
		Incompleteness	7	8
	Connotative meaning	Affective meaning	8	3
		Stylistic meaning	12	9
		Time meaning	0	1
		Register meaning	1	0
Field of meaning			6	3

A notable area where differences arise among different types is that some of the translation problems are relevant to more than one translation problem type (Huang, 2009; Zhang and Zhang, 2012). In this case, such problems will be categorized by their significant characteristics. As the research has been carried out within a UK environment, the study has taken standard British English as the priority when concerning spelling differences between British English and American English. The structure of analysis in this chapter is in accordance with the theoretical framework. Each of the categories within the theoretical framework will be illustrated with a few typical examples of translation problems. At the end of the heading of each example, "P" refers to "preliminary level" and "I" refers to "intermediate level". The following sections will explain these translation problems in detail.

5.3.1 Translation Equivalence Problems at Semantic Level

In line with the format of the designed translation quality evaluation framework – the tripartite theory of glosseme and functional equivalence theoretical frameworks – there are two components in this section. The first criterion is the value of the meaning. It is also known as the combination of lexical meaning and connotative meaning (see section 2.4.3.1) (Zhang and Zhang, 2012). Due to the complexity of Chinese polysemy, the selection of the meaning is important for improving the quality of translation. Thus the judgment has been made from the lexical meaning and the connotative meaning, such as affective meaning, time meaning and stylistic meaning, etc. The second category is the field of meaning. The scope of application and the usage of the word are included within the field of meaning category, and will be illustrated in detail in the following sections.

5.3.1.1 Lexical Meaning

The lexical meaning refers to "the meaning of a word, without paying attention to the way that it is used or to the words that occur with it" (lexical meaning: 2012).

After a process of systematic analysis of vocabulary translation, the identified translation problems within the lexical meaning category have been summarized into inadequacy, inappropriateness and incompleteness based on specific features of each type (see table 5.3).

Table 5.3 Types of problems within the illexical meaning category

Type	Explanation
Inadequacy	The inadequacy in the translation means that the translation is totally different from the lexical meaning of the original Chinese word, e.g. misinterpretation or derivation/omission/addition.
Inappropriateness	The lexical meaning of the translation cannot precisely reflect the meaning of the original Chinese word, e.g. translations are based on synonym and polysemy which contain extra meanings.
Incompleteness	The explanation/information is incomplete (the translation has explained half of meaning of the original Chinese), e.g. translation of idiom, measure word or onomatopoeia.

(1) Inadequacy

The corpus analysis has shown that some of the identified translation problems can be categorized as inadequacies. Compared with the other two identified types of translation problems (inappropriateness and incompleteness) within the lexical meaning category which can be partially accepted, the inadequate type in the study means that the given translations are substantially different from the original Chinese words due to changes, omissions or additions of meaning and cannot be accepted as a suitable translation for the original Chinese word. The inadequacies of translation are common problems found in translation activities (see examples 1 - 10).

Example 1 (Line 1, Lesson 11 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course II*) P

开 动词 open out

花园里，开着许多美丽的花。

Flowers blossom in the garden.

"开" (kāi) in Chinese is commonly used as a verb to illustrate the action of "open". When used with flowers in the given context, the action of "open" can be explained as "blossom or coming into blossom". The given translation "open out" means "unfold" in the context of maps, posters and other paper/plastic materials, and it does not appropriately explain the original meaning of "开"(kāi) when used with flowers in the lexical meaning category.

Suggested translation: blossom, coming into blossom

Example 2 (Line 4, Lesson 15 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course II*) P

信鸽 名词 carrier pigeon; homer

他们有一只心爱的信鸽叫"小雨点儿"。

They have a lovable carrier pigeon called "little raindrop".

"信鸽" (xìngē) in Chinese refers to a kind of pigeon that is trained to deliver messages from one place to another. Carrier pigeon is a mixed translation of "信鸽" (xìngē) from its lexical meaning level: "信" (xìn, letter) is translated as "carrier" which means the carrier of a letter; "鸽" (gē, pigeon) is a word-for-word translation. It effectively conveys the original meaning of "信鸽" (xìngē). But "Homer" in English is used as a term in a baseball match; colloquially, in British sport, it can also signify a referee who is seen to favour the home team. While "homer" can also have the colloquial meaning of "homing pigeon", this is just one of a cluster of colloquial meanings implied by the term. There is consequently the potential for confusion as a consequence of this second definition if it is used to present the original meaning of the Chinese word. It creates a translation problem in the lexical meaning category, and it would be better to omit it.

Suggested translation: carrier pigeon

Example 3 (Line 4, Lesson 14 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course I*) P

件 量词 piece

我买了一件毛衣，还买了一件羽绒服。

I have bought a sweater and a jacket.

"件" (jiàn) in Chinese is used as a measure word for upper body clothing (excluding any kind of trousers). In the given context, it is used to illustrate a woollen sweater and a jacket. It is also used as a measure word for other things, such as an art work, a law case or a matter. "Piece" in English is not used as a measure word for clothes. It is always used together with an indefinite article or a numerical word to form a phrase, for example, "two pieces of", to illustrate the quantity of objects, e.g. "two pieces of cheese", but it is not used to refer to clothes. The given translation is not an accurate rendition of the original meaning of "件" (jiàn) in both meaning and at the part of speech level.

Suggested translation: a measure word for upper body clothing (excluding trousers)

Example 4 (Line 3, Lesson 3. *An Easy Approach to Chinese I*) P

件 量词 clothes

那是两件衣服。

Those are two items of clothing.

"件" (jiàn) in Chinese is commonly used as a measure word for clothes on the upper body; a more limited number of measure words are also used in English, for example the way "loaf" refers to a quantity of bread, so the concept is recognizable to speakers of English. When used to refer to clothing, the term can be explained as "an item of". In the given context, it is used to illustrate that there are two items of clothing. The given translation, "clothes", refers to "fabric made by weaving or knitting a soft fibre such as wool or cotton" which is not specific enough to convey the original meaning of "件" (jiàn) which does not refer to the garment itself, but to the measure word used to refer to an item of clothing worn on the upper body. Moreover, the translation is a noun which is different from the original Chinese measure word; this also leads to a translation problem in its

lexical meaning.

Suggested translation: a measure word for upper body clothing (excluding trousers)

Example 5 (Line 5, Lesson 21 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course II*) P

愚公移山 idiom Foolish Old Man who removed the mountain—Spirit of perseverance

愚公移山。

An old man called Yu Gong who removed the mountains.

"愚公移山" (yúgōngyíshān) in Chinese is an idiom and a fairytale. The original meaning of "愚公移山" (yúgōngyíshān) is to illustrate that an old man called Yu Gong and his offspring worked together to remove the mountains near their houses. It is commonly understood with its figurative meaning in the sense of maintaining a constant effort when doing something. The given context recounts the story of Yu Gong to encourage people to overcome difficulties by combating them persistently. The given translation is a word-for-word translation of "愚公移山" (yúgōngyíshān). Here, "Foolish Old Man" is an inaccurate rendition of Yu Gong (a person's name). The translation "the spirit of perseverance" has effectively explained the figurative meaning. Both the accurate translation and the figurative meaning should be provided for learners to avoid any misunderstanding.

Suggested translation: an old man called Yu Gong who removed the mountains near his house: spirit of perseverance

Example 6 (Line 13, Lesson 3 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive Course II*) I

老家 名词 old home

乖乖也会情绪不好，似乎是想念老家和主人了。

"Guai guai" seems to be very sad as it misses its hometown and owner.

"老家" (lǎojiā) in Chinese refers to a place of origin or hometown. In this given context, it refers to the original place where a dog stayed in previous years. The given translation has separately and literally translated the original Chinese words from their lexical meaning "老" (lǎo, old) and "家" (jiā, home). The definition does not convey the original meaning in the given context and creates a translation problem in the lexical meaning category.

Suggested translation: hometown, place of origin

Example 7 (Line 1, Lesson 18 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course II 2*) I

微博 名词 microblog

我在微博上与客户保持联系。

I have kept in contact with my client via Weibo – a new Chinese social networking software.

"微博" (wēibó) in China is a term referring to a piece of Chinese social networking software operated by the SINA Corporation. This specific term is called "Weibo" in China and overseas. When "微博" (wēibó) is used independently without any prefix, it exclusively refers to SINA's Weibo, a proper noun in a Chinese context. This clarification should be made to express the unique character of Weibo. The given translation "microblog" is a word-for-word translation (微-micro and 博-blog) of "微博" (wēibó) which makes little sense either to Chinese speakers or learners of the language. It constitutes a translation problem within the lexical meaning category.

Suggested translation: Weibo (a new and widely used item of Chinese social networking software.) (Proper noun)

Example 8 (Line 24, Lesson 6 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive Course II*) I

竟 副词 unexpectedly, actually (sic)

这中间价格的小小差别，他们竟可以计算的一点儿不差。

They can calculate the amount of money accurately even for such minor

differences among prices.

"竟" (jìng) in Chinese indicates an unexpected status. In the given context, it means that the salesmen can work out a very accurate amount of money without calculators. The given translation "unexpectedly" effectively conveys the original meaning of "竟" (jìng), but "actually" is obviously a spelling mistake of actually. "Actually" refers to a real existing fact and should be omitted to avoid any misunderstanding.

Suggested translation: unexpectedly

Example 9 (Line 14, Lesson 4 *Discover China 3*) I

西洋 代词 west

他学习了多种拳法，包括西洋拳法。

He has learnt many styles of boxing, including Western styles.

"西洋" (xīyáng) in Chinese refers to Western countries/European countries. In the given context, it means that Li Xiaolong has learnt boxing from European boxing schools. "West" is a word-for-word translation from "西洋" (xīyáng) and in English, "west" (without a capital letter) principally refers to the direction. It does not fully convey the original meaning.

Suggested translation: the West, Western/European countries

Example 10 (Line 7–8, Lesson 18. *An Easy Approach to Chinese II*) I

有眼不识泰山 have eyes but not see Mt. Tai, entertain an angle
unawareness

想不到你知道的这么多，我真是有眼不识泰山。

You know more than my imagination. Sorry for my unawareness.

"有眼不识泰山" (yǒuyànbùshítàishān) in Chinese is an idiom. It means that someone has met Tàishān (a student of the famous Chinese carpenter Lǚbān) but doesn't know that Tàishān is a famous person. It is commonly understood with its figurative meaning in illustrating that someone is unaware of the expert in front of her. It is also used as a modest and polite way of addressing an expert. In the

given context, it is used by the speaker when he meets a knowledgeable person. The given translation is a word-for-word translation. Here Mt.Tai (a mountain's name) is different from its original meaning (a person's name). However, "Entertaining an angle unawareness" does not make any sense whatsoever in English, fails to convey the meaning, and is an example of the sub-standard English phrasing that recurs in the textbooks under analysis. The proper translation should be provided to avoid any misunderstanding.

Suggested translation: meeting with Mr Taishan – a famous person but failing to recognize him: unawareness of experts when meeting them.

The above examples have show that the given translations are inadequacies which have misinterpreted or misrepresented the original Chinese words. 32 inadequacies of vocabulary have been identified and categorized within the misinterpretation problem section of the semantic meaning category (see Appendix 4). Besides the misinterpretation problems, there is another type of inadequacy which concerns omission or additional information that is unnecessary to convey the original Chinese word. According to the translation principle of TCFL textbooks, it is unnecessary to provide additional information, for example, the derivation of the word or the meaning in other contexts which may lead to misunderstanding problems (see examples 11 - 15).

Example 11 (Line 1, Lesson 15. *An Easy Approach to Chinese I*) P

农贸 名词 a market of farm produce

在农贸市场。

It is in the market of farm produce.

"农贸" (nóngmào) in Chinese refers to farm produce. In the given context, it means that the market is selling farm products, not other products. When "农贸" (nóngmào) is used independently, it only refers to the products originating from farms. When used together with "市场" (shìchǎng), the full phrase "农贸市场" (nóngmàoshìchǎng) refers to "a market which sells farm products". The given

translation has provided the full meaning of the whole phrase. The additional meaning "a market of" should be removed to avoid any misunderstanding.

Suggested translation: farm produce

Example 12 (Line 4, Lesson 20 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course II*) P

擦 动词 towel; wipe with rags

女主人不但给了他 20 元钱，还拿出一条白毛巾，亲手帮他把脸上的汗擦了擦。

The hostess not only gives him 20 dollars, but wipes away the sweat from his face with a piece of white towel as well.

"擦" (cā) in Chinese refers to the action of "wipe, towel". In the given context, it refers to the action of the hostess to provide items to enable the worker to wipe away the sweat. The given translation "wipe with rags" does convey the original meaning of "wipe", but rags are usually defined as "a piece of old cloth", an unattractive connotation in English which is not contained in the original context. Such an additional explanation adds a degree of inaccuracy to the original meaning, and creates a problem within the lexical meaning category.

Suggested translation: towel; wipe

Example 13 (Line 5, Lesson 4 *Discover China 2*) P

开 动词 drive (a car); open; prescribe

坐出租车或者开车又快又方便。

Taking a taxi or driving out is fast and convenient.

"开" (kāi) in Chinese is a polyseme. When used together with a vehicle, it indicates the action of "driving". In the given context, it refers to driving a car. "Open" and "prescribe" are also possible meanings of "开" (kāi) but here it indicates the action of "making or becoming open" and is used in medical contexts for making a prescription. The latter two definitions are not appropriate to convey the original meaning of "开" (kāi) in this given context. It is unnecessary to list all

the meanings of the original Chinese word in the specific context. They constitute a translation problem within the lexical meaning category and it is superfluous to list them here.

Suggested translation: drive (a car)

Example 14 (Line 6–7, Lesson 6 *Discover China 3*) I

忙个不停 动词 like to keep busy

方太太好像总是忙个不停。

Mrs Fang seems to keep busy all the time.

"忙个不停" (mánggèbùtíng) in Chinese refers to a continuing status of doing different tasks or jobs. In the given context, it means that Mrs Fang seems to keep busy all the time. There is no indication whether Mrs Fang likes to do these jobs or not, but the given translation implies that Mrs Fang likes to keep busy. It is therefore inaccurate to convey the original meaning with this extra unnecessary information.

Suggested translation: keep busy

Example 15 (Line 1, Lesson 10 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course II 2*) I

精心 形容词 painstakingly

我花了一整天的时间，精心做了 200 多个中国煎饺。

I spent whole day elaborately preparing more than 200 Chinese fried dumplings.

"精心" (jīngxīn) in Chinese is used to illustrate a very careful and elaborate attitude towards someone or something. It is commonly used to indicate the positive attitude rather than the process. In the given context, it is used to reflect the attitude of the mother towards the food she made, although there is no obvious evidence to show that the cooking process is hard and painstaking. Moreover, the part of speech "painstakingly" is different from the original adjective. This meaning contains extra unnecessary information and does not accurately express the original Chinese meaning of the word.

Suggested translation: elaborate

The above types of inadequacy are common translation problems in Chinese – English translation research, where the original meaning of the Chinese term has been misinterpreted. However, the following types of translation problems are different from the inadequacies. The analysis of corpus data has shown that the following examples are partially acceptable as they have conveyed a certain element of the original meaning but not the whole meaning. These items will be discussed in detail in the following sections.

(2) Inappropriateness

Inappropriateness within the semantic meaning category means that the given translation fails to explain the original meaning properly. As stated above, compared with pure interpretation inadequacies which mislead the learner entirely, the translations included within the inappropriateness category are partially acceptable. The analysis of the corpus data has identified that most of inappropriate translation problems were mainly concerned with translations that are polysemous words/synonyms. It means that a polysemous word or a synonym has been chosen as the translation. Thus it is challenging for learners or readers to find the most relevant meaning among these multiple choices. Furthermore, for some of the translation problems within this type, more relevant and pertinent translations can be found to explain the original meaning of the Chinese words, and this can also be categorized as a problem of inappropriateness within translation (see examples 16 – 25).

Example 16 (Line 11, Lesson 12 *Discover China 2*) P

打工 动词 work, labour

放暑假的时候，我会去打工挣钱。

I will take part time jobs during the summer holiday.

"打工" (dǎgōng) in Chinese means to take part time jobs to earn money for a

living. In the given context, it means the speaker will take part time jobs during the summer holiday to earn money. The given translation "work" and "labour" convey half of the meaning of "打工" (dǎgōng) in "taking a paid position of employment". But "work" and "labour" can also refer to "regular employment" which is markedly different from the temporary status of "打工" (dǎgōng). The translations are insufficient to convey the original meaning of "打工" (dǎgōng).

Suggested translation: take part time jobs

Example 17 (Line 3, Lesson 16 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 2*) P

改 动词 to correct

王一中：我现在回办公室，我还要改你们的作业呢。

Wang Yizhong: I will go back to my office to comment on your homework.

"改" (gǎi) in Chinese means to point out problems and give comments after reading the assignments of students. The lexical meaning of "改" (gǎi) is "to correct any mistakes, to mark or to comment on someone's homework", but in the given context, there is no obvious indication to say that the assignments are incorrect and should be corrected by teachers. "改" (gǎi) here is a common way of expressing the idea of offering feedback on students' work. When translated as "to correct", it solely emphasizes the meaning of correction and doesn't reflect "改" (gǎi)'s meaning on "giving comments". The nuanced sense of this term (and many other Chinese terms) needs to be brought out more effectively.

Suggested translation: mark, comment on

Example 18 (Line 7, Lesson 19 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 2*) P

上门 动词 to call at (sb)

还可以送货上门。

We also offer a door-to-door service.

"上门" (shàngmén) in Chinese refers to a "door-to-door service". In the given context, "上门" (shàngmén) means the courier will take the parcel to the customer's door. "To call at (sb)" can reflect the meaning of "paying a brief visit to

somebody", but in the given context, it should be clarified that the visit is for a delivery service, not for greeting someone. It currently constitutes a translation problem within the lexical meaning category.

Suggested translation: door-to-door service

Example 19 (Line 5, Lesson 25 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course I*) P

好好儿 副词 all out, to one's heart's content

李一民: 别着急, 你应该好好儿休息休息。

Zhang Yimin: Don't worry, you should have a good rest.

"好好儿" (hǎohāor) in Chinese is an r-ending retroflexion word that originated in ancient times. The original word is "好好" (hǎohāo). The non-syllabic suffix "儿" (r) causes a retroflexion of the preceding vowel and is commonly used in spoken language. It is always used before a verb to strengthen the action. The original meaning of "好好" (hǎohāo) is maintained to describe a status of "try one's best to do something". In this given context, it means to have a good rest. "All out" in English means to "use all your effort" and "to one's heart's content" refers to engaging in an activity intensely, as much as the subject desires to. The definitions convey the basic meaning of "好好儿" (hǎohāor), but they imply an intensity which is incongruous with the peaceful activity of resting. However, there is another English word, "well", which has both the same part of speech and meaning with the original Chinese one. It is a simple solution rather than an intricate or colloquial phrase. The specific oral usage of this r-ending retroflexion word should also be introduced and its spoken language feature should be emphasized together with the translation to inform students that "好好儿" (hǎohāor) is not suitable to be used in written work.

Suggested translation: well (r-ending retroflexion word) (Oral)

Example 20 (Line 3, Lesson 4 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I I*) P

碗 量词 a measure word for some food

来两碗米饭吧。

How about 2 bowls of rice?

"碗" (wǎn) is a polysemous word in Chinese. Its lexical meaning is "bowl". When used as a measure word, it is only used for food contained in bowls, such as rice and noodles. In Chinese there are many different measure words used for food. The essential restriction "food contained in bowls" should be pointed out. The current translation only provides its part of speech and what it is used for. However, food in English is a general term and refers to any substance that can be eaten. It lacks the restriction "contained in bowls". This limitation should really be added to distinguish "碗" (wǎn) from other related measure words.

Suggested translation: a measure word for food contained in bowls

Example 21 (Line 7, Lesson 18 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course II 2*) I

着 动词 used after a verb to indicate the result of the action.

晚上睡不着，白天精神就不好。

A terrible night's sleep will affect the efficiency of working in the daytime.

"着" (zháo) in Chinese can be used as a verb to indicate the result of an action after a verb. In the given context, it is used to emphasize the result of a terrible night's sleep. The given translation has explained the original meaning and generic usage of the Chinese verb "着" (zháo), but the specific meaning in the given context should be clarified as a preferred approach.

Suggested translation: fall asleep (used after a verb to indicate the result of the action)

Example 22 (Line 23, Lesson 6 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive Course I*) I

遭遇 动词 come across; run into

我宁可爬十七楼，也不想遭遇这样难受的事了。

I prefer to walk upstairs to the 17th floor rather than suffering such an unpleasant experience in the elevator.

"遭遇" (zāoyù) in Chinese refers to experiencing an unhappy period or incident. In this particular case, the speaker has met her boss in the elevator. It indicates that she was unhappy about this occurrence and never wants to experience it again. The given translations "come across" and "run into" explain part of the meaning of "遭遇"(zāoyù) in terms of encountering some sort of incident, but "come across" and "run into" are normally used for "meeting something or someone by chance" rather than conveying the emphasis of "suffering an unpleasant experience". The existing translation does not properly convey the original meaning.

Suggested translation: suffer

Example 23 (Line 1, Lesson 10 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive Course I*) I

实践 动词 carry out

我怕你会因此离开我，所以我必须用一生去**实践**这个谎言。

I'm afraid to lose you so I have to keep the "white lie" for all of my lifetime.

"实践" (shíjiàn) in Chinese is commonly used as a verb to indicate the action of "practicing and realizing". In the given context, the man wants to keep his "white lie" as a secret for a lifetime. The given translation means to perform a task or an idea, or to physically move something. This is inappropriate to convey the original meaning of "实践" (shíjiàn) in the given context, and it therefore creates a translation problem in terms of lexical meaning.

Suggested translation: realize, fulfil

Example 24 (Line 9, Lesson 15 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course II 2*) I

温和 形容词 (of weather) temperate, gentle

由于形貌颜色黑白分明，体形肥胖，性格**温和**可爱，因此他们一直都是玩具设计师喜欢的形象。

Pandas are ideal images for toy designers, because of their clearly distinctive black and white colour, plump body, and gentle temper.

"温和" (wēnhé) in Chinese is commonly used to illustrate the gentle or temperate characteristics of a person or an animal. It is also used to describe good weather characterized by a mild temperature. In the given context, it is used to express the mild manner and gentle characteristics of pandas. The given translations are only partly appropriate ("temperate" is not suitable to describe living beings) and the emphasis should focus on the panda's characteristics rather than those of the weather. "Mild", however, will cover both types of application.

Suggested translation: (of a person, animal or temperature) mild

Example 25 (Line 2–3, Lesson 8 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive Course I*) I

简直 副词 simply; just

当第一次从录音机里听到中国话时，我简直灰心急了。

I was very discouraged when I listened to a Chinese programme from the recorder for the first time.

"简直" (jiǎnzhí) in Chinese is commonly used as an adverb to illustrate a higher status or greater extent. In the given context, it is used to indicate that the speaker is very discouraged. The given translation "simply" in English refers to an absolute status and "just" means many things, including "exactly or nearly at this or that moment", or "only". These translations cannot effectively convey the original meaning of "简直" (jiǎnzhí).

Suggested translation: very

(3) Incompleteness

Problems of incompleteness also mean that such translations can be categorized as partially acceptable. This issue refers to partial translations or explanations that are deficient or lacking in some way, and it mainly centres on idioms, translating measure words, onomatopoeia, etc. The incomplete status of the given translation cannot fully convey the original meaning. For example, a Chinese measure word or an example of onomatopoeia cannot be simply translated as "a measure word"

or "onomatopoeia/its pronunciation". Its complete explanation/usage should also be annotated in order to avoid any problems of misuse. Another important issue within this category is Chinese idiom translation. Chinese idioms cannot be simply translated from their lexical meaning. Their symbolic significance in present day society should be provided in order to avoid any misunderstandings (see examples 26 - 35).

Example 26 (Line 10, Lesson 19 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 2*)

P

抱 动词 to carry

金大成：那边走过来一个人，怀里抱着个大箱子。

Jin Dacheng: Here comes a man with a large box in his arms.

"抱" (bào) in Chinese refers to the action of holding something with your arms around it like a circle. The emphasis of the action is to use your arms to surround or hold something. "Carry" in English means "have something with oneself" and this can refer to a less physical action such as carrying money in one's pocket. Therefore the specific connotation of "using arms to surround or hold" is not clearly conveyed. A complete explanation of this sort should be provided for reasons of clarity.

Suggested translation: to carry in one's arms

Example 27 (Line 6, Lesson 6 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 1*) P

胡同 名词 alley

有的去逛胡同了。

Some of them have walked around the alleys.

"胡同" (hútong) is a specific Chinese culturally-loaded word. It originated from ancient times and continues to be used in the modern world. This word has a meaning that is closely related to a specific culture and time period. "胡同" (hútong) in Chinese refers to "a narrow street which only allows one car to pass in a single direction ". It was built and used in ancient times and has been kept as an

evocative place of cultural–historical importance nowadays. "Alley" has a limited spatial meaning – "a narrow passageway between or behind buildings" – and often does not imply the presence of the small commercial or residential properties that would traditionally be found in a hutong. Also, there is no indication about a "single direction" and "one car only". Specific cultural information also needs to be provided to reflect the term's unique cultural status.

Suggested translation: Hutong (a narrow street with single direction) (culture)

Example 28 (Line 2, Lesson 23 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course I*) P

场 量词 used to indicate a process

从北方到南方，已经下了四场大雪，气温也非常低。

It has already experienced heavy snow 4 times from the northern part to the southern part. The temperature is very low.

"场" (chǎng) in Chinese is commonly used as a noun to refer to "field or esplanade". But when used as a measure word, it means "a complete process of an incident or how many times". It is also commonly used in weather phenomena. In the given context, "场" (chǎng) is used to illustrate that it has already snowed four times from the northern part to the southern part. The given translation has explained part of the original meaning in "a process", but the complete status should be provided for learners to avoid any misunderstanding.

Suggested translation: (used for weather phenomenon) a measure word for a complete process

Example 29 (Line 1, Lesson 5 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course I*) P

口 量词 a measure word

我家有四口人：爸爸，妈妈，哥哥和我。

There are 4 family members in my family, my father, mother, elder brother, and I.

"口" (kǒu) in Chinese is used as a measure word exclusively for family members. In the given context, it refers to four people in the family. The given translation is a typical translation problem of incompleteness. It has explained the original meaning of "口" (kǒu) in terms of its part of speech but the full explanation should be provided to ensure that its restricted usage is understood.

Suggested translation: a measure word for family members

Example 30 (Line 8, Lesson 7 *An Easy Approach to Chinese I*) P

了 助词 particle

他出去了。

He is out.

"了" (le) in Chinese is commonly used as a modal particle at the end of a sentence. Compared with English verbs, Chinese verbs do not have inflection in form. Thus, some particles, such as "了" (le), "着" (zhē), "过" (guò) are commonly used after verbs to add various additional meanings. "了" (le) is used as a suffix to indicate the completion of an action. In the given context, it means that he has already departed and is not there at the moment. Chinese particles do not have a concrete meaning and cannot be used alone in Chinese grammatical systems. Thus the specific indication of the particle's effect should be provided as well as the part of speech for the benefit of learners.

Suggested translation: a particle used as a suffix of a verb to indicate the completion of an action

Example 31 (Line 2, Lesson 7 *Discover China 3*) I

走访 动词 pay a visit to

今天我**走访**了内蒙古通辽的一个小学。

Today I visited and interviewed some staff in a primary school in Tongliao, Inner Mongolia.

"走访" (zǒufǎng) in Chinese is the combination of two verbs and indicates a continuous action, "visit and interview". In the given context, it means that the

speaker has visited the primary school and interviewed relevant staff there. The given translation "pay a visit to" has explained half of the original meaning "走" (zǒu) in the sense of "calling in on someone/some places" but the complete explanation should be provided so that its nuances are clear to students of Chinese.

Suggested translation: visit and interview

Example 32 (Line 3, Lesson 11 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive Course II*) I

谅解 动词 to make allowances for

于是，她就谅解了他们。

She has understood and forgiven them then.

"谅解" (liàngjiě) in Chinese refers to "understand and forgive someone". In the given context, it indicates that child has finally realized the value of their parents' advice and understands them. The given translation "to make allowances for" conveys part of the original meaning of "谅解" (liàngjiě) in "treating someone less harshly because of their difficult circumstances", but the complete explanation "understand and forgive" should be provided to avoid any misunderstanding.

Suggested translation: understand and forgive (someone)

Example 33 (Line 1, Lesson 14 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive Course I*) I

七上八下 成语 at sixes and sevens

一醒来，我心里就七上八下的，什么也干不好。

I was very anxious when I got up and cannot do anything well.

"七上八下" (qīshàngbāxià) in Chinese is an idiom. The original meaning of "七上八下" (qīshàngbāxià) is to illustrate that while using 15 buckets to fetch water from the well, 7 buckets have been lifted out and 8 buckets remain in the well. It is commonly used with a connotative meaning to indicate a worried and tense feeling. In the given context, the speaker is so worried that she cannot do her job

well. The given translation attempts a fairly literal, numerical rendition of the idiom, but "at sixes and sevens" in English implies something different – a sense of open confusion or disarray. The connotative meaning should also be provided for learners to appreciate the precise nuance of the idiom.

Suggested translation: worried and tense feeling (idiom)

Example 34 (Line 3, Lesson 3 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive Course I*) I

一帆风顺 成语 as right as rain

人的一生不可能总是一帆风顺。

Life can not be successful all the time.

"一帆风顺" (yīfānfēngshùn) in Chinese is a famous idiom. Its original meaning is to wish someone a smooth and successful journey by boat. It is commonly used as a sincere wish for everything to go well. In the given context, it means that life cannot be always successful and smooth. The given translation is an English idiom which implies an improvement, but normally after ill health; for example, a doctor might say to a patient: "Take this medicine before you sleep and tomorrow you will feel as right as rain". This positive connotation, however, is not adequate to convey "一帆风顺" (yīfānfēngshùn), and the original meaning of the idiom should be provided as a complete explanation to avoid any misunderstanding.

Suggested translation: plain sailing – everything goes well (idiom)

Example 35 (Line 4, Lesson 20 *An Easy Approach to Chinese II*) I

一路平安 成语 Bon Voyage

一路平安!

Wish you a pleasant journey.

"一路平安" (yīlùpíngān) in Chinese is an idiom used for expressing sincere good wishes to someone when they leave. Its original meaning can be explained as "wishing you a peaceful journey". It is commonly used when people say goodbye to each other or to someone who is about to travel to another place. In the given

context, it is used when a friend is preparing to depart to another place. The given translation "Bon" is a French word meaning "good" and "Voyage" is also a French term (incorporated into the English language) to refer to a long journey. The phrase "Bon Voyage" is a fixed collocation for wishing someone all the best when s/he starts a journey. It shares a similar meaning with "一路平安" (yīlùpíngān) in wishing someone all the best when she/he goes on a long journey. However the specific usage in Chinese as an idiom needs to be clarified.

Suggested translation: Safe journey – Wish you a pleasant journey (idiom)

This detailed analysis has shown that besides the general concept of inadequacies, there are specific types of problems, such as misinterpretation and omission/addition of meaning. These results have demonstrated that there are certain inadequacies which make the meanings of translations substantially different from the original Chinese words in the semantic meaning category of the selected TCFL textbooks. The results of inappropriateness have shown that most of the identified translation problems are polysemous words or synonyms which contain multiple meanings or definitions which lack restrictions on usage. Although elements of these translations were partially acceptable according to the participants in the assessment test, it is difficult for learners of Chinese at the preliminary level and intermediate level to identify the appropriate meaning among multiple choices. The identified translation problems within the incompleteness category are also categorized as partially acceptable. Compared with problems of inappropriateness, the given translations of incompleteness do not contain multiple meanings which may confuse learners, but instead they tend to provide a reasonable explanation that requires more information to make it complete and accurate. These findings have been summarized from the corpus data to show the specific characteristics of translation problems within the lexical meaning category.

After the analysis of the identified translation problems, most of the problems

have been found in the inappropriateness category, followed by the inadequacy category and then that of incompleteness.

5.3.1.2 Connotative Meaning

Connotative meaning in semantics can be explained as "an idea suggested by a word in addition to its main meaning" (Zhang and Zhang, 2012: 31–52). In other words, it is generated from the lexical meaning but has been given new features. Connotative meaning has a more communicative and practical function in improving and enhancing an individual's language skills, especially in Chinese. In Chinese language systems, there are more than 80% compound words. Most of these compound words are polysemous with multiple connotative meanings. For foreign language learners, it is one of the most important components during vocabulary learning. The analysis has shown that 3 types of connotative meaning have been found in the connotation category at the preliminary level and 3 types at the intermediate level. Some of the non-equivalent translations in the connotation category reflect more than one type. These issues will be analysed in terms of their significant characteristics (see examples 36 - 39).

(1) Affective meaning

Affective meaning refers to the different emotions and attitudes conveyed besides the lexical meaning, such as commendatory/derogatory terms and politeness/impoliteness, (Zhang and Zhang, 2011: 36). It also can be found in other languages to show different attitudes or emotions.

Example 36 (Line 5, Lesson 11 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course II*) P

羡慕 动词 admire, be envious of

书里的字看着这个会走路的新朋友，真羡慕。

The characters in the book admired their new friend who can walk around

them.

"羡慕" (xiànmù) in Chinese can be explained as "pleased with someone's superior condition or possessions and wanting to be equipped with them as well". In the given context, "羡慕" (xiànmù) means that other characters in this storybook want to walk like the ant. "Be envious of" in English means a discontented longing aroused by someone else's possessions, qualities, etc. The original Chinese words do not have the meaning of "envy" and it is inappropriate to convey the original meaning of "羡慕" (xiànmù) in this way; the attempt at a dual definition creates a translation problem within the affective meaning category. "Admire" conveys the original meaning of "羡慕" (xiànmù) perfectly well.

Suggested translation: admire

Example 37 (Line 8, Lesson 19 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course II*) P

去世 动词 die, pass away

我很难过地告诉您，她在上星期日去世了。

I am so sorry to tell you that he passed away last Sunday.

"去世" (qùshì) in Chinese is a formal and polite way of conveying the idea of life ceasing. When "去世" (qùshì) is used in this given context, the translation should be formal and polite to convey the original meaning of "去世" (qùshì). In the given context, someone is told that the woman he knows passed away last Sunday. The given translation "pass away" is appropriate to convey the original meaning. "Die" in Chinese can be explained as "死" (sǐ), which is not as formal and polite as "去世" (qùshì), and it is inappropriate to convey the original word in this context.

Suggested translation: pass away

Example 38 (Line 23, Lesson 12 *Discover China 3*) I

羡慕 动词 envy

王玉：我很羡慕你的工作。

Wang Yu: I really admire your work.

As outlined in Example 37, "羡慕" (xiànmù) in Chinese can be explained as "pleased with someone's superior condition or possessions and wanting to be equipped with them as well". In the given context, "羡慕" (xiànmù) means that the speaker thinks her friend's job is very good and wants to get this sort of job. "Envy" in English, however, means "discontent or longing aroused by someone else's possessions, qualities, etc". The original Chinese words do not have the meaning of "discontent" and this is a key difference. The notion of "envy" is unsuitable for conveying the original meaning of "羡慕" (xiànmù) and creates a non-equivalence problem within the affective meaning category. "Admire" would be a more accurate explanation of the original meaning of "羡慕" (xiànmù).

Suggested translation: admire

Example 39 (Line 2, Lesson 1 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive Course II*) I

逗 动词 to tease, to play with

一个女老师逗他: "那你为什么不送花儿给我呢? "

One of the female teachers wants to joke with the little boy, so she said: "Why don't you send me flowers?"

"逗" (dòu) in Chinese is a verb commonly used by older people to joke with children. In the given context, it means that the teacher wants to joke with the little boy. The given translation "tease" shares part of the meaning with "逗" (dòu) in terms of "making fun of somebody", but "tease" also implies an attempt to provoke someone which is different from the meaning of "逗" (dòu). "To joke with" is appropriate to convey the original meaning.

Suggested translation: to joke with

(2) Stylistic Meaning

Another translation issue is that of stylistic meaning which mainly concerns the different styles (oral or written, formal or informal, dialect or standard language,

etc) of words in varying communicative situation – such as r–ending retroflexion words – requiring a written or oral style (Zhang and Zhang, 2011: 44). In Chinese, there are many words that only can be applied in spoken language or in dialogues in literature. These identified translation problems are very specific to Chinese, especially for some r–ending retroflexion words. See examples 40 – 43.

Example 40 (Line 5, Lesson 11 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course I*) P

聊天儿 动词 chat

我做韩国菜，他做中国菜，我们一起吃饭聊天儿。

I make Korean dishes while he makes Chinese food. Then we can share food and chat together.

"聊天儿" (liáotiānr) in Chinese is another r–ending retroflexion word originating from ancient times. The original word is "聊天" (liáotiān) which means "chat, talk". The non-syllabic suffix "儿" (r) causes a retroflexion of the preceding vowel. Like some of the previous examples, it is a pronunciation phenomenon that is typical of Beijing dialects in the northern part of China and is used in spoken language. In the given context, it refers to a relaxed talk between two friends. "Chat" is widely used in English and refers to "talking in an informal way" and this is close to the original meaning of "聊天" (liáotiānr). But the specific usage of this r–ending retroflexion word should be introduced and its spoken language use should be pointed out together with the translation to inform students that it is not suitable for use in written work.

Suggest translation: chat (r–ending retroflexion word) (Oral)

Example 41 (Line 5, Lesson 5 *An Easy Approach to Chinese I*) P

花儿 名词 flower

我给她花儿，但是她不要。

She has rejected my flowers.

"花儿" (huār) in Chinese is another r–ending retroflexion word that originates

from ancient times. The original word is "花" (huā) which refers to all kinds of flowers. The non-syllabic suffix "儿" (r) causes a retroflexion of the preceding vowel. Again, it is a pronunciation phenomenon typical of Beijing dialects in the northern part of China and is used within spoken language. In the given context, it refers to a kind of flower. "Flower" appropriately conveys the original meaning of "花" (huā). But the specific usage of this r-ending retroflexion word should be emphasized and its spoken language use should be pointed out together with the translation to inform the students that it is not suitable for use in written work.

Suggest translation: flower (r-ending retroflexion word) (Oral)

Example 42 (Line 5, Lesson 14 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive Course I*) I

干儿 名词 dried food

罗伟打开那个黑袋子一看，原来是自己小时候最喜欢吃的鱼干儿。

Luo Wei has found his favourite food – dried fish in the black bag.

"干儿" (gānr) in Chinese is another r-ending retroflexion word in spoken language. The original word is "干" (gān). The non-syllabic suffix "儿" (r) causes a retroflexion of the preceding vowel which constitutes a typical pronunciation phenomenon of Beijing dialects in the northern part of China. The original form "干" refers to dried food. In the given context, it refers to dried fish. The given translation is appropriate to convey the original meaning, but the specific feature of this r-ending retroflexion word should be introduced and its spoken language usage should be pointed out in the translation to inform students that it is not suitable for use in written work.

Suggest translation: dried food (r-ending retroflexion word) (Oral)

Example 43 (Line 4, Lesson 2 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course II I*) I

老伴儿 名词 (of an old married couple) husband or wife

没办法，我和老伴儿只好飞到美国参加她的婚礼。

I have no idea so my husband and I went to the USA for her wedding

ceremony by air.

"老伴儿" (lǎobànr) in Chinese is another r-ending retroflexion word from ancient times. The original word is "老伴" (lǎobàn). The non-syllabic suffix "儿" (r) causes a retroflexion of the preceding vowel. It is a typical pronunciation phenomenon of Beijing dialects in the northern part of China and is used in spoken language. "老伴" is an intimate form of address used between old couples. In the given context, it refers to the husband of the speaker. The translation "(of an old married couple) husband or wife" does convey the original meaning of "老伴" (lǎobàn), but once again, the specific usage of this r-ending retroflexion word should be introduced and its spoken language context should be pointed out to inform students that it is not suitable for inclusion in written work.

Suggest translation: (of an old married couple) husband or wife (r-ending retroflexion word) (Oral)

Dialect meaning is also included within the stylistic meaning category. It mainly concerns specific language variants, for example language variants in different areas of China (Zhang and Zhang, 2011: 48). In Chinese, there are more than 129 dialects (about 80 of them are currently used in minority areas) (Sun, Hu, and Huang, 2007). Such translation problems are also specific to Chinese-English translation work. See examples 44 - 45.

Example 44 (Line 6, Lesson 8 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive Course II*) I

爹 名词 father

当爹妈的，哪个不是首先想着孩子呢？

The parents always take their children as the primary concern, don't they?

"爹" (diē) in Chinese means "dad, father or male parent" and is commonly used in spoken language. It is an informal way of addressing a male parent and is not used in Chinese writing (except for certain literary genres, for example, a novel). "Father" in English is a formal way of addressing a male parent. "Dad" in English

is an informal way of addressing a male parent. This clarification should be emphasized to avoid any misuse.

Suggested translation: dad, daddy (dial.)

Example 45 (Line 1, Lesson 15 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive Course II*) I

俺 代词 I, my, we, our

俺爹俺娘。

My Dad and Mum.

"俺" (ǎn) in Chinese is a dialect term used in rural China. It has the same meaning as "I, my, we, our". The translation expresses the original meaning, but the specific usage of "dialect" should be pointed out to avoid any misuse as dialect should be avoided in most written work (except for some literary work).

Suggested translation: I, my, we, our (dial.)

(3) Time Meaning

The translation issues related to time meaning identified in the study mainly concern the use of terms in certain periods of history, such as words used in ancient times and/or modern times (Zhang and Zhang, 2011: 45). In modern Chinese, some of the words generated from ancient times are rarely used. Such word contains both historical and cultural implications, and should be stated clearly. Only one translation problem has been found in this category at the intermediate level.

Example 46 (Line 28, Lesson 9 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive Course II*) I

壹 数词 (used as the numeral on cheques, banknotes, etc) one

李连杰和他的"壹基金"。

Jet Li and his "One" foundation.

"壹" (yī) in Chinese means "one". It is the traditional Chinese form of simplified

Chinese "一" (yī). It was commonly used in ancient times, for example, in many works of ancient literature. In modern times, it is occasionally used in bank services and products, such as cheques, money orders, and banknotes, etc. But it is not commonly used in daily life. This limited use should be clarified to avoid any mistakes especially in Chinese writing.

Suggested translation: (traditional Chinese form of 一) one

(4) Register meaning

The category of register meaning mainly refers to the application or purpose of words in specific fields, for example, specific terminology (e.g. economic terminology, scientific terminology or proper nouns, etc) or languages used by specific groups (e.g. used by teachers, doctors, etc), (Zhang and Zhang, 2011: 49). One item has been found in this category.

Example 47 (Line 2, Lesson 3 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I I*) P

特快专递 名词 EMS

邮局很大，还可以汇款、寄挂号信和特快专递什么的。

The Post office is very big. You can find services such as remitting, sending signed letters and sending parcels.

"特快专递" (tèkuàizhuāndì) commonly refers to a reliable and fast mail delivery service. When used in the context of China Post – the official Chinese mail delivery group – "特快专递" (tèkuàizhuāndì) is seen as a proper noun. It refers to the express mail delivery service operated by the China Post delivery team. "EMS" is the abbreviation of "Chinese Official Worldwide Express Mail Service" (like the Royal Mail in UK), and as an acronym on its own, does not provide much information; therefore, it was unsurprising that so many questionnaire survey participants had reservations about its usefulness. The context concerning China Post should be provided when "EMS" is used in order to confirm the unique character of its "official" status. Otherwise "特快专递" (tèkuàizhuāndì) is just a method of mail delivery. Such information should be added to give learners

a clear understanding of this specific meaning in context.

Suggested translation: EMS (Proper noun: Chinese Official Worldwide Express Mail Service operated by China Post)

In the connotation category, the results have shown that besides translation problems within the lexical meaning category, the extended meanings such as affective meaning and stylistic meaning have also brought out translation problems. In Chinese, there are many compound words which contain more than one connotative meaning. An inadequate explanation of the connotative meaning may lead to misuse problems, especially in Chinese contexts. In order to maintain the functional equivalence relationship between the original Chinese words and their translations, the connotative meaning should be properly annotated for learners to avoid any misunderstanding and misuse problems.

5.3.1.3 Field of Meaning

Besides the lexical meaning and connotative meaning, there is another notable element – the field of meaning in semantics, which mainly concerns the scope of meaning and the usage of words. Problems in this category mainly concern non-equivalence of usage, collocations, and scope of meaning between the Chinese term and its corresponding translation (see examples 48 – 53).

Example 48 (Line 5, Lesson 15 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course I*) P

开 动词 drive

阿明：假期我也回家，我可以开车陪你玩儿。

A Ming: I will be back home in the holidays and I am happy to drive you around.

"开" (kāi) in Chinese is a polysemous term used to indicate the action of "opening". When used together with a vehicle, such as a car, train, and airplane, it

is used to illustrate the meaning of "driving". In the given context, it is used together with a car to express the meaning of "driving a car". It is a fixed collocation "开" (kāi) + vehicle and conveys the meaning of "driving". The given translation has usefully explained the meaning of "开" (kāi) in the given context, but the fixed collocation should also be provided to avoid any misunderstanding, especially since "drive" can also mean to compel (someone to do something).

Suggested translation: drive (vehicles)

Example 49 (Line 6, Lesson 2 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course I*) P

打 动词 play (a game)

崔浩：我喜欢踢足球，也喜欢打篮球。

Cui Hao: I like playing football and basketball.

"打" (dǎ) in Chinese is commonly used as a verb to indicate the action of "beating, hitting". When used with sports and games, such as basketball, baseball, and squash, it is used to illustrate the action of "playing". In the given context, "打" (dǎ) is used together with basketball and is appropriately translated as "play". However, there are other Chinese words used before games and sports, such as "玩" (wán), "踢" (tī), and "下" (xià), etc. The fixed usage of "打" (dǎ) + "ball games" should be clarified to convey the original meaning properly.

Suggested translation: play (ball games)

Example 50 (Line 9, Lesson 22 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 2*) P

园林 名词 garden

杰克：当然，苏州的园林、杭州的西湖、黄山的云和松、桂林的山水都非常有名。

Jack: Of course, the gardening art of Suzhou, the West Lake of Hangzhou, the cloud and pine tree of Huangshan and the landscape of Guilin are very famous as well.

"园林" (yuánlín) in Chinese refers to a large scale art form encompassing

architecture and gardening. In the given context, "园林" (yuánlín) refers to "苏州园林" (sūzhōuyuánlín), the typical architecture and gardening art in Suzhou, Jiangsu Province, China. "Garden" in English, however, refers to a piece of land next to or around your house, or an area in a yard where you grow flowers or plants; this is a general explanation of "garden". The Chinese word "园林" (yuánlín) can be seen as a specific form of garden within the general definition (a smaller semantic scope). When translated as "garden", the specific uniqueness of "苏州园林" (sūzhōuyuánlín) and the implied art of gardening cannot be fully expressed.

Suggested translation: architecture and gardening art

Example 51 (Line 1, Lesson 6 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 1*) P

画展 名词 art exhibition

上周末我原来打算去美术馆看画展。

I planned to visit the Art Gallery to see a painting exhibition last weekend.

"画展" (huàzhǎn) is a compound word in Chinese. "画" (huà) is a polysemous word. When used as a noun, its basic meaning is "paintings or pictures". "展" (zhǎn) in Chinese is also a polysemous word. Its basic meaning is "exhibition" when used as a noun. When "画" (huà) and "展" (zhǎn) are used together as a compound word, this refers to a specific kind of art exhibition – a painting exhibition. However, "Art exhibition" is a general concept including different artworks (painting, sculpture, photography, etc) and in Chinese there are different words to represent different kinds of art exhibition. When translated into English, this specific kind of art – "painting" – should be clarified to maintain semantic equivalence with "画" (huà).

Suggested translation: Painting exhibition

Example 52 (Line 9, Lesson 19 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 2*) P

快递 名词 EMS

杰克：我在等快递呢。

Jack: I am waiting for my parcel.

"快递" (kuàidì) in Chinese is a term referring to express delivery services. EMS is the abbreviation of "Express Mail Service" which is a proper noun representing the express delivery service offered by China Post. There are many delivery companies and "快递" (kuàidì) is the general name of a delivery service or parcel delivery. EMS is a specific part of "快递" (kuàidì). In the given context, there is no clear indication to show that the service is officially provided by China Post. Such different semantic scopes should be pointed out to avoid any misunderstanding.

Suggested translation: express delivery service

Example 53 (Line 4, Lesson 3 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course II I*) I

拉 动词 to play

他认为最难的乐器是二胡，看起来简单，其实拉起来很难。

He considered the Erhu to be the most difficult musical instrument among others as it is not as easy as it looks.

"拉" (lā) in Chinese is a verb to indicate the action of "playing a musical instrument with a bow". In this given context, the Erhu is a traditional Chinese musical instrument played with a bow. The given translation "to play" explains the meaning of "拉" (lā), but the specific collocation for musical instruments with a bow should be pointed out for learners as there are other Chinese verbs that can be translated as "play" with musical instruments, such as "弹钢琴" (tángāngqín, play the piano) and "打鼓" (dǎgǔ, play the drum). This key difference should be clarified so that this term's specific use is understood.

Suggested translation: play (musical instruments with bows, e.g. Erhu)

The translation problems in the field of meaning category primarily relate to fixed collocations and the general/specific scope of meaning (e.g. inclusion relationships). The analysis of vocabulary translations focuses on whether they convey the practical application of the terminology rather than simply explaining

the original meaning of a Chinese word. In Chinese, fixed collocations are very common within compound words, phrases and sentences. Thus, inappropriate translations of fixed collocations may lead to misuse problems when different collocations of the same word occur. The general/specific scope of the word is also a notable area in Chinese – English translation. Many Chinese compound words show different inclusion relationships, and such differences cannot be neglected in translation. Although fewer problems have been identified in this category, it is important to maintain the equivalence relationship of collocation and application.

5.3.2 Translation Equivalence Problems at Pragmatic Level

Pragmatic meaning can be divided into general pragmatics and specific pragmatics. General pragmatics can be explained as a large-scale context, such as the whole text, the communicative context constructed by speakers or even the social background. Specific pragmatics refers to the context constructed within the target environment or topics. Pragmatic meaning shares some similar features with semantic meaning but mainly emphasizes its specific context. In the Chinese vocabulary system, the majority of examples are polysemous. As Chinese is a context-based language, translation problems of pragmatic meaning can be considered as a very specific feature that affects Chinese – English translation activities. Pragmatic meaning mainly concerns polysemous characteristics of the original Chinese word. It is different from the identified examples within the inappropriateness category which concern polysemy in translation. When a polysemous example occurs in TCFL textbooks, its meaning within the context (a collocation, a sentence or a paragraph, etc) should be provided rather than listing all the meanings. According to the analysis of the corpus data, many of the identified translation problems centred on textbooks providing more than one meaning of the original Chinese words or choosing a different meaning in other contexts, which may cause issues of misuse when learners try to apply these terms

in other contexts (see examples 54 – 63).

Example 54 (Line 1, Lesson 18 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course I*) P

上 动词 (used after a noun) on, in, at

我现在每天最少上两个小时的网。

I have spent at least two hours surfing the internet.

"上" (shàng) in Chinese is commonly used as a position preposition to indicate an upward direction. It is also used as a verb in certain fixed collocations. In the given context, "上" (shàng) is used together with "网" (wǎng) to indicate the action "surf the internet". The given translation explains "上" (shàng) from its prepositional meaning and is incorrect in the given context.

Suggested translation: surf (the internet)

Example 55 (Line 2, Lesson 6 *An Approach to Chinese I*) P

打 动词 strike; beat

请你明天上午给他打电话，好吗？

Would you please call him tomorrow morning?

"打" (dǎ) in Chinese is a polysemous verb. It has different meanings according to different collocations. The basic meaning of "打" (dǎ) can be explained as "strike, beat or hit". In the given context, "打" (dǎ) was used together with "电话" (diànhuà) to indicate an action of making phone call to others. The given translation has explained "打" (dǎ) from its basic meaning but it is unsuitable to convey the meaning of "打" (dǎ) in this given context.

Suggested translation: phone, call (up)

Example 56 (Line 3, Lesson 18 *ERYA CHINESE:: Comprehensive Course I 2*) P

像 动词 to be like, to take after

杰克：真像过春节。

Jack: It seems to be celebrating Spring Festival.

"像" (xiàng) in Chinese can be explained as "like, looks like". In the given context, it means that the decoration of the house looks like a celebration of the Spring Festival. The translation "to be like" properly reflects the original Chinese meaning. But "take after" means "resemble a parent or ancestor" and this is inappropriate to convey the original meaning and may cause misunderstandings for learners if they believe that the original Chinese term has this degree of flexibility in the given context.

Suggested translation: to be like, looks like

Example 57 (Line 3, Lesson 5 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I I*) P

叔叔 名词 uncle

杰克和安娜：叔叔阿姨好！

Jack and Anna: Hello, Mr and Mrs Ouyang !

"叔叔" (shūshu) in Chinese specifically refers to the "father's brother (especially to younger brother)". It is also used as a polite way for younger people to address an unrelated male of a similar age group to their parents, who may be in the company of the youngster's parents (e.g. the parents' friend). In English, "uncle" can refer to the "brother of father or mother" and "husband of aunt". There is no specific indication that the person may be the "brother of the father" or an "unrelated male associating with a youngster's parents". English uses very generic words for "brother", "grandfather", "uncle", whereas Chinese delineates the terms far more specifically, depending on whether they are maternal or paternal relatives, or whether they are younger or older siblings. In Chinese, therefore, there is another specific word for "uncle" in the sense of "mother's brother". The definition that is offered provides the basic meaning of the original Chinese word but is too general to convey an accurate meaning of "叔叔" (shūshu). A short explanation should be provided to avoid any confusion on a student's part and to keep functional equivalence.

Suggested translation: uncle (polite way for a youngster to address an unrelated male who is of a similar age to the youngster's parents)

Example 58 (Line 11, Lesson 4 *Discover China 2*) P

张 量词 (for thin, flat things) open

西安火车站有去兵马俑的公共汽车, 车票每张七元。

Buses are available in Xi'an Railway Station for Terra-Cotta Warriors Museum. A single ticket costs 7 yuan per person.

"张" (zhāng) in Chinese is a measure word commonly used for tickets and flat/thin objects like paper. In the given context, it is used to refer to tickets. The given contextual definition has provided information regarding the shape (thin, flat things) of the object, but a more detailed clarification should be provided to avoid any misuse as there are other measure words for "thin and flat things". 'Open' is also a translation of 张 (zhāng) when it is used as a verb, but this is not relevant here.

Suggested translation: a measure word for tickets and paper

Example 59 (Line 22, Lesson 15 *An Easy Approach to Chinese II*) I

出 动词 go/come out

对,这叫情人眼里出西施。

Yes, it is called "beauty is in the eye of the beholder".

"出" (chū) in Chinese is a verb. The basic meaning of "出"(chū) is "go/come out". In the given context, it is used in a Chinese idiom "情人眼里出西施" (qíng rényǎnlǐchūxīshī, beauty is in the eye of the beholder). The original meaning of the Chinese saying means that people always think their beloved ones are the most beautiful ones amongst others. According to the original meaning of the Chinese saying, "出" (chū) is appropriately explained as "seems to be". The given translation is the lexical meaning of "出" (chū) but it is not suitable for conveying the unique, original meaning of the idiom.

Suggested translation: seems to be

Example 60 (Line 1, Lesson 10 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive*

Course I) I

出于 动词 out of

她呢，尽管很吃惊，然而出于礼貌，还是答应了。

Although she was surprised, she has promised to attend the party.

"出于" (chūyú) in Chinese refers to the reason for a response or action. In the given context, it means that the girl is very surprised about the request, but she has accepted it due to the courtesy with which a lady should respond. The given translation has separately translated the original Chinese word "出" (chū) out + "于" (yú) of; the phrase "out of courtesy" does exist, but "out of", presented as a definition on its own, contains an ambiguity related to physical motion. On its own, it is insufficient to convey the meaning of the original compound word "出于" (chūyú).

Suggested translation: due to, because of

Example 61 (Line 20, Lesson 13 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive Course II) I*

人力 名词 labour power

一位著名外企公司的人力资源主管曾经和我们讲过这样一个小秘密。

A human resources manager from a famous foreign company has told us a small secret.

"人力" (rènlì) in Chinese can be translated as 'labour power' as a result of word-for-word translation (人(rèn) labour + 力(li) power). It is commonly used together with "资源" (zīyuán) to form the term "人力资源" (rènlìzīyuán) which means "human resources" in business environments. In the given context, it is used together with "资源" (zīyuán) to refer to a human resources manager. The given translation is a word-for-word translation and has explained "人力" (rènlì) in terms of its lexical meaning. But the specific collocation and contextual meaning should be clarified to ensure that the term is used accurately.

Suggested translation: human resources

Example 62 (Line 2, Lesson 14 *An Easy Approach to Chinese II*) I

鬼 名词 ghost

真见鬼！电梯又坏了。

It is too terrible! The elevator is out of service again.

"鬼" (guǐ) in Chinese refers to a ghost, apparition or devil (in a supernatural sense). Importantly, it is also used to illustrate that something is absurd or preposterous. In the given context, it is used by the speaker to complain about the frequent fault with the elevator. However, the given translation has explained "鬼" (guǐ) from its basic meaning; this is not appropriate to convey the contextual meaning and may cause a misunderstanding.

Suggested translation: ridiculousness, absurdity

Example 63 (Line 5, Lesson 2 *Discover China 3*) I

恐怕 副词 for fear of

要是你对现代史特别感兴趣，这本书恐怕不太合适。

If you are interested in modern history, perhaps this book is not a good choice.

"恐怕" (kǒngpà) in Chinese is an adverb to indicate "perhaps/maybe", or "worried about". In the given context, it means that the librarian thinks the category of ancient history books is not suitable for the reader as he likes modern history books. The given translation "for fear of" can also be used as the explanation of "恐怕" (kǒngpà), but in the given context, the proper contextual meaning should be provided to avoid any misunderstanding.

Suggested translation: perhaps, maybe

The translation problems of the pragmatic meaning category are closely related to the inappropriateness category of semantic meaning. In the inappropriateness category, the problems mainly take the form of mistakes in the meaning selection of the polysemous translation while in the pragmatic meaning category, most of the translation problems centre on the polysemous meaning of the original

Chinese words. The meaning selection within the pragmatic meaning category should be in accordance with the given context, which helps establish a restricted range of words within which an accurate Chinese meaning can be found.

5.3.3 Translation Equivalence Problems at Grammatical Level

Grammatical meaning in the context of translation analysis mainly regards words those do not have any concrete meaning. When a translation cannot be expressed at the lexical meaning level, the explanation should be made at the grammatical meaning level to achieve functional equivalence, for example, providing the grammatical function of the word/phrase/sentence pattern. Moreover, problems concerning parts of speech and translation are also included in the grammatical meaning category (e.g. inconsistency in parts of speech of the original Chinese word and its translation).

Two kinds of issues have been identified within the grammatical meaning category. The first kind is the common translation issue that centres on problems with grammatical function, more specifically when a translation does not correctly reflect the grammatical function of the original Chinese word. In the Chinese language system, some of the words, especially some function words, cannot be explained by their lexical meanings. Thus the translation cannot be conveyed by a simple word or phrase. An introduction of the term's grammatical function should be annotated to illustrate the meaning at a functional equivalence level. Translation problems of this kind mainly concern insufficient explanations of grammatical features (see examples 64 - 65).

(1) Grammatical Function

Example 64 (Line 3, Lesson 3 *An Easy Approach to Chinese I*) P

二/两 数词 two

那是两件衣服。

Those are two items of clothing.

Both "二" (èr) and "两" (liǎng) in Chinese are used as a numeral. They refer to the meaning of "two" but have a different usage. "二" (èr) can be used independently but "两" (liǎng) cannot. "二" (èr) is used when expressing a serial/ordinal number and in fractions. "两" (liǎng) is used in front of a measure word to express the meaning of "two". In the given context, it is used together with a measure word "件" (jiàn) to indicate that there are two items of clothing being referred to. The given translation has translated the basic meaning of "两" (liǎng). However, the specific usage of "二" (èr) and "两" (liǎng) must be clarified to avoid any misuse of this essential term.

Suggested translation: 二 (èr) (used as number two, second); 两 (liǎng) (used in front of a measure word to illustrate the quantity/number of two)

Example 65 (Line 19, Lesson 6 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course II I*) I

俩 数词 two

大半年了，我俩竟然不知道彼此是邻居！

We never realized that we were neighbours for almost half a year.

"俩" (liǎ) in Chinese is used as a numeral. It is used to indicate the quality of two or more (a few). "俩" (liǎ) should be used after a pronoun to express the meaning of two or a few. It cannot be used independently. In the given context, it is used after a pronoun "我" (wǒ) to indicate the speaker and his friend. The given translation has translated the basic meaning of "俩" (liǎ). However, the specific usage of "俩" (liǎ) should be clarified as another Chinese numeral "两" (liǎng) also has the same meaning as "俩" (liǎ) but is used differently.

Suggested translation: two (used after a pronoun)

The second issue requiring analysis in the grammatical meaning category is related to translation and parts of speech. According to Nida's effective communicative function criteria of functional equivalence translation, the

selection of meaning should be in accordance with the given context (Nida, 1993). It is also applicable in selecting a part of speech when dealing with polysemous words. The key "mistakes" here centre on the given part of speech in a vocabulary list being different from the original Chinese word within the specific context. For example, the given Chinese word may be used as verb, but the part of speech is annotated as a noun. "Omission" here means that the part of speech of the given translation is omitted in the vocabulary. Such problems regarding parts of speech also lead to translation problems within the grammatical meaning category (see examples 66 – 71 and examples 72 – 75).

(2) Mistaking of part of speech

The other type of issue within the grammatical meaning category is about part of speech problems related to both the original Chinese term and the English translation. The mistakes and inconsistencies between the original Chinese words and the English translation have also been considered as non – equivalence translation problems as the differences can not accurately convey the original meaning (Huang, 2009). In Chinese, there are certain words that can be used to represent more than one part of speech. This phenomenon is called conversion of part of speech, and is a distinctive feature of the Chinese grammatical system. The meaning changes with the conversion of the part of speech. Thus the translation should be made in accordance with the change in the part of speech.

Example 66 (Line 1, Lesson 7 *An Easy Approach to Chinese I*) P

点 量词 o'clock

我每天六点半起床。

I get up at 6:30 a.m. every day.

"点" (diǎn) in Chinese is commonly used as a noun to refer to a certain time (one hour). In the given context, it refers to 6:30 a.m. The translation has properly conveyed the sense of the original noun, but the part of speech should be revised to keep an equivalent status between "点" (diǎn) and "o' clock".

Suggested translation: noun; o'clock

Example 67 (Line 1, Lesson 3 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 1*) P

航空 动词 aviate

我们可以寄包裹、取包裹，可以买航空信封和邮票。

We can send and receive parcels, buy airmail envelopes and stamps there.

"航空" (hángkōng) in the given context is used together with "信封" (xìnfēng) as a proper noun referring to a specific kind of envelope – an airmail envelope. The annotation of the part of speech in the vocabulary list is incorrect and should be converted into "aviation" to keep the equivalent function.

Suggest translation: noun; aviation

Example 68 (Line 2, Lesson 3 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 1*) P

综合 动词 synthesize

我姓王，叫王一中，是你们综合课的老师。

My name is Wang Yizhong, I am your synthetic course teacher.

"综合" (zōng hé) in the given context is used as an adjective for synthetic courses. Both the annotation of the part of speech and the translation in the vocabulary list are incorrect and should be converted into synthetic to avoid any misunderstanding.

Suggested translation: adjective; synthetic

Example 69 (Line 16, Lesson 13 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course II 2*)

I

实践 动词 to practice

这种变化将会对社会生活和社会实践产生越来越深刻的影响。

Such changes will gradually affect the social activities and social practices.

实践 (shíjiàn) in Chinese is a polyseme to indicate the action of practicing (verb) or practices from activities (noun). In the given context, 实践 (shíjiàn) is used as

a noun in a phrase "社会实践 (shèhuìshíjiàn)" to refer to social practice. The given translation and its part of speech are incorrect to express the contextual meaning and should be corrected to ensure appropriate use by learners.

Suggested translation: noun; practice

Example 70 (Line 6, Lesson 10 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive Course II*) I

并 连词 used before a negative to reinforce it

而你今天却别扭着、后悔着，去做你原来并不打算做的那些事。

However, you are regretting your wasted time and are reluctant to do something you never do.

"并" (bìng) in Chinese is commonly used as a conjunction to indicate a deeper level of status. It is also commonly used as an adverb before a negative form to indicate an emphasis. In this given context, it indicates something that the speaker did not want to do previously. The given translation is appropriate to express the meaning of "并" (bìng) but the part of speech should be corrected to ensure its appropriate application.

Suggested translation: adverb, used before a negative to reinforce it

(3) Omission of part of speech

The omission of part of speech is another form of part of speech problem. As stated above, part of speech problems have also been considered as a type of translation problem in the context of grammatical meaning, and problems of omission may also bring out issues of inconsistency between the original Chinese words and the given translation.

Example 71 (Line 1, Lesson 10 *Discover China 2*) P

俩 two

阿曼达：你们俩在做什么？

Amanda: What are you doing?

俩 (liǎ) in Chinese is used as a numeral. It is used to indicate the quality of two or more (a few). 俩 (liǎ) should be used after a pronoun to express the meaning of two or a few. It cannot be used independently. In the given context, it is used after a pronoun 你们 (nǐmén) to represent two friends of Amanda. The given translation has translated the basic meaning of 俩 (liǎ). However, the specific usage of 俩 (liǎ) and its meaning of "a few" should also be clarified. The part of speech should also be properly provided to avoid any misunderstanding.

Suggested translation: numeral; two or a few (used after a pronoun)

Example 72 (Line 4, Lesson 6 *Discover China 2*) P

嘘 shh

嘘.....请安静，这里不能大声说话。

Shh, please keep quiet.

嘘 (xū) in Chinese is commonly used as an interjection at the beginning of a sentence to express the idea of "stop doing something or opposing something". In the given context, it is used by the tour guide to stop tourists from speaking loudly. The given translation has explained the original word from its phonetic level but it is not clear enough to convey the meaning of the word.

Suggested translation: interjection; to stop something or express opposition to something

Example 73 (Line 17–18, Lesson 12 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive Course I*) I

串门儿 stop by, come around

这是一个用腿 (串门儿) 到用嘴 (电话、寻呼) 到用手指 (电脑) 到用拇指 (手机) 的过程。

There are four forms of New Year's greetings: home visiting, making telephone calls, sending emails and texting messages.

Apart from the lesson title, which makes no sense in English, the issue here regards 串门儿 (chuànménr) which in Chinese is another "r"-ending retroflexion

word from ancient times. The original word is "串门" (chuànmén). The non-syllabic suffix "儿" (r) causes a retroflexion of the preceding vowel. It is an informal way to illustrate the action of "paying a visit to somebody or calling in on someone". It is commonly used among neighbours or friends and is not suitable to be used for people you are not familiar with. In the given context, it refers to walking to neighbours'/friends' houses to greet them. The given translation has explained the lexical meaning of 串门儿 (chuànménr), but its range of application and intimate emphasis should be clarified to avoid any inappropriate use of it. The specific usage of this r-ending retroflexion word should also be introduced and its spoken language context should be highlighted to inform students that 串门儿 (chuànménr) is not suitable to be used in written work.

Suggested translation: verb, pay a visit to/call at (friends) (r-ending retroflexion word) (Oral)

Example 74 (Line 2, Lesson 2 *An Easy Approach to Chinese II*) I

第 a prefix used to form ordinal number

从左边数，第二个房间。

It is the second room in your left.

"第" (di) in Chinese is a noun used to indicate order and sequence. It is commonly used as a prefix to form ordinal numbers. In the given context, it refers to the second room. The given translation has explained "第" (di) from the perspective of its range of application, but the part of speech and the meaning should be provided for learners to ensure appropriate usage.

Suggested translation: noun, order, sequence (a prefix used to form ordinal number)

Example 75 (Line 9, Lesson 6 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive Course II*) I

只能 cannot but

人们只能想办法多找鸡毛、多增加肥料以提高产量。

People here have to get more chicken feathers and fertilizer to increase the production.

只能 (zhǐnéng) in Chinese is commonly used as an adverb and can be explained as "have to, cannot but". In the given context, it means that there is no other way for the farmers to increase their production but to obtain more chicken feathers and fertilizer. The given translation is reasonably appropriate to describe the original meaning, but could be supplemented with the more universal "have to". Also, the part of speech could be provided as extra information for learners.

Suggested translation: adverb; have to

As stated above, the selection of part of speech should be in accordance with that of polysemous words, thus problems concerning parts of speech have also been considered as non-equivalent translation problems between the original Chinese words and corresponding translations. The problems identified within the grammatical meaning category primarily deal with parts of speech, such as mistaking and omission problems. Compared with problems concerning parts of speech, there are fewer problems relating to inappropriate explanations of grammatical function.

5.4 Discussion

As indicated in the introduction to the chapter, this chapter has addressed the second research question of the study: "What kinds of translation problems are there within TCFL textbooks at preliminary level and intermediate level?" All the examples extracted from both the preliminary level and intermediate level of TCFL textbooks have been analysed within the framework of a linguistics-based approach to translation (categorized into 3 categories: semantic meaning, pragmatic meaning and grammatical meaning, with multi sub-categories: incorrectness, inappropriateness, incompleteness, connotation, etc). The

investigation has shown that at both the preliminary level and intermediate level, most translation problems occurred in the content word class, especially in the verb, noun, and measure word classes. The main problems concerning content words lie within the semantic meaning category. In the semantic meaning category, problems in the value of meaning are greater than those in the field of meaning category. These also account for the highest percentage of the total. Inappropriate translation, inadequacies, stylistic problems and improper usage are the most serious problems among other problems in the semantic meaning category. For the functional word category, the greatest number of translation problems occurred in the particle and preposition categories. The main translation problems in the context of the function word class were found in the particle and preposition categories. There are also many translation problems classified within the grammatical meaning category, these mainly concerning the inconsistency of parts of speech and translation as well as translation problems caused by such inconsistencies.

To sum up, it can be proposed that translation problems commonly occurred in the content word class and the semantic meaning category. There are substantial linguistic differences between Chinese and English, and a lot of the problems at the preliminary level of textbooks centre on explaining the effect of linguistically specific phenomena such as measure words and particles in an accurate and succinct way. The proliferation of inadequacies in these categories is bound to affect adversely a learner's initial encounter with these linguistic features. Although it is difficult to avoid or eliminate translation problems, translators can minimize translation problems by finding solutions that focus more closely on the accuracy of usage required by the semantic, pragmatic and grammatical meaning categories, and by paying particular attention to potential problems that arise in the content word and function word classes. The next chapter will outline the differences in translation problems between the preliminary level and intermediate level.

Chapter 6 Comparative Analysis of the Findings and Possible Reasons for the Problems

6.1 Introduction

As stated in the previous chapters, the first and second research questions of the study have been addressed through mixed – modal analysis. These are: (1) What are the pedagogical perspectives of teaching practitioners regarding translation as a teaching method in Chinese vocabulary teaching? and (2) What kinds of translation problems are there within TCFL textbooks at preliminary level and intermediate level ? The 4th chapter has outlined the originality and importance of this research as a consequence of empirical evidence obtained by questionnaire survey data. The data gathered from the assessment test confirmed that translation problems evidently exist in the selected vocabulary translations, and this is a compelling reason for conducting the current PhD research, given the likely impact on numerous learners of Chinese. The 5th chapter has provided a detailed analysis of translation problems from preliminary/intermediate levels and content/function word classes. This chapter will continue the investigation by conducting a contrastive analysis of translation problems to answer the last research question: (3) Are there any differences between the translation problems at the preliminary level/intermediate level and in the content word class/function word class, and how can these differences be applied to improve the quality of vocabulary translation in TCFL textbooks? Differences between preliminary level/intermediate level and content words/function words will be discussed with cross – cultural communication factors involved in Chinese and English translation activities to find possible reasons that lead to translation problems.

In order to analyse the 3rd research question, this chapter will firstly address the

common translation problems between Chinese and English to see how they evolve, and to adapt them into the examination of the findings of the study. Then, detailed discussion of the differences at the preliminary/intermediate levels and content/function word classes will be provided in the context of the theoretical framework. In the 5th chapter, non - equivalent translation problems have been discussed through linguistics-based approaches to translation (semantic/pragmatic/grammatical categories), whereas this chapter will focus on comparison work between different levels. Some of the examples used in this chapter are chosen from the 5th chapter and Appendix 4. The following sections will start by providing a brief introduction of common Chinese - English translation problems.

6.2 Common Chinese and English Translation Problem Types

The growing role of China in the world has led to increasing contact with other countries in economics, culture and politics. For the past decades, English-Chinese (E-C) translation has been exceedingly popular in Chinese translation research fields as well as English pedagogical research areas. In recent times, with greater international interest centring on the Chinese language, translation from Chinese into English (C-E) has also begun to expand notably. Whether from English to Chinese or vice versa, translation problems are unavoidably encountered by the differences (e.g. pronunciation and writing systems, words, sentence structures, or syntax and discourse structures) between the two languages involved. Summarized from previous studies on E-C/C-E translation activities, there are 4 types of systematic translation problems:

Table 6.1 Systematic translation problems types

Type	Explanation
1. Problems of linguistic translation	Translation problems caused by insufficient adjustment between the source language and target language.
2. Problems of pragmatic translation	Translation problems caused by improper selection of meaning / translation strategies in the specific context.
3. Problems of cultural translation	Translation problems caused by inadequate communication of specific cultural factors.
4. Problems of text-specific translation	Translation problems caused by deficient handling of the specific text.

(Xu and Zhu, 2013)

The first type is very common in translation activities. People tend to assume that accurate translation work can be done as long as a good bilingual dictionary is used, but translation is often insidious due to potential misinterpretations. Linguistic translation problems, when applied in the vocabulary translation field, mainly refer to semantic translation problems concerning lexical meaning (inadequacies, inappropriateness and incompleteness), connotative meaning, collocation, as well as grammatical translation problems. Most of these problems have been caused by word - for - word translation, a lack of background information, improper collocation, etc.

The second type is related to contextual factors which influence the translation. Whether for vocabulary translation or text translation, context can be considered as an inseparable factor. Translation problems within this type mainly refer to

inappropriate translations of words with multiple meanings or inappropriate translation within different contexts.

The third type is close to linguistics-based translation problem types in the context of translations with specific connotative meanings. The inadequate communication of specific cultural factors and the overlooking of cultural influence in the translation process may lead to translation outcomes that make little sense to learners.

The last translation translation type is an overall consequence of vocabulary translation, sentence translation, and culture translation problems. The full text translation has been structured around different in-text components, such as vocabulary translation, grammatical structure and cultural information within the specific context. Compared with the above three problem types, text - specific translation problems mainly concern the fluency and comprehension of the whole text, rather than individual words. Besides the requirement of accuracy for vocabulary translation, syntax and grammatical relationships are also important in the development of a fluent and comprehensible text. As the present study has exclusively concentrated on word level issues, the last text translation problem type will not be discussed.

In summary, common translation problems can be summarized into four categories (linguistic translation problems, pragmatic translation problems, text-specific translation problems and cultural translation problems), which are in accordance with the theoretical framework of the study (semantic meaning problems, pragmatic meaning problems and grammatical problems). The following sections will compare and contrast the differences in translation problems between the preliminary / intermediate levels and content / function word classes.

6.3 Analysis of the Identified Translation Problems in Content Words

This study has taken vocabulary lists and translations from 12 books as its specific research objects. Based on a series of corpus data analyses, 195 (119 words at the preliminary level and 76 words at the intermediate level) out of 6599 Chinese words have been identified for further exploration. A detailed analysis has illustrated these translation problems through the framework of the tripartite theory of glosseme and functional equivalence theory. There are 119 non-equivalent translation items at the preliminary level and 76 items at the intermediate level. 105 and 68 content words have been found at the preliminary and intermediate levels (see table 6.2).

Table 6.2 Content word problems at the preliminary (P) and intermediate (I) levels

Content word class				P	I
Semantic meaning	Value of meaning	Lexical meaning	Inadequacy	21	16
			Inappropriateness	31	15
			Incompleteness	6	6
		Connotative meaning	Affective meaning	8	3
			Stylistic meaning	11	9
			Time meaning	0	1
	Register meaning		1	0	
	Field of meaning			6	2
Pragmatic meaning				12	11
Grammatical meaning	Function			2	1
	Part of speech			7	4

As seen from the above table, in the semantic meaning category, most of the non - equivalent translation problems in the content word class have been found at the preliminary level; they account for 62% of the total problems within the semantic category of content word, followed by the intermediate level within which 38% of the semantic problems are located. For both the preliminary and intermediate levels, translation problems in the value of meaning category are approximately 13 and 25 times more than those in the field of meaning category. In the lexical meaning category, inappropriateness problems at the preliminary level constitute a higher rate than other categories, while at the intermediate level, inadequacies are more numerous than other categories such as inappropriateness. Incompleteness problems at both the preliminary and intermediate levels occur at a similar rate in the study. In the connotative meaning categories, 4 types of translation problems have been found at both the preliminary level and intermediate level. The problems of affective meaning and stylistic meaning at both levels are more numerous than other categories within the connotative meaning category. No translation problems have been found in terms of time meaning at the preliminary level in the study while at the intermediate level, there is no problems in the register meaning category. In the field of meaning categories, more problems have been in the preliminary level within the content word class, approximate 3 times as many as those at the intermediate level. Translation problems in the pragmatic meaning category are basically the same at both preliminary and intermediate levels. In the grammatical meaning category, translation problems at the preliminary level are 1.8 times as many as those at the intermediate level.

The above analysis has shown that most of the translation problems occur at the preliminary level, especially in the semantic meaning category. The following sections will provide a detailed analysis of these problems and possible reasons that may lead to such non - equivalence problems.

6.3.1 Semantic Meaning Category

As shown in table 6.2, in the semantic meaning category, most of the non-equivalent translation problems occurred at the preliminary level. Among these problems, inappropriateness problems occurred at a higher rate than other categories. In the inadequate category, most of the problems showed that the translations provided were different from the original meaning of the Chinese term.

6.3.1.1 Lexical Meaning

In this category, non-equivalent translation problems adhere to one of two scenarios, the first showing that the given translations of the selected TCFL textbooks were substantially different from the meanings of the original Chinese words. In this context, more items were found at the preliminary level. These translation results showed that most of the original Chinese words have been explained by word-for-word translation or lexical meaning with little or no consideration of functional equivalence. For example, at the preliminary level, the original meaning of "愚公移山" (yúgōngyíshān) in Chinese is a famous idiom. Its lexical meaning can be explained as "an old man called Yugong who removed the mountains near his house". For idiom translation, not only its lexical meaning but its figurative meaning should be provided for learners. The given translation in the selected TCFL book provided both its lexical meaning "Foolish Old Man who removed the mountain" and figurative meaning "Spirit of perseverance". The figurative meaning here properly explains the original Chinese idiom, however, as "Yugong" was what the old man was called, this is totally different from the given translation "foolish old man" (愚 yú (foolish) + 公 gōng (old man)). Another example, "微博" (wēibó) at the intermediate level has been translated as "microblog". This is also a consequence of word-for-word translation (微 wēi (micro) + 博 bó (blog)). "微博" (wēibó) in China refers to famous social

networking software and its official translation "Weibo" has become a proper noun in the Chinese context. The given translation in the selected TCFL textbook does not make any sense either to Chinese speakers or learners. The above examples exemplify how certain translations are considerably different from the original Chinese words.

Another scenario in the inadequacy category refers to translation outcomes that have provided extra unnecessary information. The extra unnecessary information may lead to problems of misunderstanding. Inevitably, extra unnecessary explanations cannot accurately convey the specific sense of a term's original meaning. For example, "拉" (lā) in Chinese is a verb used to illustrate the excreting action. If no extra information or specific context has been provided (e.g. 拉 lā+肚 dù 子 zi or within the hospital context), it only refers to the action of "excrete" and cannot be explained as diarrhea (a kind of medical condition). The translation "to have diarrhea" has an indication of "excrete", but "diarrhea" is an unnecessary facet of information for the original Chinese word and may lead to misuse of "拉" (lā).

The above situations have been found in the inadequacy category. An overview of translation problems at the preliminary level reveals that there are more of them than those found at the intermediate level, although the total amounts are very close (21 items at the preliminary level and 16 items at the intermediate level). At both the preliminary and intermediate levels, most translation problems centred on measure words and nouns, followed by verbs and one adjective.

As seen from the analysis of semantic meaning category, the inappropriateness problem has a higher rate compared with other problems at the preliminary level. At the preliminary level, there are 31 translation items and also 15 items at the intermediate level. Translation problems featuring in this category were mainly related to synonym and polyseme translation. Most of the problems found in this

category insufficiently adjusted the original Chinese word and the English translation. These results do not accurately reflect the meaning of the original Chinese word. For example, "上来" (shàng lái) in Chinese is a directional verb to indicate an upward action. The given translation, "come up", in English also can be used to indicate an upward movement, however, the phrase also means "something unexpectedly happening" or "walking towards another person". Without any information to differentiate a word's applications, it may be problematic for learners to pick up the appropriate translation from various meanings. Another example, "遭遇" (zāoyù), also creates a polysemous translation problem. "遭遇" (zāoyù) in Chinese is used to indicate a very tough and difficult experience or unforeseen incident. The given translation "come across" and "run into" also can be used to show an encounter with some sort of incident; however, these two phrases are normally used for meeting something or someone by chance rather than conveying the original negative sense of "suffering an unpleasant experience". Such problems are very common translation problems within Chinese–English translation and constitute a higher percentage of the mistakes. These translated items tend to feature a majority of definitions that are appropriate, but which lack essential information to make them directly equivalent to the original Chinese terms in context. The study has also shown that more translation problems occurred at the preliminary level than at the intermediate level, and this, therefore, has clear implications for vocabulary acquisition at this key stage of the learning process.

The last sub–category in the lexical meaning category can be labelled as incompleteness. There are 6 relevant words at each level. Translation problems that emerge in this category concern incomplete information or explanations, such as idiom translation and measure word translation. For example, "口" (kǒu) in a certain given context cannot be merely explained as a measure word. It is commonly used as a measure word for illustrating family members, (e.g. 四口人 sīkǒurén, four family members), thus "a measure word for family members"

would be a more accurate and complete explanation for "口" (kǒu). Idiom translation sometimes leads to another typical kind of incomplete translation problem in the selected TCFL textbooks. For example, "一帆风顺" (yīfānfēngshùn) is a traditional Chinese idiom. If the lexical meaning (一 yī one + 帆 fān boat sail + 风 fēng wind + 顺 shùn smooth going) is only explained as "as right as rain" (which has a strong association with an individual's health), it evidently does not convey the figurative meaning of "may everything go well". Idioms with this sort of symbolic meaning are very common in Chinese, and it is important to give an accurate and holistic explanation to avoid misunderstandings.

In summary, in the lexical meaning category of the semantic meaning category, most translation problems occurred in the inappropriateness category, followed by the inadequacy category in terms of frequency. Incompleteness problems are less frequent than the number of inadequacies in the above two categories that were established from the selected materials. In the inadequacy category, most problems centred on conveying different meanings compared with the sense of the original Chinese words. For such situations, more problems have been identified at the preliminary level than at the intermediate level. The other main problem as regards inadequacies is that of extra unnecessary explanation, and this sort of problem is more prevalent at the preliminary level than at the intermediate level. As stated above, the inappropriateness category features more problems than the other categories at both the preliminary and intermediate levels. This category, with the highest rate of translation problems, shows that inappropriate translation problems are the main issue in current TCFL textbooks. This is a key finding with serious implications for the writers and publishers of these books, a discovery which implies that elements of the editorial process need to be revisited and changed radically. These inappropriate translations show that most of the English translations that are provided can explain part of the original Chinese meaning, but due to the complicated word formation of the Chinese vocabulary system, it is always hard to convey an accurate meaning. Such problems of inappropriateness

will invariably cause misunderstandings and affect the comprehension of learners. Among the problems of inappropriateness, measure words have a higher rate than other words at the preliminary level, constituting 42% of the total problems in the inappropriateness category at the preliminary level. Verbs follow measure words in terms of frequency of inadequacies, constituting 32%. At the intermediate level, the situation is different from that at the preliminary level. Most problems of inappropriateness occur in the verb category which constitutes 27% of the total number of problems in the category of inappropriateness at the intermediate level, followed by measure words. For the last component of the lexical meaning category, problems of incompleteness at both the preliminary and intermediate levels are the same. At the preliminary level, translation problems mainly concern measure words, verbs and nouns while at the intermediate level, 50% of the issues centre on idioms.

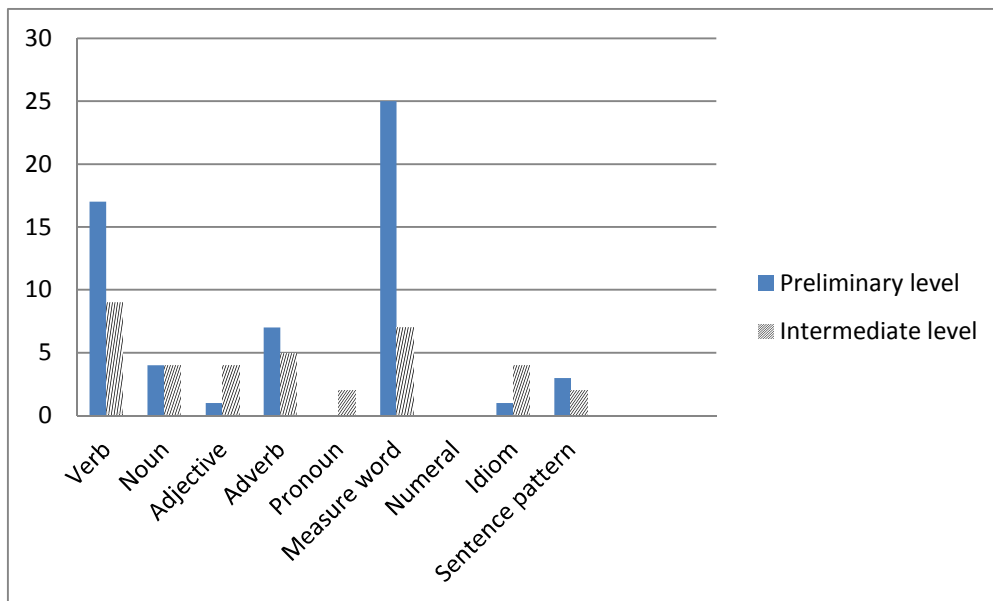


Figure 6.1 Problems with part of speech distribution – lexical meaning (content word)

6.3.1.2 Connotative Meaning

Lexical meanings constitute most of the problems in the semantic meaning

category. In the connotation category, there are 4 types of translation problems. As explained in Chapter 2, connotative meaning refers to the communicative value that a word has by virtue of what it refers to, over and above its purely conceptual content. This is also relevant to culture translation problem types which are also caused by a lack of background knowledge of the target social culture (e.g. Chinese culture). Based upon the designed theoretical framework, 4 types (affective meaning, stylistic meaning, time meaning, and register meaning) of connotative meaning have been identified in the study. There are 20 translation problems at the preliminary level while at the intermediate level, there are 13 items. Among the 4 types of connotative meaning, the frequency of stylistic meaning problems is the highest at both the preliminary and intermediate levels, constituting 55% (preliminary level) and 69% (intermediate level) in the connotative meaning category. At the preliminary level, translation problems were identified in 3 of the 4 connotative meaning types. No problem was found in the time meaning category at the preliminary level, while at the intermediate level, there were problems found in 3 of the 4 types, excluding the register meaning category.

At the preliminary level, there are almost twice as many translation problems as those at the intermediate level. As explained in Chapter 2, affective meaning is the meaning that conveys different attitudes of speakers, such as sadness, happiness and modesty, (Zhang and Zhang, 2012: 39). For example, at the preliminary level, "去世" (qùshì) is a formal and polite way of conveying the meaning of death. It euphemistically expresses a sombre perspective and should be formally translated as "pass away" rather than "die". In Chinese, there is another word, "死" (sǐ), that is commonly translated as "die" and is used as an informal and colloquial word for "death". This very different affective meaning should be distinguished to avoid any inappropriate use. Another example at the intermediate level is "逗" (dòu). In Chinese, "逗" (dòu) is a positive word used by older people to joke with children. The given translation "tease" shares part of the original meaning of "逗" (dòu) in

"making fun of somebody"; however, "tease" can also imply an attempt to mock or provoke an unwilling individual, a meaning that is different from the original positive emphasis and emotion function of "逗" (dòu).

As shown in table 6.2, stylistic meaning constitutes most of the connotative meaning problems at both the preliminary and intermediate levels. Compared with the intermediate level, there are more problems at the preliminary level. Stylistic meaning, as explained in previous chapters, mainly concerns the different styles (oral or written, formal or informal, dialect or standard language, etc) of a word in varying communicative situations (Zhang and Zhang, 2012: 44). Most of the translation problems in the selected materials concern r-ending retroflexion words – an oral style of Chinese vocabulary. For example, at both the preliminary and intermediate levels, there are many r-ending retroflexion words such as "玩儿" "wánr (play), "聊天儿" liáotiānr (chat), "没准儿" méizhǔnr (maybe), etc. These r-ending retroflexion words are from ancient times and are commonly used in spoken language or written versions of oral exchanges in literature. But besides literary works featuring dialogues or other expressions of oral language, these words are not suitable for use in written work. Thus their "oral" style should be emphasised in vocabulary definitions to ensure appropriate contextual use. Dialect meaning is also included within the stylistic meaning category. In the selected TCFL textbooks, there are 3 translation problems related to dialect meaning. For example, "爹" (diē) in Chinese is a dialect and oral word in some rural places. It is an informal way of referring to one's father. In Chinese, "父亲" (fùqīn) is the formal way of addressing a male parent and the equivalent word for "father". Thus the specific dialect meaning should be pointed out to learners to establish a clear boundary between informal (dialect) and formal modes of address.

Compared with the above two categories (affect meaning and stylistic meaning categories), there is one problem in the time meaning category and the register meaning category. The time meaning category in the thesis refers to words that are

used in certain periods of history, ancient times and/or modern times (Zhang and Zhang, 2011: 45). The only translation problem in this category is "壹" (yī), a traditional version of the simplified Chinese word "一" (yī, number one). This traditional version was commonly used in ancient times for illustrating the concept of number one. It is also used in modern times, but the application has been limited to bank services and products, such as cheques, money orders, and banknotes. This specific time meaning should be provided to inform learners that the traditional "壹" (yī) has been replaced by its simple form "一" (yī) in modern daily life. The last type within the connotative meaning category is the register meaning category. Register meaning in the thesis mainly refers to specific terminology, such as legal terminology, medical terminology or political terminology (Zhang and Zhang, 2012: 49). For example, "特快专递" (tèkuàizhūandi) at the preliminary level is a proper noun in Chinese. "特快专递" (tèkuàizhūandi) in Chinese exclusively refers to the Chinese Official Worldwide Express Mail Service operated by China Post. Its abbreviation form "EMS" is commonly used and accepted as a proper noun in Chinese postal terminology. This sort of clarification should be provided for learners to avoid any misuse of the term.

In summary, the connotative meaning category generates most of the translation problems across its 4 types. In the content word class of the preliminary level (table 6.2), most of the connotative translation problems centre on verbs, constituting 45% of the problems in the connotative meaning category while at the intermediate level, most of the problems centre on verbs and nouns. Adverbs, adjectives, pronouns and 1 numeral are also found in this category at both levels.

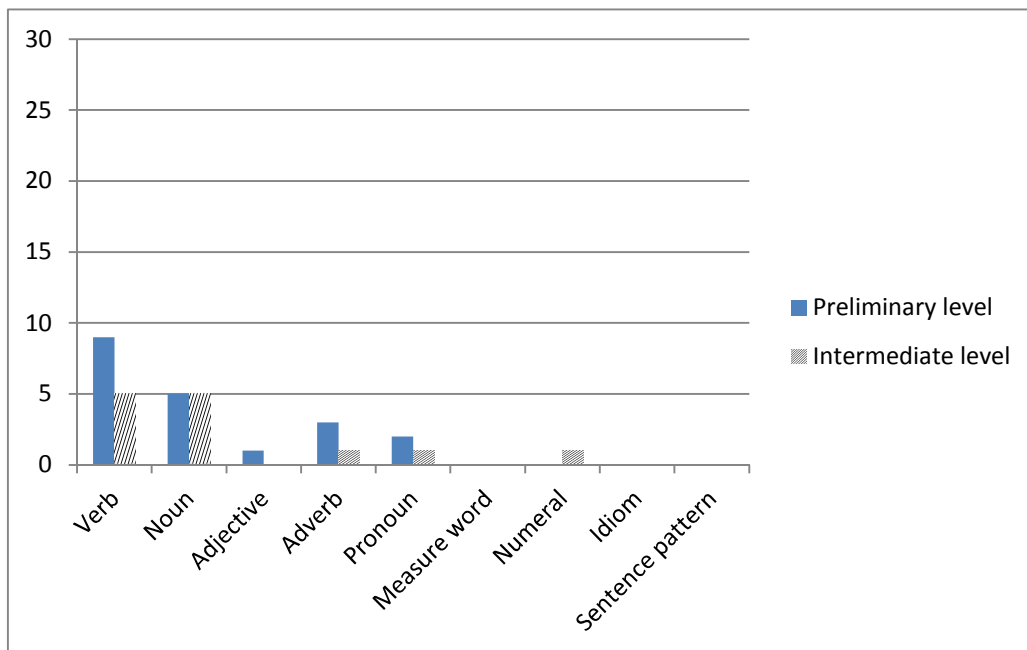


Figure 6.2 Problems with part of speech distribution - connotative meaning
(content word)

6.3.1.3 Field of Meaning

The last sub-category in the semantic meaning category is the field of meaning category. As explained in Chapter 5 (section 5.3.1), the field of meaning mainly concerns the scope of meaning (general/broad or specific/narrow) and the usage of words (fixed collocation). There are 6 translation problems at the preliminary level and 3 at the intermediate level. For example, at the preliminary level, "快递" (kuàidì) in Chinese is a postal term referring to express delivery services. It is a broad definition which includes all kinds of express delivery services. In China, there are many express companies, such as STO (Shentong Express Delivery Company), SF (Shunfeng Express Delivery Company) as well as EMS (China Post). The given translation "EMS" (also shown in section 6.2.2) only refers to one express delivery service under the general definition of "快递" (kuàidì). Thus the translation constitutes a non-equivalent relationship between the original broad definition "快递" (kuàidì) and the specific kind "EMS". Another example found at the intermediate level is "拉" (lā), a verb in Chinese to indicate the action

of playing a musical instrument with a bow. It is a fixed construction, "拉" (lā) and "musical instrument with a bow". When translated as "play", this fixed collocation should be pointed out to distinguish "拉" (lā) from other Chinese verbs which also can be translated as "play" (such as 打 dǎ (play + ball game), 下 xià (play + Chinese chess) and 弹 tán (play + keyboard instrument) etc). The selection of meaning in different collocations is a considerable challenge and a common translation problem in Chinese and English translation activities. In this category, most of the problems at the preliminary level centre on nouns, which constitute 67% of the problems, while at the intermediate level, 2 problems related to verbs have been found.

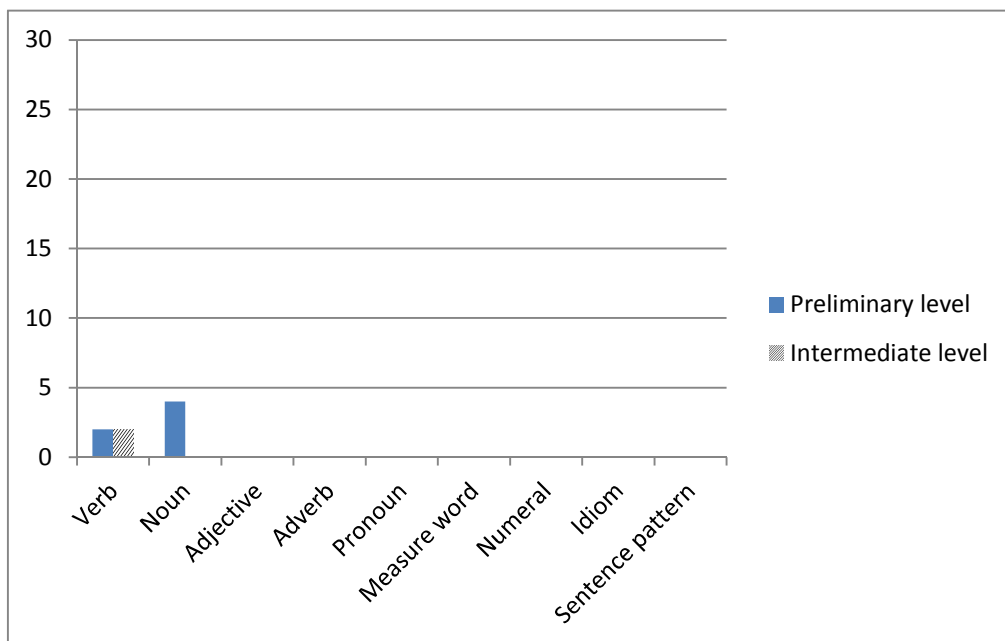


Figure 6.3 Problems with part of speech distribution – field of meaning (content word)

In summary, as shown above, most of the translation problems in the content word class were located in the semantic meaning category, which constituted 79% of the total problems in the content word class. Among other sub-categories, the lexical meaning category features a higher rate of problems than others, constituting 69% and 71% of the total problems in the semantic meaning of both

the preliminary and intermediate levels. The connotative meaning category was also characterized by a high rate of problems, constituting approximately 24% of the total problems in the semantic meaning category. Problems in the field of meaning are fewer than in the other sub-categories, only constituting 6% of the total problems in the semantic meaning category of both levels. In the semantic meaning category of content word class, most problems centre on verbs, followed by measure words at the preliminary level and nouns at the intermediate level. Adjectives, adverbs, pronouns and numeral problems were also found at the preliminary level. No problems regarding other parts of speech were found in this category.

6.3.2 Pragmatic Meaning Category

In the pragmatic meaning category, there are 12 items at the preliminary level and 11 items at the intermediate level. As explained in the theoretical framework, in this study the pragmatic meaning category mainly involves contextual factors (general context and specific context). The specific context in this study refers to a phrase, a collocation, a sentence and a text. Thus, translation problems in the pragmatic meaning category concern improper meaning selection/translation strategies in the specific context. Polysemy refers the fact of having more than one meaning (polysemy: 2009). Polysemy can be found in both Chinese and English vocabulary systems. Thus the selection of meaning should be according to the specific context. For example, at the preliminary level, "打" (dǎ) in Chinese is a polysemous verb. Its lexical meaning can be explained as "strike, beat or hit". But when applied in different contexts (collocations), the meaning of "打" (dǎ) varies from "play (ball games)" to "phone someone". In the given context, "打" (dǎ) is used in front of "telephone" to form a fixed collocation "打电话" (dǎ diàn huà) which means "make a phone call to someone". Thus the given translations of "strike, beat" are not suitable in the given context. Another example "出" (chū) at the intermediate level is also a typical example within the pragmatic meaning

category. The lexical meaning of "出" (chū) can be explained as "go/come out" when used in a sentence about outward direction (e.g. 外出 (wàichū) go out). The given context "情人眼里出西施" (qíngrényǎnlǐchūxīshī) is a Chinese idiom which means that the beloved one is always seen as beautiful by his/her lover. "出" (chū) in this context is properly translated as "seems to be" for demonstrating the specific figurative meaning. The above problems in the pragmatic meaning category mainly concern the contextual meaning of polysemous words. In the pragmatic meaning category, most of the translation problems for both levels centre on nouns, constituting 48% of the total number of translation issues at both the preliminary and intermediate levels. Verbs also attract a higher rate than others, which constitute 26%. Adverbs, adjectives, pronouns and measure words also have been found within the pragmatic meaning category. In this category, more problems have been found at the preliminary level, constituting 52% of the total pragmatic category issues at both the preliminary and intermediate levels. Problems in the pragmatic meaning category constitute 13% of the total problems in the content word class, fewer than those in the semantic meaning category.

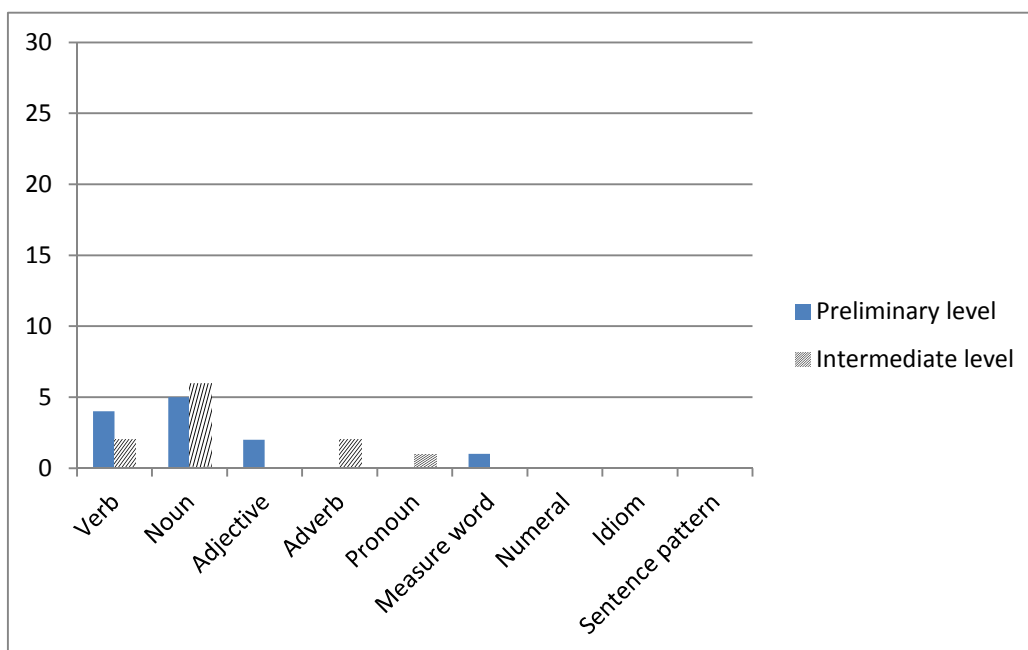


Figure 6.4 Problems with part of speech distribution – pragmatic meaning (content word)

6.3.3 Grammatical Meaning Category

In the grammatical meaning category, as shown in table 6.2, there are more problems at the preliminary level than those at the intermediate level. At the preliminary level, there are 9 translation problems, while at the intermediate level, there are 5 problems. The problems in the grammatical meaning category were primarily related to the replacement of grammatical elements and problems concerning part of speech. For example, at the preliminary level, both "二" (èr) and "两" (liǎng) in Chinese are used as numerals which refer to the meaning of "two". Although having the same lexical meaning, "二" (èr) and "两" (liǎng) have a different grammatical function. Thus, the given translation "two" can not attain the equivalent standard of "二" (èr) and "两" (liǎng). "二" (èr) can be used independently but "两" (liǎng) cannot. "二" (èr) is used when expressing a serial/ordinal number (e.g. 二 èr (number two), 第二 dìèr (the second one)) while "两" (liǎng) is used in front of a measure word to express the quantity of "two" (两个人 liǎngèrén (two people), 两天 liǎngtiān (two days)). This distinctive grammatical explanation should be provided to ensure that the terms are applied appropriately. Another notable problem within the grammatical meaning category is the non-equivalent part of speech relationship between the original Chinese word and its translation. For example, at the preliminary level, "后来" (hòulái) in the given context of the selected material is an adverb to indicate a later time. The given translation "later" and "afterwards" are also adverbs in English and properly convey the original meaning of the Chinese term. However, the given part of speech, "noun", is incorrect and does not maintain the equivalent relationship between the original Chinese word and its translation. Such problems may also lead to misuse problems by learners and affect their learning outcomes. This grammatical information for words or sentence patterns is important for maintaining the consistency both of the original Chinese words/sentence patterns and the translated versions. At the preliminary level, most problems centre on measure words and numerals, followed by two verbs and one noun. At the

intermediate level, there are problems concerning verbs, nouns, adverbs and numerals. The whole category of grammatical meaning constitutes 8% of the total problems in the content word class. Both the pragmatic and grammatical meaning categories have fewer problems than the semantic meaning category.

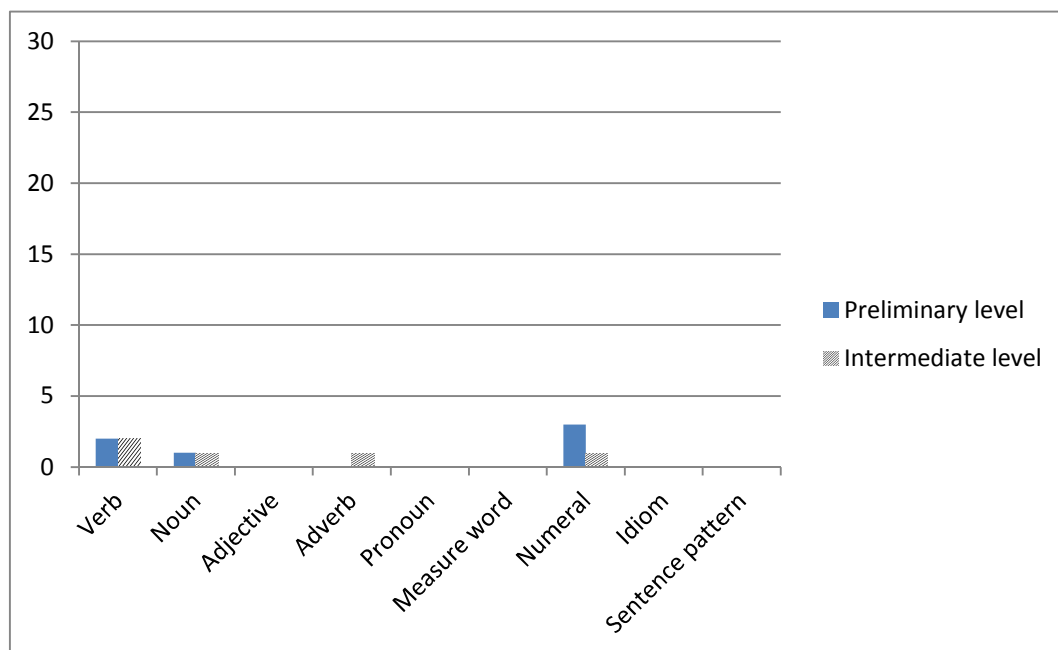


Figure 6.5 Problems with part of speech distribution – grammatical meaning (content word)

In summary, the content word translation problems within the selected materials have reflected the common systematic translation problems between Chinese and English. Most of the translation problems in the content word class were linguistic translation problems (semantic translation problems and grammatical translation problems). As explained from section 6.3.1 to section 6.3.3, most of the translation problems occurred at the preliminary level, especially in the semantic meaning categories. Problems in the pragmatic meaning category are very similar in terms of number at both the preliminary and intermediate levels of the selected materials, while in the grammatical meaning category, more problems have been found at the preliminary level.

For both levels, most of the problems centre on verbs, constituting 29% and 18% of the total problems found for each level. Verbs can be considered as one of the most important word classes in the Chinese vocabulary system (Yang, 2006: 119). According to Outline of Chinese Vocabulary, there are approximate 2800 verbs and 3800 nouns which constitute 32% and 43% of the total words in the language. Common translation problems related to verbs and nouns mainly concern improper translation strategies (e.g. word-for-word translation), meaning selection (e.g. polysemes or synonyms) and usage (e.g. fixed collocation). For this study, most translation problems concerning verbs at the preliminary level have been found in the semantic meaning category (lexical meaning, connotative meaning, and field meaning) and in the pragmatic meaning category while at the intermediate level, one more problem has been found in the grammatical meaning category as well. Problems concerning nouns have been found in all three categories, followed by a large amount of verb problems. Besides the translation problems concerning verbs and nouns, problems concerning measure words have also reached higher rates of frequency than other parts of speech at the preliminary level, while at the intermediate level, adverbs were ranked 3rd (verbs and nouns were ranked 1st and 2nd) in terms of the issues they caused. Compared with English, measure words are a more widespread grammatical phenomenon in the Chinese grammatical system (Wang, 2001: 63; Wang, 2011: 2). In the Chinese vocabulary system, there are about 789 measure words and approximately 130 of them are frequently used in modern Chinese and Chinese teaching. Measure words are considered to be great challenge both for Chinese teachers and learners of Chinese (Yang, 2013: 111). In Chinese, there are nominal measure words (to indicate units of persons or things) and verbal measure words (to indicate the frequency of an action). As measure words cannot be used as isolated elements in a sentence, in most cases measure words cannot be translated by a single word or phrase. In the selected materials, most translation problems in the measure word category occurred due to a direct translation by single words or phrases, rather than providing a proper grammatical explanation. Insufficient explanations may

affect a student's learning outcomes in the context of Chinese vocabulary and lead to incorrect applications of measure words in everyday life. Adverbs in modern Chinese are also considered as one of the most complex word categories due to their complicated semantic changes and variable usage (Quirk et al, 1985: 559). Most of the adverb problems in the study have also been located within the semantic meaning category. The other parts of speech, such as adjective, pronoun and numeral problems have been found in both levels as well. Adjectives in both Chinese and English are commonly used to describe specific qualities (e.g. the shape or characteristic of a person or thing), or abstract concepts (e.g. 优美的风景 "yōuměidefēngjǐng" wonderful scenery; here 优美 "yōuměi" is an abstract concept which can not be identified specifically). The latter category is a particularly difficult element in Chinese adjective translation research (Han, 1991: 119). The majority of adjective translation problems found in the study belong to the latter category. Pronouns in the Chinese grammatical system are used less than those in English (Huo, 2004: 126). Most pronoun translation problems in Chinese centre on their ellipsis in sentence translation (ibid). When applied to the vocabulary research field, the translation problems mainly concern their semantic meaning, such as lexical meaning and application (written or oral). Pronoun problems in the study are in accordance with common pronoun translation problems from Chinese to English as a whole (e.g. a lack of annotation regarding oral use in the stylistic meaning category). Numeral translation in vocabulary primarily refers to its semantic meaning and grammatical meaning (Li, 2012: 6). The translation problems identified in the study with regard to the numeral category mainly centred on time meaning and grammatical usage which reflected common Chinese-English issues in numeral translation as a whole. Besides translation problems, problems concerning sentence patterns and Chinese idioms also featured at preliminary and intermediate levels. Sentence patterns are also a component in compiling vocabulary lists from TCFL textbooks. The translation of sentence patterns is commonly explained in Chinese grammar courses. When a sentence pattern appears on a textbook vocabulary list, a simple explanation of its

grammatical function and fixed collocation should be included. Problems that were identified in the selected materials included inappropriate explanations (e.g. a lack of annotation to emphasize fixed collocations in a sentence pattern). Idiom is a specific category in the Chinese vocabulary system with its historical and cultural characteristics, and idiom translation is also considered as an aspect of cultural translation. Idiom translation problems commonly exist within the semantic meaning category. When dealing with idiom translation, both lexical meaning and the idiom's figurative meaning should be presented, otherwise the specific cultural and symbolic meaning cannot be absorbed by learners. In this study, 5 translation problems related to idiom have been found in the semantic meaning category, concerning both pure translation inadequacies and incomplete translation problems. These types of translation problem have also been commonly found in Chinese and English translation research.

6.4 Analysis of the Identified Translation Problems in Function Words

Compared with the content word class, there were far fewer translation problems in the function word class. 14 function word issues were found at the preliminary level and 8 were found at the intermediate level (see table 6.3).

Table 6.3 *Function word problems at the preliminary (P) and intermediate (I) levels*

Function word class			P	I	
Semantic meaning	Value of meaning	Lexical meaning	Inadequacy	4	0
			Inappropriateness	5	3
			Incompleteness	1	2
	Connotative meaning	Affective meaning	0	0	
		Stylistic meaning	1	0	
		Time meaning	0	0	
		Register meaning	0	0	
	Field of meaning		0	1	
Pragmatic meaning			2	0	
Grammatical meaning	Grammatical function		0	0	
	Part of speech		1	2	

Function words are a part of grammar teaching in the Chinese teaching system (Li and Jiang, 2008: 162). As shown in the above table, compared with the intermediate level, most of the translation problems in the function word class have been found at the preliminary level, especially in the inappropriateness category of the semantic meaning category. In the semantic meaning category, most problems occurred in the lexical meaning category for both levels, constituting 68% of the total function word problems at both levels. In the connotative meaning category of the semantic meaning category, only one item was found at the preliminary level while in the field of meaning category of the semantic meaning category, there is one translation problem at the intermediate level. No problems emerged in the other sub-categories of the connotative meaning category for both levels. In the pragmatic meaning category, 2 translation problems were identified at the preliminary level, which is quite different from the

result in the content word class. Compared with the content word class, most sub-categories in the function word class do not have any problems. The following sections will provide an attentive analysis of these problems.

6.4.1 Semantic Meaning Category

In the function word class, most problems emerged in the lexical meaning category, constituting 88% of the total problems within the semantic meaning category.

6.4.1.1 Lexical Meaning

In the inadequacy category, 4 prepositions were found at the preliminary level, while at the intermediate level, no problems were identified. The 4 problems in the inadequacy category centre on both misinterpretation and extra unnecessary information. For example, when "把" (bǎ) is used as a preposition, it exclusively functions as a sentence constituent of a fixed sentence pattern "把 (bǎ) + something or someone" which indicates how a person or thing is dealt with or affected. It is a specific "把" (bǎ) type sentence pattern. The given translation "used to put the object of a verb before it" has only listed the word order of the sentence pattern and is too vague to convey the original meaning. The "把" (bǎ) itself cannot be explained without the explanation of its specific sentence pattern. Another translation problem as regards extra unnecessary information is "除了" (chúle). "除了" (chúle) in Chinese is a polyseme. It indicates both an exclusion and inclusion status according to different contexts. The object after "除了" (chúle) in the given context means that the child has already learnt two languages and been required to learn a third language. All three languages are included in the situation. Thus the translation should indicate the term's inclusion status. The given translation lists four translations (except, but, besides, in addition to) for "除了" (chúle). According to the given context, 'except' and 'but' do not convey the original meaning of the Chinese word and should be removed from the vocabulary

list.

Besides the problems in the inadequacy category, more problems emerged in the inappropriateness category. 5 translation problems were found at the preliminary level and 3 at the intermediate level. For example, at the preliminary level, "嘛" (ma) in Chinese is a particle used at the end of a sentence. It constitutes a fixed sentence pattern "不是 (búshì) ...嘛 (ma)" to indicate that something is obvious. The given translation is adequate to explain the use of "嘛" (ma), but the exclusive usage in a fixed sentence "不是 (búshì) ...嘛 (ma)" to enforce affirmation" should be clarified to give an appropriate explanation of "嘛" (ma). Another example from the intermediate level is "把" (bǎ). "把" (bǎ) has also been discussed in the inadequacy category in the context of insufficient explanation. It also occurs in the inappropriateness category when identified in different contexts within other examples of the selected materials. In this case, "把" (bǎ) is also used as a preposition in ba-type sentence pattern. The given translation "used in a ba-type sentence" has adequately introduced the usage of "把" (bǎ), but without providing a sufficiently detailed explanation "to indicate how a person or thing is dealt with or affected"; the original translation is again too vague and makes very little sense to learners. Thus, the appropriate translation "to indicate how a person or thing is dealt with or affected, ba - type sentence" should be used to ensure that its usage is clear.

The incompleteness category is slightly different from its equivalent in the content word class, as more items have been found at the intermediate level than those at the preliminary level. The incompleteness problems involved in this category mainly concern particles. For example, the particle "了" (le) is a typical example of an issue from the incompleteness category. As explained in Chapter 5, incompleteness mainly refers to uncompleted translations or unfinished explanations. The given translation of "了" (le) is "particle" which merely introduces "了" (le) as a part of speech. Although "了" (le) in Chinese is used as a

particle with no precise lexical meaning, it cannot be merely explained as a "particle". Its complete grammatical explanation, "used as a suffix of a verb to indicate the completion of an action", should be given to ensure greater clarity. Another problem at the intermediate level is a conjunction "一旦" (yídàn). Its given translation, "some day, once", adequately explains the original meaning of "一旦" (yídàn), however, here "一旦" (yídàn) is specifically used to refer to an unfulfilled event. This more complete explanation, "someday, once (an unfulfilled event)" should be included, otherwise the existing definition may lead to misuse problems.

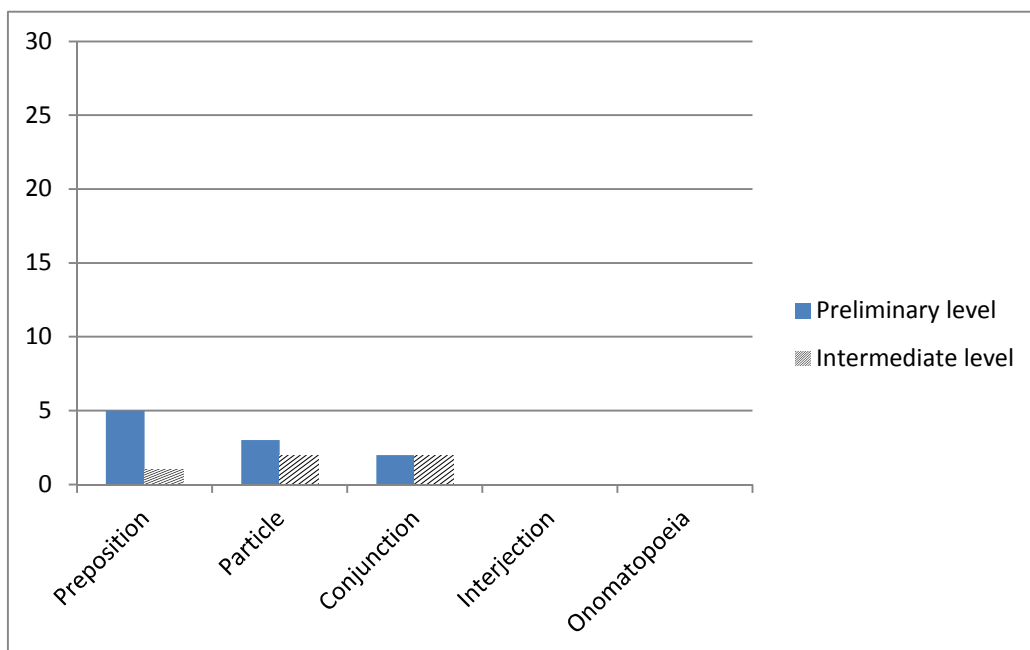


Figure 6. 6 Problems with part of speech distribution - lexical meaning (function word)

6.4.1.2 Connotative Meaning

Besides the problems in the lexical meaning category of the semantic meaning category, there is also one stylistic issue in the connotative meaning category at the preliminary level. The only problem found in the stylistic meaning category is a modal particle. "对了" (duìle) in Chinese is commonly used as a modal particle

to attract the attention of the listener in spoken language. The given translation "by the way" in English has a similar meaning in terms of introducing a new topic to the audience, but the specific usage "only used in spoken language" should be provided for learners to use it properly. No items have been found in the other sub-categories, such as the affective meaning category, the time meaning category and the register meaning category at both levels.

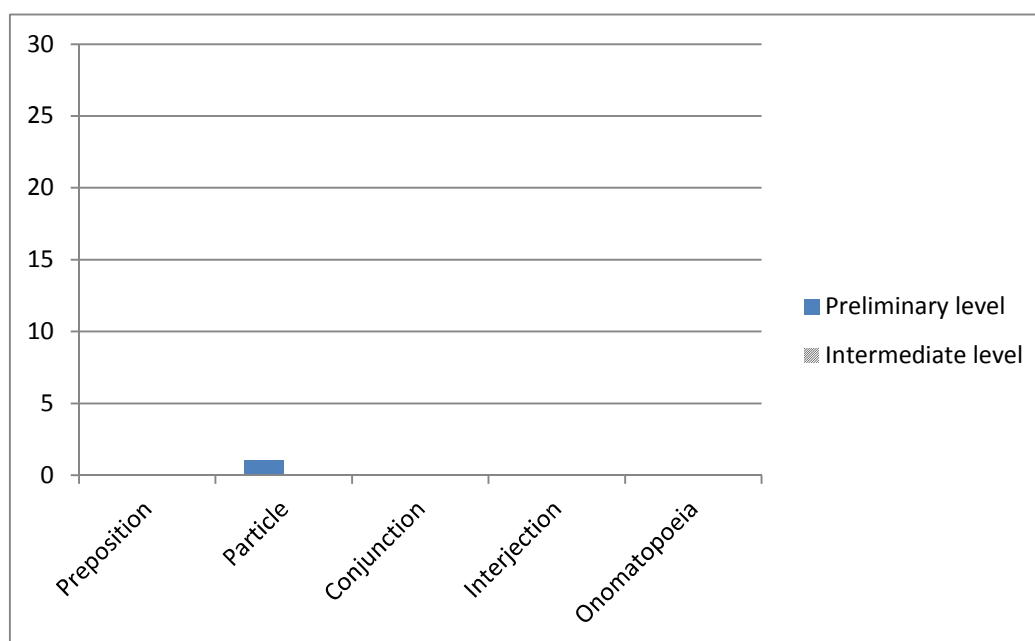


Figure 6.7 Problems with part of speech distribution – connotative meaning (function word class)

6.4.1.3 Field of Meaning

The lexical meaning category and the connotative meaning category constitute most of the problems in the semantic meaning category. The last sub-category in the semantic meaning category is the field meaning category. Only one interjection has been found in the field meaning category at the intermediate level. In Chinese, each interjection expresses a certain feeling or imitates a certain sound. It cannot be used indiscriminately. "喂" (wéi) in Chinese is a polyphone with two tones. When used as a rising tone, it is only used as a speaker's first utterance (like

Hello!) when making or answering a phone call. When used as a falling tone, it is used when calling others or attracting others' attention. The given context concerns answering a phone call. Without any selective restriction on the term's usage, namely specifying that "making or answering a phone call" is involved here, the two given translations of 'hello' and 'hey' create a certain ambiguity with only one of them accurately conveying the original meaning of "喂" (wéi). No problem of this sort was found at the preliminary level, however.

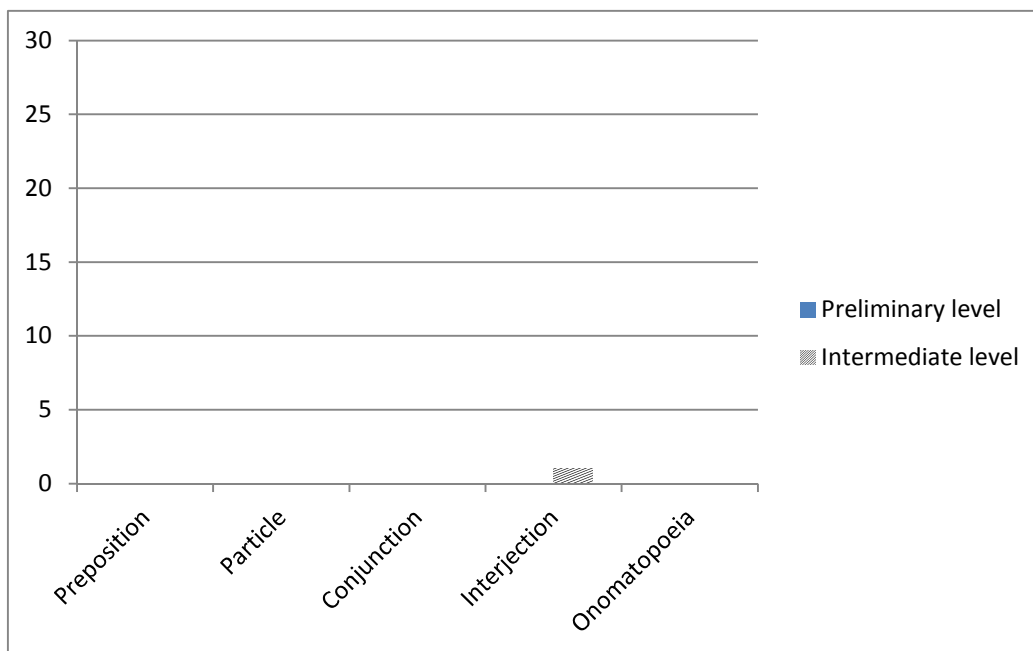


Figure 6.8 Problems with part of speech distribution – field of meaning (function word class)

In summary, the problems in the semantic meaning category mainly occur in the lexical meaning category, especially in the category of inappropriateness for both levels. In the connotative meaning category, there is one problem in the preliminary level while at the intermediate level, one problem was found in the field of meaning category. No problems emerged in the other sub-categories, such as inadequacy and connotation at the intermediate level. From the perspective of parts of speech, most translation problems centred on particles and prepositions, both of which constituted 35% of the total problems in the semantic meaning

category of the function word class. Issues concerning 4 conjunctions and one interjection were identified in this category. No problems concerning other parts of speech were found in the function word class of the selected materials.

6.4.2 Pragmatic Meaning Category

For the pragmatic meaning category, only two translation problems were found at the preliminary level in the function word class. Translation problems in the pragmatic meaning category concern one particle problem and one preposition problem. For example, "了" (le) is a polyseme in the Chinese function word class. Compared with English verbs, Chinese verbs do not have inflection in form. Thus, some particles, such as "了" (le), "着" (zhē), "过" (guò) are commonly used after verbs to add various additional meanings. "了" (le) in the given context is used as a suffix to indicate the completion of an action. The given translation "used in conjunction with "得" or "不" after a verb to express possibility or impossibility" is also an explanation of "了" (le) but is not suitable for the given context. Another preposition problem, "跟" (gēn), is also a polyseme in the Chinese function word class. When used as a preposition, it can be translated as either "with" or "from" in different contexts. The given context illustrates that the speaker would like to learn calligraphy from someone. Thus the translation of "跟" (gēn) should be "from" to indicate the "teach and learn" relationship. The pragmatic translation problems in the function word class were far fewer than those in the content word class. The problems in the content word class were 10 times those in the function word class.

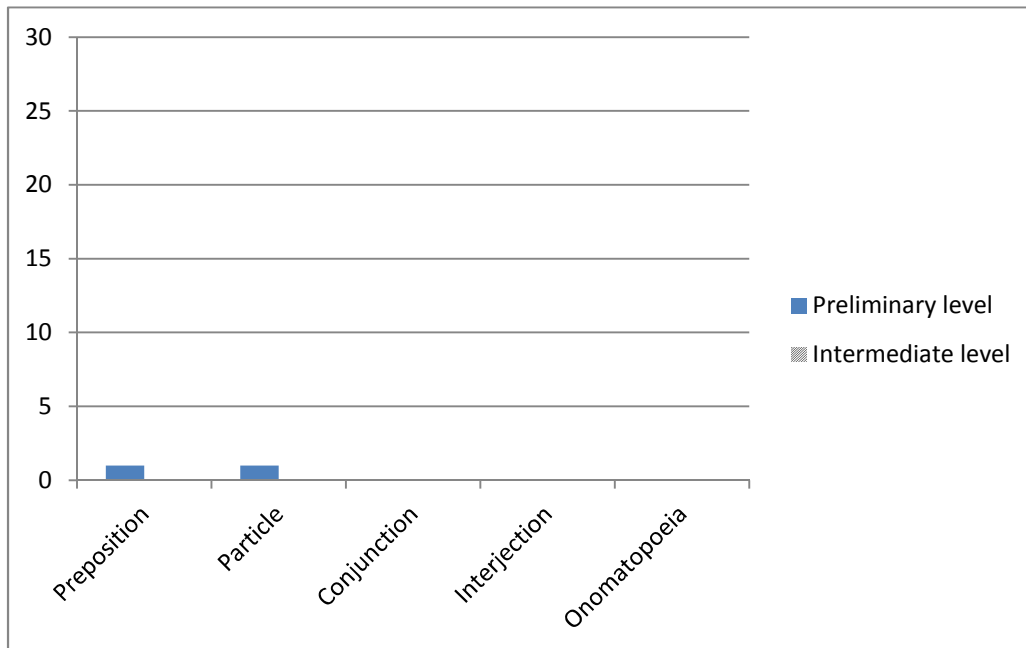


Figure 6.9 Problems with part of speech distribution – pragmatic meaning (function word class)

6.4.3 Grammatical Meaning Category

Three problems related to part of speech and translation have been found in the function word class. The problems identified in this category concern one particle, one conjunction and one interjection. As explained in Chapter 5, most translation problems in the study concern more than one category. For example, at the preliminary level, 了 (le) has been identified as a translation problem again in another context. In this given context, it also refers to the completion of an action. However, as the part of speech "particle" was omitted in the vocabulary lists this time, it has been categorized as a translation problem in the grammatical meaning category. Another example, "嘘" (xū), is also an omission problem of a part of speech. It was also a translation problem in the incompleteness category, as "Shh" only explained the original Chinese word "嘘" (xū) in terms of its pronunciation. The functional meaning "to stop something or express opposition to something" should also be provided to avoid any misunderstanding. In the grammatical meaning of the function word class, no problems concerning other parts of speech

were found in the selected materials.

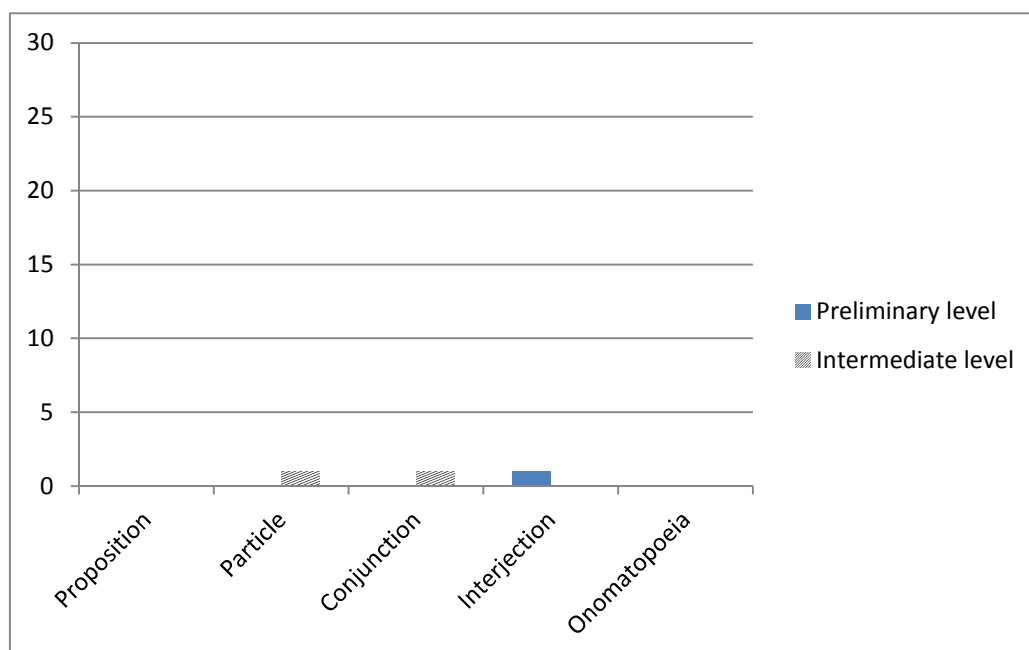


Figure 6.10 Problems with part of speech distribution – grammatical meaning (function word class)

In summary, there are fewer problems in the function word class than those in the content word class. Most problems emerged at the preliminary level, especially in the semantic meaning category. In the semantic meaning category, the inappropriateness category contained more problems than other sub-categories for both levels. For the connotative meaning and field of meaning categories, each of them contained one problem, while for the pragmatic and grammatical meaning categories, 2 problems were found for each category. Unlike the content word class, no problems were identified in most sub-categories of both levels (affective meaning, time meaning, register meaning and function categories). In the content word class, besides the time meaning category of the preliminary level and the register meaning category of the intermediate level, translation problems were identified in all other categories and sub-categories at both levels.

The use of "function words" also plays an important role in the Chinese language

and grammatical system. Such words do not carry concrete lexical meaning, but play a key role in constituting a sentence by syntactic function. Most translation problems in the function word class (e.g. particle, preposition, conjunction and interjection) mainly concern insufficient explanations at a grammatical function level (e.g. fixed collocation) (Xing, 2005; Liu, 2011; Yang, 2014). From the perspective of parts of speech, most problems in the function word class concerned particles (in the inappropriateness category, incompleteness category, stylistic meaning category and pragmatic meaning category of the preliminary level, and the inappropriateness category, incompleteness category and grammatical meaning category of the intermediate level) constituting 36% of the total problems in the function word class. Prepositions also reached a notably higher problem rate than other parts of speech, constituting 32% of the total problems in this category. Issues related to five conjunctions and two interjections were also found in the function word class. Translation problems related to particles, prepositions and conjunctions found in the study were in accordance with common translation problems identified in broader Chinese - English translation research. In the Chinese grammar system, interjections mainly express different emotions, such as astonishment, surprise, joy and anger, etc (Yang, 2003: 24). They can either be used as an independent sentence or be placed at the beginning/end of a sentence to represent the mood and meaning of the sentence (ibid). Translation problems centring on interjections mainly take the form of a lack of explanation of their syntactic function. As found in the selected materials examined in the study, the interjection problems have been caused by either translation purely at a phonetic level or inappropriate usage. No information about its syntactic function and its usage has been provided, which leads to a non-equivalent translation problem within common interjection translation problems. No problems involving other parts of speech in the function word class were located in the selected materials.

In summary, the analysis in sections 6.3 and 6.4 has shown that more translation

problems have been found at the preliminary level, approximately 1.5 times as many as those at the intermediate level. From the perspective of word classes, there are more problems concerning the content word class than the function word class. This indicates that clear differences exist between preliminary level/intermediate level and content word/function word classes, an observation that answers the initial part of the last research question: Are there any differences between the translation problems at the preliminary level/intermediate level and in the content word class/function word class? The following sections will illustrate how these differences have been generated from the perspective of cross – cultural communication, and will apply these findings to TCFL pedagogical practice and translation activities.

6.5 Possible Reasons for the Problems

Previous chapters and analysis have indicated that non – equivalent translation problems exist within the selected TCFL textbooks, but the phenomena causing these issues are not limited to this specific medium. There are many possible reasons which lead to insufficient translation outcomes, such as cultural and linguistic differences between the Chinese and English language systems, the educational background of editors and translators and the lack of input from native English speakers during the compilation and editing process of these textbooks. The following sections will firstly discuss cross–cultural communication factors which may lead to non – equivalent translation problems in Chinese and English translation activities.

Translation has been considered as a "communicative device" which concerns more than one language (Chen, 2012: 17). As Firth (1956: 135) put it, "the fact is, translation is a necessity on economic and on general human grounds." Thus translation can be seen as a cross – cultural communication activity. The differences between two different languages cannot be studied in isolation from

the socio-cultural environment in which languages are produced (Huang, 2012: 40). Many key differences between Chinese and English can be attributed to the individual characteristics both of language itself, but also of culture. The following paragraphs will illustrate possible reasons which lead to non-equivalent translation problems from language and cultural perspectives.

6.5.1 Non – correspondence Between Chinese and English in Language Systems

Translation had often been assumed to be an activity that could accurately convey the meaning of a text from one language into another "as long as the translator uses a good bilingual dictionary" (Chen, 2012: 19). Unfortunately, equivalence in language translation is difficult to achieve and is subject to countless misinterpretations. For example, direct translations in many situations are impossible to achieve because a word may have more than one meaning, or because some cultural values and orientations may lead to direct translation becoming nonsensical.

Vocabulary systems in different languages present different characteristics. Chinese vocabulary characteristics and formation are different from those in Indo-European language systems (e.g. English). Chinese is an isolating and analytical language while English is an inflectional and synthetic language (Xing, 2011: 49). Isolating or analytic languages refer to languages "in which grammatical concepts and relationships are expressed chiefly through the use of free morphemes" (Zapata, 2000: 1). These languages consist of single morphemes and each morpheme constitutes a word with a separate meaning. Affixes and tenses are generally not used to compose words. Instead, the position of a word and word order are important in constructing sentences and in reflecting the function and meaning. Inflectional or synthetic languages are languages in which "the affixes and the base to which they are attached are fused together and

therefore are not easily separated from one another" (ibid). This is to say that words in inflectional languages are continuous, making it hard to find where one word ends and where the other begins. Affix and tense are commonly applied in conveying various meanings. As discussed in Chapter 2, more than 80% of modern Chinese words are compound words. Most of these compound words are also polysemous and reduplicative words. These are generally different from the English vocabulary system, for example. In the English vocabulary system, most words have been formed by affixes. More than 80% of English words and affixes (e.g. anti - dis - establ - ish - ment - ar - ian - ism) are loan words which have been generated from ancient Latin, ancient Greek and from other languages (Xing, 2011: 44, 50).

Chinese compound words are formed by two or more single morphemes. For most cases, the part of speech and the meaning of compound words are in accordance with their compositions, but are not strictly limited to this. In English, however, the part of speech is normally determined by roots and suffixes. Differences in the formation style of words between Chinese and English show that in English, there are strict rules for part of speech classification and such characteristics establish patterns in grouping words and sentence making (e.g. verbs are only used to affect the object of a sentence while nouns can be either the subject or object of a sentence). In comparison, Chinese parts of speech and meanings are more flexible and cannot be merely judged by their components (e.g. a compound word formed by two verbs can be either a verb or a noun; the same compound word can be a verb, a noun, an adjective, an adverb, a preposition or a conjunction in different contexts). In the Chinese vocabulary system, most compound words are polysemous. In most cases, a single Chinese word or the morphemes of a compound word possess more than one meaning (e.g. lexical meaning and connotative meaning). The meaning of a compound word varies from a combination of the meaning of each component to an entirely new meaning different from any component. In the Chinese vocabulary system, the same

Chinese word can be used to form many compound words when combined with different words. For example, a Chinese word "红 hóng" (red) can be used together with many other single words to form different compound words (table 6.4 & 6.5):

Table 6.4 Style 1 of Chinese compound word

Single word	Single word	Compound word
红 hóng (red)	色 sè (colour)	红色 hóngsè red colour
	眼 yǎn (eye)	红眼 hóngyǎn red eye (be jealous of)
	人 rèn (person)	红人 hóngrén famous person
	颜 yán (appearance)	红颜 hóngyán female friend

Table 6.5 Style 2 of Chinese compound word

Single word	Single word	Compound word
红 hóng (red)	深 shēn (deep)	深红 shēnhóng crimson
	暗 àn (dark)	暗红 ànhóng burgundy
	樱桃 yīngtáo (cherry)	樱桃红 yīngtáohóng cherry

Although these compound words possess the same component, the meaning varies. In the Chinese vocabulary system, most of these compound words are verbs/adjectives plus other words (Dong, 2005: 24). In the English vocabulary system, there are many absolute/partial synonyms. Compared with Chinese which tends to present different meanings by using the same word, English possesses many synonyms to fulfil the above function. Such differences in lexical structure and word formation create difficulties for language learners in vocabulary

learning activities and it is therefore essential that the compilers and writers of textbooks emphasize clearly which particular meaning of a polysemous term is relevant to the context being studied by a learner. All too often, in the textbooks analysed in this research, a range of possible meanings was listed, thereby complicating the learning process.

Another significant difference in the Chinese and English vocabulary systems concerns meaning itself and the usage/collocation of the word/morpheme. The meaning of a single word and its subsequent meaning in compound words are different in most situations. For example, "温和" (wēnhé, gentle) in a given context can be explained as gentle or mild; it is used to describe good weather or a kind person. "温" (wēn, temperature) is part of the compound word "温和" (wēnhé, gentle), but it cannot be defined as "gentle" when it appears in its single, non-compound form. Definitions of the same item or thing vary among different languages. For example, "碗" (wǎn, bowl) in Chinese is commonly used as a measure word for food only contained in bowls. There is a clear contextual condition, "food contained in bowls", in the Chinese definition. There are other measure words for food contained in other containers, such as plate, dish, and basin. In English, "bowl" is also used to refer to a container holding food or liquid. But the rigid condition of "food contained in bowls" is not reflected in the definition. Most non-equivalent translation problems in the semantic meaning category have been caused by misunderstandings of words, for example in Chinese, which have a clearly defined meaning which does not transfer conveniently to a ready-made equivalent in a language like English. It is therefore essential that the teams of individuals involved in developing language textbooks have (collectively and/or individually) a profound bilingual awareness of the terminology that they are presenting to learners, and a sensitivity towards aspects of Chinese that do not map smoothly on to equivalent areas in English. The results of the questionnaire surveys answered by teachers of Chinese and the data from the project's corpus both suggest that many of the textbooks analysed in this

research were compromised by insufficient levels of linguistic awareness and sensitivity on the part of the people compiling them.

Together, collocation and usage are an important factor that affects the meaning of words. Different collocations and usages may bring out different meanings from the same word and vice versa. For example, "play" in English has different collocations. When used together with ball games in a given context (e.g. example 49 打籃球 dǎlánqiú – play basketball), it means "打" (dǎ) in Chinese, while in another context (e.g. example 53 拉二胡 lāèrhú – play Erhu (a musical instruments with bows)) it is used with musical instruments and should be translated as "拉" (lā). Besides collocation and usage problems in the semantic meaning category, collocation problems also occurred in the grammatical meaning category. For example, "才" (cái) in Chinese can be used as a noun and an adverb. When used as an adverb to indicate that something has taken place later than the usual, proper or expected time, it should be used together with verbs as a fixed collocation. Thus, the differences of collocation and usage of Chinese and English words may lead to non – equivalent translation problems as well. In terms of this study's findings, most of the non – equivalent translation problems in the field of meaning and grammatical meaning categories were caused by misuse of collocation and usage in Chinese and English. It would therefore be advisable for the compilers and editors of textbooks to pay greater attention to what is evidently a very problematic linguistic area where these two languages are concerned. It is arguable that only native speakers from each language will be sufficiently attuned to the nuances of contextualization and usage in Chinese and English.

6.5.2 Cultural Differences Between Chinese and English

Culture is invisible but can be experienced everywhere. The definition of "culture" varies among different scholars from different languages, beliefs, thinking patterns, existential attitudes, values, customs and religious faiths (Chen, 2009:

125). As the connotation of culture is so broad, a single definition cannot precisely convey the characteristics of culture. According to Almaney and Alwan, although definitive ingredients for culture cannot be precisely defined, cultures can be described according to three categories:

Cultures may be classified by three large categories of elements: artifacts (which include items ranging from arrowheads to hydrogen bombs, magic charms to antibiotics, torches to electric lights, and chariots to jet planes); concepts (which include such beliefs or value systems as right or wrong, God and man, ethics, and the general meaning of life); and behaviours (which refer to the actual practice of concepts or beliefs).

(Almaney & Alwan, 1982 cited in J. P. Chen, 2012: 86)

Besides the above categories, in cross - cultural communication studies, six important characteristics have been summarized from various scholars (see table 6.6): (1) culture is learned, (2) culture is transmissible, (3) culture is dynamic, (4) culture is selective, (5) the facets of culture are interrelated, and (6) culture is ethnocentric.

Table 6.6 Characteristics of culture

Characteristics	Explanation	Example
culture is learned	Consciously or unconsciously learning activities occur in a particular culture.	Children learn table manners from parents
culture is transmissible	Culture is passed on from generation to generation or from one social group to another through cultural symbols.	Rolex watches have evolved into a transcultural symbol of status to some people.
culture is dynamic	Culture changes through the mechanisms of invention and diffusion.	China's development with the world economy from 1970s (opening - up policy) until now (being a member of the WTO), with culinary culture being both imported/absorbed by Chinese society, and also exported.
culture is selective	Every culture tends to select a limited set of behavioural patterns from the infinite patterns of human experience according to its basic assumptions and values.	In China, people tend to say "where are you going?" or "did you have your meal?" as greetings while in the UK, these matters are more private and do

		not form the basis of greetings.
the facets of culture are interrelated	Culture is like a complex system.	Women's movement may be but two simple words, but the phenomenon has brought about changes in different but inter-connected areas such as gender roles, sexual practices and educational opportunities.
culture is ethnocentric	The tendency to believe that one's ethnic or cultural group is more centrally important than other cultural groups.	People from one culture use their own practices as a reference point to evaluate subjectively the behaviour of people from other cultures.

(Samovar, Porter & Stefani, 2000: 37 - 48; McDaniel, Samovar & Porter, 2009: 11 - 13; Chen, 2012: 86).

As implied from the above explanations, culture is unique to ethnic groups and nations. One of the most important elements in any culture is its communication system (verbal and non - verbal systems) (Chen, 2012: 88). Language, which serves as a mechanism for communication, influences the transfer of meanings (ibid). Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language is not only a mode of language teaching, but a mode of cultural teaching as well. In the Chinese teaching and research field, it has gradually become a common belief that the integration of

language and cultural teaching is one of the most fundamental characteristics of current professional TCFL work. (Yuan, 2006: 47). Each culture makes an individual imprint on word systems. Thus the meanings of words have been influenced by a wide variety of interpretations (Chen, 2012: 89). Both Chinese and English have evolved from long and unique histories and cultures, but their differences continue to cause difficulties in translating the meanings of words between the two languages. From a general point of view, meanings of words are influenced by natural geographical environments, historical and cultural traditions, styles of living and working, and by social customs and manners. Such differences have led to non - equivalence problems concerning the meaning of the same word (Xiong, 1997:159). For example, "俺 ǎn" (I) in Chinese is a dialect word commonly used in rural areas. Such dialect words are endowed with natural, geographical, and environmental influences and invariably cause translation problems, with some form of translation loss almost inevitable. Such specific morphemes reflect a unique cultural ethnicity and are charged with a cultural load that is not easy to convey. In most cases, translators are unable to find equivalent items in other languages, and this is the so called "lexical gap" (Huang, 2009: 45). As shown above, "俺" (ǎn) is a specific dialect word in Chinese and an equivalent item in English cannot be found. When translated as "I, me", the dialectal essence of the word cannot be reflected and its contextual usage cannot be learnt. This kind of translation does not accurately convey the original meaning of the Chinese word. Another example of a word with a strong cultural resonance is "胡同" (hútong). "胡同" (hútong) in Chinese refers to a narrow street which only allows one car to pass in a single direction. It was built and used in ancient times and has been kept as an evocative place of cultural–historical importance nowadays. Most "胡同" (hútong) were preserved in northern China, especially in Beijing. Although there were many similar architectural styles in China, "胡同" (hútong) is an official example of Cultural Heritage and has been endowed with a unique cultural status in China. Such cultural information should be listed together with the given translation "alley" to emphasize the term's importance and unique

characteristics.

6.5.3 Subjective Factors Between Chinese and English

Besides the above objective factors that lead to differences between Chinese and English, subjective factors such as mentalities, thinking patterns, people's attitudes towards life and linguistic weaknesses of translators/editors/writers have also contributed to non - equivalent translation problems (Huang, 2009: 44). The thinking process is a mechanism of the human brain which reflects the reality of the surrounding environment (ibid). Language and thoughts are closely related to express and convey information. Every language system has its specific way of understanding the world. It is believed that knowing the language of a nation is also a way to decipher the specific thinking patterns of the nation (Ye and Xu, 1997: 21). The differences in subjective thinking patterns have given rise to differences in languages. Some scholars have suggested that Chinese and English ways of thinking present different features. For example, Chinese culture tends to be introverted, conservative and pays more attention to ethics and morals while Western culture sometimes seems to be more extrovert, open, and with a greater focus on science and reality (Huang, 2009: 46). The common mentality in Chinese culture is collectivism. It emphasizes that individuals should work for the whole team to produce collective benefits. When facing problems, Chinese people tend to place an emphasis on unity and on the need to maintain harmony within the whole group. This collectivism is predicated on morality as the value through which to pursue harmony and unity between people and nature. However, Western culture has taken individualism as its primary belief, emphasizing individual values and independence. Individual identities, actions and independence are prized as individualism emphasizes independent competition based on open, logical and scientific thinking patterns (Nisbett et al, 2001; Sanchez - Burks & Lee et al, 2003; Nisbett, 2004; Ji et al, 2004; Xing, 2011: 171). These two different value systems and ways of thinking have led to differences in languages,

especially in meaning. For example, traditional Chinese culture has been deeply affected by Confucian thoughts. Many respectful and modest words for greeting and addressing people have evolved from harmonious and collective social customs. As shown in Chapter 5, "贵姓" (guìxìng) in Chinese is a polite word to show respect to a person who is being addressed by the speaker, and is a common way of talking to people in China. However, such words do not exist in English; "sir" and "madam" would not be adequate approximations, nor would the use of formulas of politeness that are used with royalty. Therefore, attempts to translate such terms may lead to problems of non-equivalence, and their specific application should therefore be provided to ensure that learners understand their usage.

The educational background of Chinese translators, editors and writers (e.g. linguistic weaknesses in both Chinese and English, and unawareness of culture diversity, etc) are also inevitable subjective factors that affect the quality of translation. The common translation standards require that the translators should adopt prudent and conscientious attitudes, practice translation strategies and techniques, as well as to continue acquiring knowledge (e.g. history, geography, politics and customs, etc) of the target language (Zhang, 2009). However, due to the linguistic and cultural differences between Chinese and English (see section 6.5.1 – 6.5.2), so far the full equivalent standard cannot be said to have been fully achieved. Although in present day society, machine translation or computer-aided translation tools have emerged and developed rapidly in the translation research field, translators and people who use translated works have still been the main focus of translation activities. In terms of the current compilation procedures for TCFL textbooks, all the content of the textbooks (e.g. vocabulary lists, texts, exercises and other sections) has firstly been developed and edited in Chinese, and then translated by translators in other languages (e.g. English, French, Korean, etc). Translation work has always been considered as an activity requiring a high degree of skill, and its quality largely depends on the educational background,

cultural awareness and the capability of the translator (e.g. fluency of English language, translation strategies, Chinese linguistic and grammatical knowledge, etc). For Chinese – English translation work, the common translation strategies are in accordance with Chinese language rules (Li, 2014). It means that the translators mainly emphasize the distinctive character of Chinese (e.g. word, idiom, sentence and text) in forms, collocations and sequences to maintain the original sense of the Chinese work. Such translation approaches invariably result in translation problems centring on literal, word – for – word issues. For example, "有眼不识泰山" (yǒuyànbùshítàishān) from the selected Chinese materials has been bizarrely translated as "have eyes but not see Mountain Tai – entertain an angle unawareness". The first part of the given lexical meaning is a word – for – word translation result (see table 6.7).

Table 6.7 Example of translation of Chinese idiom

Chinese	有 yǒu	眼 yàn	不 bù	识 shí	泰 tài	山 shān
English	have	eyes	not	see	Tai	Mountain

As already mentioned, the second part of the definition contains a serious inaccuracy based on a poor lexical choice (entertain) and a total misunderstanding (angle). However, as regards the first part of the definition, the original lexical meaning of "有眼不识泰山" (yǒuyànbùshítàishān) in fact means that "meeting with Mr Taishan – a famous person but failing to recognize him". "有眼不识" (yǒuyànbùshí) in the original lexical meaning has been paraphrased as "meeting with...but failing to recognize" to both maintain the original meaning of the Chinese idiom and reflect English syntax and grammar to facilitate the comprehension of learners from English-speaking countries. Besides the common Chinese-oriented translation approach, some translators prefer to take the format of English as the particular emphasis for their work. English-oriented translation approaches mean that the translation work should essentially follow English syntax and grammar, its language sounding natural and acceptable to English

speakers. However, the original sense of Chinese (e.g. cultural information or figurative meaning) may be lost due to the changes in original form, collocation or sequences (Liu, 2004). As explained above, "贵姓" (guìxìng) in Chinese is a polite way of enquiring about someone's surname. In accordance with English pragmatic rules, it has been translated as "your honourable surname" in the given Chinese materials. But the phrase makes very little sense in English, appearing as if it is a compliment about someone's name and ancestry, and it is also inadequate in Chinese as "贵" (guì) in the compound word "贵姓" (guìxìng) is just a respectful and formal way of enquiring about someone's name; whether someone's surname is "honourable" or "dishonourable" is not ultimately relevant. In order to maintain the original polite and respectful emphasis, additional information such as "a polite form of address" could be provided rather than attempting to explain the term as "honourable surname". This sort of unawareness of linguistic differences may lead to problems of incomprehension, however, due to the individual training subjective perspectives of translators, it is difficult to overcome completely (Liu, 2004).

Another individual factor affecting translators can be an unawareness of the intricacies of the target culture. Translation cannot be simply considered as a linguistic exchange phenomenon – it is also a process of exchange involving culture and tradition (Yu, 1997). Thus, social culture and customs in both source language and target language should be also taken into consideration by translators. Besides conveying specific Chinese cultural information to learners of Chinese, the translation in the target language is an important consideration as well. For example, "加油" (jiāyóu) in the selected Chinese materials has been translated as "to come on" as a result of free translation. "加油" (jiāyóu) in Chinese is a compound word and a polyseme. The lexical meaning of "加油" (jiāyóu) is to refuel a vehicle or machine. When used in the given context, it is an oral word to encourage people when they are in a race or working. "Come on!" in English has always occurred in spoken language as an imperative to encourage

others, however "to come on" in English as an infinitive (not imperative) is used in rather more specific and sensitive situations (e.g. sexual contexts). Such unawareness of cultural knowledge in the target language should be avoided, as it causes a range of problems. Another example "俺爹俺娘" (ǎndēǎnniáng) has been translated as "my dad and mum". It is a word - for - word translation outcome and in Chinese culture, references to men always come before references to women (Shen, 1994). Thus "my dad and mum" is acceptable in a Chinese context, but in Western culture, for example in English, a more natural translation of the same word in terms of word order would be "my mum and dad". This type of cultural awareness has an important role in enabling translators to avoid any inappropriate translation problems.

Besides the above factors affecting individual translators themselves, the lack of official regulations concerning translation qualifications in a specialized context like the vocabulary translation field cannot be ignored. So far there has not been any official recommendation or requirement in terms of the qualifications and expertise needed at an individual level as a translator or at a team level for compilation work in contexts such as TCFL textbooks. For example there is no guidance as to how proficient individuals should be in Chinese and English, or whether teams of translators should include native speakers of both Chinese and English (and if they do not, should academic advisers in the target language be invited to collaborate?). The issues uncovered by this study suggest that further work must be done in terms of establishing forms of best practice for the translation of TCFL textbooks and vocabulary. The question of accuracy is too important to leave to the discretion of individual publishing companies where the criterion of minimizing costs may well have a detrimental effect on the quality of a company's translation output. The common standards and rules for qualified translators are designed for the general purpose of translation, but specific requirements or principles for specific purposes, for example, compiling and translating TCFL textbooks, should also be formulated for improving the quality

of vocabulary translation.

In summary, the vocabulary translation problems between two different languages are difficult (but not impossible) to overcome due to external and individual factors such as linguistic differences, cultural differences and the educational background of translators. These cross-cultural communication factors and issues can be mitigated if they are taken into consideration with appropriate translation strategies when dealing with bilingual works to achieve an effect of functional equivalence.

6.6 Summary of the Chapter

In this chapter, a detailed comparative analysis of non - equivalent translation problems at the preliminary/intermediate levels and in the content/function word classes has been provided to continue the verification of research question (3) Are there any differences between the translation problems at the preliminary level/intermediate level and in the content word class/function word class, and how can these findings be applied to improve the quality of vocabulary translation in TCFL textbooks? As shown above in tables 6.1 and 6.2, the higher percentage of translation problems at the preliminary level indicates that compared with translation problems at the intermediate level, more translation problems occurred at the preliminary level, the rate being approximately 1.5 times that of the problems at the intermediate level of the selected TCFL textbooks. Compared with the function word class, the content word class constituted most of the problems for both the preliminary and intermediate levels. For both content word class and function word class, the semantic meaning category contained more non - equivalent translation problems than any other sub - categories, followed by the pragmatic meaning category and grammatical meaning category.

From the perspective of parts of speech, in the content word class, most of the

problems centred on verbs at both the preliminary and intermediate levels, followed by measure words at the preliminary level and nouns at the intermediate level. Adverbs at both levels are also characterized by high rates of problems, more so than other parts of speech. Issues with adjectives, pronouns and numerals were found at both levels in the content word class. Besides the parts of speech mentioned above, there were problems with 5 sentence patterns and 5 idioms at both levels. In the function word class, most problems at both preliminary and intermediate levels centred on particles. At the preliminary level, prepositions also had a high rate while at the intermediate level, there was only one preposition problem. Issues with conjunctions and interjections were also found at both levels. The differences between the preliminary/intermediate levels and content word/function word classes have shown that based on the non-equivalent translation problems gathered from the selected TCFL textbooks, the preliminary level and the content word class have more problems than those in the intermediate level and the function word class.

Besides comparative analyses of translation problems at the preliminary/intermediate levels and in the content word/function word classes, the linguistic differences between the Chinese and English language systems, the differing cultural factors, the individual backgrounds of translators, and the probable lack of input from English native speakers and from professional teachers in the textbook compilation process have also been analysed to identify possible reasons that lead to insufficient translation outcomes. Some suggestions from translation perspectives and linguistics-based approaches (e.g. paying attention to lexical differences between Chinese and English, using bilingual dictionaries/corpora for meaning selection, and improving cultural awareness) have also been provided as possible ways to overcome translation problems and to improve the accuracy of vocabulary translation.

Chapter 7 Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

This research has investigated a range of key issues related to the accuracy of the vocabulary lists featured in the 12 selected, representative TCFL textbooks for teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language. Its innovative approach has centred on collecting and analysing feedback from teaching practitioners, and on using corpus-based data to assess the consistency and accuracy of vocabulary translation in order to consider the implications of the use of these textbooks from a pedagogical perspective. As discussed in the previous chapters, research on Teaching Chinese as a Foreign language has gained considerable momentum in the last few decades. Vocabulary teaching and learning are important elements in the process of second language acquisition, especially in the Chinese context, and TCFL textbooks are the main sources of vocabulary learning for non-native learners of Chinese. Issues of translation that impact upon the vocabulary learning process of non-native students of Chinese have attracted considerable attention from scholars in the linguistics and translation fields. This thesis has sought to contribute to this field by examining words with their corresponding translations and additional explanations from vocabulary lists as research objects, and supplementing this process by incorporating empirical evidence based on the viewpoints of teachers regarding these teaching materials. Referencing previous research into Chinese-English translation problems, including translation issues centring on the function word class (Mi, 2013), and on the frequent, recurring inadequacies caused by inappropriate translation which create problems for learners (Wang, 2012), this study has identified the main categories of translation problems within TCFL textbooks at the preliminary level and the intermediate level, and has outlined how these findings can assist the future teaching of Chinese, as well as improve the processes of TCFL textbook compilation. This study has not only identified specific areas where translation quality can be

improved throughout the selected TCFL textbooks, but has also formulated the findings into practical applications, for example to provide a new focus for the compilation of TCFL textbooks. Through investigating the identified non-equivalent translation problems, the study has indicated that there are different types of translation problems between preliminary / intermediate level in the existing TCFL textbooks. For example, at the preliminary level, more translation equivalence problems appear, whilst at the intermediate level, more translations of vocabulary items only seem to be partially acceptable to the participants in the project's empirical research. In addition, the design of the evaluation framework and unique nature of the corpus have made innovative contributions to the Chinese-English vocabulary translation research field, the Chinese teaching field, as well as to research into – and the compilation of – TCFL textbooks.

This chapter will firstly summarize the major findings of the three empirical chapters (Chapters 4, 5 and 6) of the study, and then highlight the thesis's original contributions to the previous scholarly literature in this area and the practical applications of this research. In the final part of this conclusion, an overview of potential future research areas will be outlined for further investigation.

7.2 Overview of the Key Findings of the Study

This research has used mixed research methods, such as questionnaires, assessment tests, and corpus research methods to develop a contrastive analysis of Chinese-English vocabulary translation. There are three correlated cases in the study. The key findings of the analysis from the empirical chapters (Chapters 4, 5 and 6) are summarized below. These empirical chapters have addressed the three research questions proposed in this study: (1) What are the pedagogical perspectives of teaching practitioners regarding translation as a teaching method in Chinese vocabulary teaching? (2) What kinds of translation problems are there

within TCFL textbooks at preliminary level and intermediate level? (3) Are there any differences between the translation problems at the preliminary level/intermediate level and in the content word class/function word class, and how can these findings be applied to improve the quality of vocabulary translation in TCFL textbooks?

The following paragraphs will present a summary of these findings in detail.

7.2.1 Findings of Questionnaire Survey Data

Chapter 4 illustrated the importance of the questionnaire survey for the study and answered the project's first research question: (1) What are the pedagogical perspectives of teaching practitioners regarding translation as a teaching method in Chinese vocabulary teaching? The aim of the questionnaire survey was to ascertain current practices in terms of vocabulary teaching and to elicit the viewpoints of teachers concerning the translation of vocabulary within TCFL textbooks. The findings of the questionnaire survey identified that: 1) vocabulary teaching continues to be a primary activity in the TCFL field, in terms of the time dedicated to it and the importance placed on it by practitioners; 2) the translation of the vocabulary lists in current commonly used TCFL textbooks is often problematic as non-equivalent translation problems consistently recur, and practitioners clearly have doubts about the accuracy of vocabulary translation in these textbooks; and 3) translation problems are considered to be an influential factor which may affect the academic performance and learning outcomes of learners of Chinese throughout their vocabulary learning activities.

Firstly, all the participants are qualified Chinese teachers and are very familiar with the materials and content used for delivering Chinese teaching. With years of teaching experience, they can give academic advice and considered opinions on issues that have emerged in the process of teaching Chinese; the questionnaire

survey developed as part of this project provided them with a unique opportunity to raise concerns such as the vocabulary translation problems that have emerged in this aspect of their teaching. As stated in Chapter 2, vocabulary is always considered a primary task of Chinese teaching, and in recent years vocabulary translation in TCFL textbooks has been systematically added as a tool to assist non-native learners of Chinese (Zhao, 1997; Xing, 2011: 32). In the Chinese language system, vocabulary is one of the three essential elements (pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar) of Chinese learning. Whether for native Chinese speakers or non-native learners of Chinese, vocabulary learning is an obligatory and key stage of language learning (Chinese is a compulsory module for Chinese nationals), especially for non-native learners of Chinese at beginners level (Zhu and Zhao, 2010: 36–37).

Secondly, the study has focused on exploring non-equivalent translation problems from the selected TCFL textbooks. Previous studies (e.g. Xing's contrastive analysis between Chinese and English) have shown that translation problems have always existed in Chinese–English translation activities. But whether such translation problems are a common phenomenon across TCFL material or are specific to the selected textbooks could not be definitively confirmed without systematic exploration. The participants in the questionnaire survey are all qualified Chinese teachers in the TCFL field who are either equipped with considerable professional knowledge or extensive and practical teaching experience. They have encountered many pedagogical and practical problems with Chinese words and phrases and their corresponding English translations, and are able to identify translation problems and their impact on the effectiveness of a student's learning of Chinese from preliminary level to advanced level. Their authoritative responses have shown that vocabulary translation problems are common across current TCFL textbooks and are unlikely to be limited to the selected materials. These translation problems reflect common translation problem types and inevitably exist due to linguistic differences between Chinese and

English. Therefore exploring the translation problems of vocabulary in current TCFL textbooks becomes a compelling reason for improving the translation quality of this aspect of study material and ultimately for enhancing the learning process.

Thirdly, as learnt from previous studies and summarized in Chapter 2, translation has long been considered to be an influential factor during learners' acquisition processes of foreign languages. For students of foreign languages, especially for adult learners, their proficiency and fluency in their mother tongue language or first language (L1) unavoidably affect their comprehension of a second language (Zhu and Zhao, 2010: 36–37). The learning process and its ultimate results will therefore be affected by the quality of vocabulary translation and the existing translation problems, whether in the selected TCFL materials or in other materials, may lead to problems of misunderstanding in vocabulary learning and also problems of misuse in vocabulary application. The findings of the questionnaire surveys indicate that the vocabulary translations featured in high quality TCFL textbooks will cultivate within non–native learners of Chinese the ability to select, understand and analyse the meaning of a word, and will help non–native learners of Chinese to use Chinese words to communicate effectively (Zhu and Zhao, 2010: 53–55). These findings are in accordance with previous academic studies and confirm the rationale and feasibility of the study in both theoretical and practical terms. The influence and impact of vocabulary learning on the academic performances of learners could also form the basis of a follow–up study.

7.2.2 Findings of Corpus Data

In order to carry out the evaluation work of the selected materials, a corpus of the selected TCFL textbooks was built in advance. As no existing bilingual corpora were suitable for the specific data and research purpose (see Chapter 3) of the study, it was better to build a corpus of the selected data to carry out a process of

corpus research for the specific purpose of the study. Findings from the corpus analysis have shown that: 1) there were 195 translation problems in the selected TCFL textbooks, and some of them were specifically due to contextual factors in Chinese because Chinese is a context-based language; 2) translation problems were found at both the preliminary level and intermediate level of the selected TCFL textbooks; and 3) translation problems were found in both the content word class and function word class of the selected TCFL textbooks.

Firstly, as the second research question was to explore what kinds of translation problems occur within the selected TCFL textbooks, the corpus of the selected materials was built to attempt to identify non-equivalent problems of translation among thousands of translation items. After building the corpus of the selected data, an evaluation framework designed from Colina's translation evaluation theory was developed to examine each Chinese word and its corresponding translation. As Chinese is specifically a context-based language, the meaning of each Chinese word was examined within context and then compared with the given translation. Any translation that was inconsistent with the original meaning of the Chinese word was identified for further investigation. All the data from 12 books was analysed according to the evaluation framework and 195 problems were identified for the next stage of the research. These translation problems mainly centred on definitions being either inappropriate for the original context or overtly adding/lacking essential information; they were analysed in line with the theoretical framework (functional equivalence and linguistics-based approaches) in Chapter 5.

Secondly, current TCFL textbooks are provided for learners from preliminary level to advanced level. Among the three levels of textbooks, preliminary level and intermediate level are generally used for learners at beginner's level. In materials at both preliminary level and intermediate level, translations for target learners (e.g. English translations for language learners of Chinese from

English-speaking countries) were provided to help improve their comprehension of Chinese. When students reach an advanced level of Chinese learning, no translation was provided in the target language. All of the explanations in the vocabulary table were annotated in Chinese. It is necessary for translators or editors of TCFL textbooks to provide accurate translations for learners at both preliminary level and intermediate level to establish a familiar, concrete basis for learning Chinese. According to the aims of the research, the selected TCFL textbooks were categorized by preliminary level and intermediate level. After a process of corpus research and translation quality evaluation work, a total of 195 translation problems were identified in preliminary level and intermediate level textbooks (119 translation problems at the preliminary level and 76 translation problems at the intermediate level). According to previous studies on second language acquisition, the preliminary level of language learning is especially important for learners at beginners' level, therefore the impact of translation problems and inaccuracies on learners at this level is even more considerable. The result of a contrastive analysis between Chinese and English showed that the majority of translation problems identified from the selected materials were found at the preliminary level. As stated previously, the preliminary level is considered to be the pivotal stage of language learning; therefore, vocabulary items in textbooks at this level are frequently used words in the Chinese language system, and it is vital to provide accurate translations alongside the original Chinese words for learners at this level. With reference to previous literature on common Chinese-English translation problems, this study has compared and contrasted these common translation problems at different levels within the TCFL research field. According to the results of the corpus research, 119 problems and 76 problems have been found in preliminary level and intermediate level respectively. These problems have been illustrated in detail in Chapter 5, and contextualized within the theoretical framework. Although these problems involve 3% of the total vocabulary in the 12 books, as explained in section 7.2.1, their negative influence on the comprehension of language learners cannot be ignored, because if key

basic words are not clearly understood and applied correctly in elementary contexts, their continued misuse in more sophisticated contexts will prejudice a learner's progress.

Thirdly, after retrieving and analysing the identified translation problems, 173 content words and 22 function words were found. The content word class of the study includes nouns, verbs, adjectives, numerals, measure words, adverbs, and pronouns while conjunctions, prepositions, particles, modal particles, interjections, and onomatopoeia were classified as function words. Besides the classification of Chinese words illustrated above, some of the words possessed the grammatical function of two or more parts of speech. These words are called conversion of parts of speech in the Chinese grammatical system. The identified translation problems were found in both categories, especially so in the content word class, which had approximately 8 times more problems than the mistakes in the function word class. The complicated and nuanced Chinese vocabulary system creates translation problems among different parts of speech, and these can constitute serious obstacles for learners. The clear statistical evidence provided by this thesis should therefore be taken into consideration during the future preparation and proofreading of TCFL textbooks, and where existing textbooks are concerned, particular care should be taken by teachers when setting translation tasks based on Chinese content words, given the high problem rate in this area.

All these non-equivalent translation problems were also used for designing the assessment test paper for this particular section of the research. The contents of the assessment test were also structured according to different parts of speech for the specific purpose of the research.

7.2.3 Findings of the Assessment Test Data

The assessment test in the present study is unlike traditional examinations which

focus on the grades and performances of learners. Instead, the assessment test designed for this study aimed to evaluate the study's initial findings (translation problems identified through corpus research) to validate the rationale for conducting the research. As this part of the research needed to focus on people with an excellent level of Chinese knowledge, the participants in the assessment were chosen from a group of Chinese native speakers. The participants in the assessment test were all Chinese third year undergraduates with an educational background predicated on both Chinese and English (they all majored in English in their undergraduate study and have qualified as English teachers in China). The translation problems identified in the corpus research were used as the assessment test content to see if the participants agreed that these results were indeed translation problems. The participants had resources (paper dictionaries and electronic dictionaries) at hand to help them form a judgment.

The assessment test findings showed that: 1) all the participants confirmed the problematic status of the identified translation problems; and 2) the majority of participants exercised caution in their judgments (by frequently choosing option B "partially agree"), implying that the translations merely conveyed part of the original meaning of the Chinese words rather than being fully equivalent.

The first point to mention is that among the 4 options given in the assessment paper, the majority of participants chose option B "partially agree" and option C "disagree" as their answers. According to the evaluation instructions illustrated in Chapter 3 (section 3.2.2), both option B "partially agree" and option C "disagree" indicated that the participants believed that the given translations – to a greater or lesser extent – featured deficiencies of some sort. The selected non-equivalence translation problems were identified by a self-designed evaluation framework. The same translation evaluation framework was provided for the participants in the assessment test. The same result confirmed that the selected translation items from the corpus research contained translation problems and were therefore valid

for further analysis.

Secondly, as explained in Chapter 3 (section 3.2.2), option B "partially agree" was applied when the participants considered that the given translation conveyed part of the original meaning but not the whole. This indicates that although the given translation is partly valid, it cannot accurately represent the term's original meaning due to insufficient information, over-explanation, or other inaccuracies. Based on the work conducted in previous studies about the impact of vocabulary acquisition on the learning achievements and academic performance of learners, such translation outcomes inevitably lead to the ineffective application of terminology. The majority of participants arguably exercised caution in selecting option B, "partially agree", being reluctant to fully endorse the translations of the vocabulary items, and the results of the assessment test clearly indicated that considerable revision work was required to improve the identified translation problems.

7.2.4 Findings of Comparative Analysis

This study is concerned with the translation issues that emerge by comparing corpora of Chinese and English translations drawn from preliminary level and intermediate level textbooks. Thus the use of contrastive analysis to find differences in translation issues at the preliminary and intermediate levels, as well as in the content word class and function word class between Chinese and English will contribute to the broader field of vocabulary translation analysis, especially in the TCFL research field.

The findings of the comparative analysis include: 1) differences in translation issues between preliminary level and intermediate level; and 2) differences in translation issues between the content word class and the function word class.

Firstly, the findings of the comparative analysis show that more problems were found at the preliminary level, approximately 1.5 times more than those at the intermediate level of the selected TCFL textbooks. In line with the theoretical framework developed in Chapter 2, a comparative analysis was also made from the different elements of glosseme (semantic meaning, pragmatic meaning and grammatical meaning categories). According to the framework of the tripartite theory of glosseme, most problems were found in the semantic meaning category and the pragmatic meaning category, especially at the preliminary level. In terms of translation problems at both the preliminary and intermediate levels, problems of inappropriateness at the preliminary level occurred at a higher rate than other categories of mistakes, while at the intermediate level, problems in inadequacy type were more numerous than others. In the connotative categories, each level featured three types of problems. Translation problems within the pragmatic meaning category at the preliminary level were more frequent than those at the intermediate level. With regard to grammatical meaning, translation problems concerning grammatical function and inconsistency in parts of speech emerged at both levels, especially at the preliminary level.

Secondly, the findings of the comparative analysis also show that more problems were found in the content word class, approximately 8 times more than those in the function word class. The results are in accordance with the Chinese vocabulary system in terms of the fact that the majority of Chinese words are content words. In the content word class, most of problems centre on verbs, followed by measure words and nouns at the preliminary level, and nouns and adverbs at the intermediate level. Problems concerning adjectives, pronouns and numerals were found at both levels in the content word class. Problems concerning sentence patterns and idioms were also found at both levels. In the function word class, most problems at both preliminary and intermediate levels concern particles. Translation problems involving prepositions, conjunctions and one interjection were also found at both levels.

7.3 The Original Contributions of the Study

This research has made an original contribution to knowledge in two primary ways. The first element concerns the thesis's academic contribution, building on and expanding previous scholarly literature, and the other innovative element has an important practical value for the writers and editors of TCFL textbooks and for professional teachers of Chinese with suggestions concerning improving translations, TCFL textbook compilation and the learning outcomes of learners of Chinese.

7.3.1 Original Contributions to Literature and Implications for Teachers and Publishers

The main purpose of the study was to explore and identify translation problems between Chinese and English translation in TCFL textbooks, and to analyse how these problems and differences at the preliminary/intermediate levels and in the content word/function word classes could be formulated into clear data to benefit people working in the practical sphere of publishing and in pedagogical classroom contexts. Most existing literature in the TCFL research field has focused on TCFL textbook compilation (e.g. Deng's research on word selection and arrangement), course design and teaching pedagogy (e.g. Xing and Chen's contrastive analysis on grammar teaching), but only a few works have referred to the specific translation issues centring on vocabulary tables, especially on the problems that occur among the different levels and categories of words. Several scholars (Fang, 2005; Zeng and Tan, 2011) have previously explored certain aspects of common Chinese–English translation problems by examining different translation strategies. Therefore this study has used these previous works as a foundation and developed this strand of research in a more practical way to benefit the processes of vocabulary compilation at the publishing stage, and also the teaching of Chinese vocabulary in classroom contexts.

Firstly, this study has adopted translation theories and linguistics-based approaches to translation studies to develop a new theoretical framework for vocabulary translation analysis, in particular, to analyse the transfer of word meanings between Chinese and English. The study has used functional equivalence translation theory and the tripartite theory of glosseme (semantic, pragmatic and grammatical perspectives) to establish a theoretical framework for investigations of word meanings. The use of the tripartite theory of glosseme provides a flexible way of analysing translation and enables the original meanings of Chinese words to be analysed through various perspectives, according to semantic, pragmatic and grammatical meaning categories, to see if the existing translation and the original meaning of the Chinese word have achieved the functional equivalent standard. The designed theoretical framework contributes detailed insights to enable researchers to achieve accurate meaning analyses of words, especially for Chinese and English vocabulary analysis and translation.

Secondly, the study has drawn on translation quality evaluation theory to generate a translation quality evaluation framework for the purpose of the study. As explained in Chapter 3, it is often hard to define whether a translation is accurate or not. However, translation quality evaluation can still be achieved when specific standards or criteria have been established. Thus translation quality evaluation frameworks have been designed, based upon existing TQI tools (e.g. Colina's TOI tool on medical terminology) for the specific research purpose of the study. So far there is a conspicuous lack of evaluation standards or frameworks for specific translation purposes in the current Chinese translation field. Thus, this new generated translation evaluation framework can fill the gap and the self-designed translation evaluation framework can serve as a reference point for other translation evaluation work regarding vocabulary conducted during other relevant studies. Other evaluation frameworks can also be generated, based on the vocabulary translation evaluation framework, to improve overall comprehension

of Chinese terminology. This is a significant contribution to a broader field of the evaluation of translation quality and meaning analysis especially for the Chinese–English translation research field.

Thirdly, previous studies concerning the vocabulary translation field have commonly discussed common Chinese and English translation problems and considered solutions for the target research aims, for example, providing analysis of the translations of selected Chinese content words or function words, etc. The present study has been based on the cognition of general translation problems and has attempted to analyse with greater precision the most common Chinese and English translation problems between preliminary level/intermediate level and content word class/function word class. The findings of the study's comparative analysis have demonstrated that the majority of translation problems gathered from the selected TCFL textbooks were found at the preliminary level and in the content word class. These differences have been recorded in terms of quantity and also the specific types of problem. The problematic status of currently used TCFL textbooks at the preliminary level has therefore revealed the validity of this study and provides compelling evidence for taking instant action in terms of improving the quality of vocabulary translation from the very beginning of the Chinese learning process, for the purpose of reinforcing the accuracy of vocabulary learning at the preliminary level. The differences between the content word and function word classes also emphasize the complicated nature of the Chinese vocabulary system and the impact of this on translation tasks. The larger amount of Chinese content words requires a greater effort from translators to improve the standard of translation. The findings of the research with regard to translation problems at the different levels of learning and within different word classes have much practical relevance and research value for the pedagogical purpose of vocabulary teaching and translation, and they can be used as a basis for further research into vocabulary translation as a component of teaching Chinese, in order to improve the current problematic situation regarding vocabulary translation in

textbooks.

Finally, the questionnaire results have also shed significant light on the current perspective of teaching professionals with regard to teaching vocabulary and also to how Chinese terms are currently compiled, translated, and published in textbooks. Previous academic studies have also indicated the fact that translation problems have inevitably existed due to linguistic differences and cultural differences. However, few works have corroborated their research rationale by providing empirical evidence, for example, by obtaining responses and feedback from a group of practitioners in the field. This study has obtained supporting empirical evidence from expert representatives – Chinese teachers employed in the TCFL field – to validate the rationale and originality of the research. These findings build on and expand previous studies on the influence and impact of translation problems, and evoke the need for radical action in order to improve the quality of vocabulary translation in the context of textbooks for learners of Chinese. It is for individual publishers and editors to decide how to raise the quality threshold, but greater input by English native speakers at all stages of textbook compilation, from the development and checking of vocabulary definitions to the final proofreading stage, appears essential. Contributions by teaching professionals who have years of experience in recognizing which items of vocabulary are traditionally difficult to define, teach and learn, would also be beneficial. Since this study has raised a number of issues particularly about the quality of vocabulary translation in preliminary level textbooks, publishers and editors would do well to focus their energies on striving for greater accuracy in the learning materials that they produce for this critical stage of a student's journey.

7.3.2 Suggestions for Solving Translation Problems in the Vocabulary Lists in TCFL Textbooks

Vocabulary translation is not only an activity in the translation research field, but a linguistic transformational activity of Chinese and English as well. Besides the common translation strategies used in vocabulary translation activities (as explained in Chapters 5 with translation problems) and cross - cultural communication factors (as explained in section 6.5), certain principles related to linguistics should also be taken into consideration for improving translation quality. The Chinese–English translation process is basically a contrastive process involving the Chinese and English languages (Huang, 2009: 56). Chinese vocabulary translation cannot be merely considered as a process which seeks equivalent items in English. It concerns differences between the Chinese and English vocabulary systems such as lexical meaning, connotative meaning and field meaning differences. Thus applying specific theories and discoveries originating from contrastive linguistics will help to identify similarities and differences (e.g. in vocabulary and syntax) in two or more languages, and detect interference factors which affect the comprehension of translation results (Xiong, 1997: 53). When dealing with the vocabulary translation issues related to foreign language teaching and learning, contrastive linguistics–based theories and findings can be used to improve the translation outcome, for example, taking the lexical differences (e.g. complete or incomplete correspondence of vocabulary) between different languages into consideration to predict possible interference and problems in vocabulary learning.

Another principle concerns the selection of meaning. As discussed in Chapter 2 and Chapter 5, there are many problems concerning the selection of meaning where polysemous Chinese words in current TCFL textbooks are concerned. In

the Chinese vocabulary system, more than 80% of Chinese words are compound words, which may contain two or more meanings (Xing, 2011: 45). Thus the selection of meaning has become a very important factor when approaching translation tasks between Chinese and English. According to the theoretical framework discussed in Chapter 2, the selection of meaning should be in accordance with specific contexts. That is to say, although pragmatic research mainly concerns meaning analysis, it is not isolated. The meanings of words are analysed within specific contexts to become practical and communicative (He, 1987: 8). Such contexts can be phrases, collocations, sentences, paragraphs and discourses. When approaching translation work, the translation of a word must be aligned with its original context and must not deviate from this. Otherwise misunderstandings or misuse problems may be caused by non - equivalent meaning selection. Besides the importance of contextual factors, an improvement in vocabulary translation performance can also be acquired through the theories and methods of bilingual dictionary compilation (Huang, 2009: 58). Bilingual dictionary compilation is also a form of translation work involving two different languages. Both vocabulary translation and bilingual dictionary compilation take words as basic research units. In bilingual or monolingual dictionaries, there are detailed illustrations and explanations of all meanings (e.g. lexical meaning, connotative meaning and field of meaning, etc), usages, applications, collocations, grammatical functions and the pragmatic rules of each word, whether in single or compound formation (ibid). The lexical meaning of a word can be seen as the primary reference for translation works. Based on the understanding of the lexical meaning of a word, its connotative meanings in specific contexts can be learned for meaning selection. In recent years, large scale databases (e.g. corpora and word banks) have been gradually developed as advanced translation tools. They also provide detailed illustrations and explanations of Chinese and English for bilingual learners. Most translation issues of polysemy/synonyms and sentence pattern translation are related to meaning selection. The analysis of non - equivalent translation problems from the selected

TCFL textbooks in Chapter 5 has been based on a combination of bilingual dictionaries and a bilingual corpus. Many more initiatives can be taken with a view to improving the accuracy of vocabulary translation, and one suggestion could be for professional Chinese teachers to take part in vocabulary translation work and research focusing on establishing accurate meanings for original Chinese words. The professional knowledge of Chinese teachers regarding the Chinese language would help to establish standards and norms for the meanings of Chinese terms, and this expertise would be beneficial for the translators and editors of TCFL textbooks.

The third principle for improving translation quality centres on cultural knowledge. As discussed in 6.5.2, cultural factors exert a great influence on translation results between Chinese and English. Scholars have identified that "language and culture are indivisible in human life", (Kramersch, 1991: 217), and it has been argued that the separation of culture and language may lead to non-equivalence problems in translating vocabulary in our daily lives. As stated in section 6.5, a variety of cultural differences should be taken into consideration before carrying out any translation work involving cultural diversity. When dealing with culturally loaded words and words with cultural connotations such as historical words, geographical words and words associated with customs, specific cultural implicatures and explanations should be provided for learners to avoid any misunderstanding and to ensure that they are aware of the cultural resonance behind words. The translation of idioms, culturally loaded words and historical words is predicated on the combination principle of cultural knowledge and language skills.

The last suggestion has been summarized from the comparison of different categories of meaning, levels of TCFL textbooks and word classes. The comparative result of categories of meaning has shown that most translation problems concerning vocabulary translation have been found in the semantic

meaning category, especially in the area of lexical meaning. This demands an awareness of paying extra attention to the meaning of the Chinese words rather than merely relying on the selection of translation strategies. In order to attempt to maintain the functional equivalent relationship between the original Chinese terms and English, the translators or the people who undertake translation work should focus on making a clear distinction of the original Chinese meaning from other meanings (e.g. connotative meaning, context meaning and grammatical meaning, etc), and then make an appropriate selection of translation strategies to generate an appropriate translation. Another comparison result from the analysis has shown that more translation problems affecting vocabulary translation have been found at the preliminary level of TCFL textbooks and within the content word category. Research on Chinese teaching at the preliminary level has shown that vocabulary teaching should be started at the very beginning of the learning experience (Peng, 2012; Wu, 2015). As a consequence, the good/poor quality of vocabulary translation at the preliminary level greatly impacts on the academic performance and comprehension of learners. Thus translators/editors should put more effort into improving the quality of vocabulary translation especially at the preliminary level. From the perspective of parts of speech, the serious issues of accuracy related to verbs, measure words, and nouns indicate that at this point in time, the vocabulary translation of content words such as verbs, nouns and measure words are still challenges for both translators and teachers in the TCFL field. So far in the compilation processes of TCFL textbooks, English advisors with professional English educational backgrounds and qualifications have sometimes been invited to give academic advice on vocabulary translation. These English experts can help to ensure that the given translation is in accordance with the pragmatic rules of English. Whether English advisors work closely enough with a textbook's translators to be able to certify the accuracy of the translations with regard to the original Chinese terms is difficult to establish; however, based on the unnatural and problematic English that has often emerged in the textbooks analysed in this study, there is a strong case for advocating a more systematic involvement of

English native speakers in the compilation of textbooks produced by Chinese publishers, perhaps as integral elements of the translation teams themselves. A further recommendation would be that of incorporating the input of Chinese advisors such as professional Chinese teachers with years of experience in Chinese language teaching (e.g. Chinese vocabulary teaching, syntax teaching and grammar teaching); their expertise would be invaluable for the compilation processes. They could help to determine the precise meaning of the original Chinese words before translation takes place, to ensure the accuracy of the process.

In summary, besides common translation strategies such as literal translation, free translation, foreignization and domestication strategies, the application of certain principles of linguistics-based approaches (e.g. semantics, pragmatics, culture and languages) to translation studies should be taken into consideration as well as involving both Chinese experts (to establish accurate Chinese meanings in the relevant contexts) and English experts (to help check the appropriateness of translations in the context of the lexical and grammatical systems of English), in order to develop acceptable translation outcomes and to improve comprehension of the processes involved in vocabulary translation.

7.4 Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

This study has focused on Chinese–English translation problems from a vocabulary perspective and there is clearly the potential for a series of follow-up studies. The possibilities for subsequent research can be summarized into three main categories: 1) expanding the existing corpus with more TCFL textbooks and continuing translating the vocabulary list by putting the words into their context within the passages in which they appear ; 2) focusing on other linguistic elements such as sentence and passage translation problems in context; and 3) inviting learners of Chinese who have reached an advanced level to reflect on how

vocabulary definitions (including definitions with translation problems and inadequacies) have impacted on their learning performances.

It should be emphasized that this study is a PhD project, and due to its limited timeframe, it was decided to select 12 TCFL textbooks as the research objects for building a specific corpus and carrying out an in-depth analysis. The corpus process was able to handle a large amount of data, thus an expansion of the existing corpus could be achieved in potential follow-up studies in this particular area. New textbooks with unique features and up-to-date information are published every year, and there is considerable potential to expand the existing corpus to continuously absorb both synchronic and diachronic information to continue translating the vocabulary lists by putting the words into its context in the relevant passages. Besides textbooks for comprehensive courses, other kinds of textbooks, such as those for vocabulary courses, speaking courses and writing courses also can be gathered to expand the present corpus to identify more vocabulary translation patterns for the general purpose of translation analysis. The designed vocabulary translation evaluation framework also can be revised to assess other linguistic elements.

Secondly, besides vocabulary learning, there are other linguistic elements in Chinese teaching activities, such as syntax, discourse, and grammar. Vocabulary learning has traditionally been considered as the elementary learning task to facilitate other learning tasks in Chinese. Since Chinese is a context-based language (e.g. phrase, collocation, sentence), the analysis of other linguistic elements cannot be separated from the word level. The enhancement of vocabulary translation quality, as shown in this study, will undoubtedly improve a student's comprehension of phrase learning, sentence learning and discourse learning. This study has specifically focused on vocabulary as the research object for carrying out a process of translation evaluation and analysis. Further research could be carried out on the basis of this vocabulary translation analysis to explore

other translation patterns and identify how this data in Chinese and English translation activities can be adjusted to achieve the equivalent function.

Finally, as explained in Chapter 2, many previous studies have indicated that translation problems have inevitably caused a negative impact (e.g. problems of distortion, misunderstanding and misuse problems) on the foreign language learning process of language learners. Based on the cognition that such problems have affected the academic performance of learners, this research has focused on the translation problems of vocabulary lists – the outcome of vocabulary translation activities – rather than analysing the problems within translation processes and the influence on learners. After identifying 195 translation problems from the selected preliminary level and intermediate level TCFL textbooks, these translation problems have been confirmed by Chinese participants with a professional Chinese and English educational background. Due to limitations in the remit and timeframe of this project, it does not include an analysis of the influence of vocabulary learning in the language learning process. Further research might be much more student-centred and involve an analysis of the learners' experiences after using some of the textbooks analysed in this thesis; subsequent research projects might examine the students' aims and goals in studying Chinese, and analyse their learning outcomes in terms of proficiency and level of attainment. Further research using questionnaires based on the translation problems summarized in this thesis could take place to examine how these translation problems impact on learners' academic performance and learning achievements. Since non-native learners of Chinese who have reached an advanced level are equipped with an adequate knowledge of Chinese and are able to pass judgment on selected translation items gathered from the preliminary level and intermediate level, it might be suggested that they should be selected as the target sample in follow-up studies.

7.5 Summary of the Chapter

The above summary of findings from the questionnaires, corpus, assessment and contrastive analysis has contributed to explore the translatability and untranslatability of the vocabulary featured in Chinese textbooks. The three research questions have been answered through analysing each correlated research strand by firstly validating the research premise, then identifying the problems, contrasting differences in the identified problems, and then exploring how these findings could be formulated into practical actions, thereby making an original contribution to scholarly literature and to TCFL textbook design/compilation with suggestions concerning improving translations, TCFL textbook compilation and the learning outcomes of learners of Chinese. A range of areas for further research have been suggested together with a detailed analysis of the existing research achievements in both the translation and Chinese teaching fields, from both pedagogical and practical perspectives.

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Appendix 1

Vocabulary Translation Questionnaire for TCSL textbooks

Dear Participants,

Thanks for answering the questionnaires. The questionnaire aims to collect your overview of vocabularies and their translation in TCSL textbooks. The questionnaire is anonymous. You are required to leave your email address for any future withdrawal. Please present your thoughts about each question. Leave any answers blank if you prefer not to answer. The results will be only used for my PhD thesis. Thanks again for your kind help.

Q1: Your gender:

- A. Male
- B. Female

Q2: How long have you been a Chinese teacher?

- A. 5 years and less than 5 years
- B. 6 to 10 years
- C. 11 to 15 years
- D. 16 years and above 16 years

Q3: What type of course do you teach (tick each options that applies)?

- A. Speaking course
- B. Reading course
- C. Listening course
- D. Writing course
- E. Comprehensive course (all of the above)

Q4: What level do you teach now?

- A. Preliminary level
- B. Intermediate level

C. Advanced level

Q5: Which of the following TCSL textbooks do you use now or in the past?

A. Erya Chinese: Comprehensive courses

B. Developing Chinese: Comprehensive courses

C. An easy approach to Chinese: Comprehensive courses

D. Discover China: Comprehensive courses

E. Others, please specify _____

Q6: How do you manage vocabulary teaching time in your class (assuming 45 minutes for a standard class)?

A. Less than 10 minutes

B. 11–15 minutes

C. 16–20 minutes

D. 21–30 minutes

E. 31 minutes and above

Q7: Do you think it is necessary to give English translations in the vocabulary tables in TCSL textbooks ?

A. Very necessary

B. Necessary

C. Less necessary

D. Not necessary at all

E. Don't know

Q8: How often do you take English translation of vocabulary into consideration when you prepare your class?

A. Very often

B. Often

C. Not often

D. Not at all

Q9: Do you agree that providing English translations will help learners to learn Chinese as a second foreign language?

A. Totally agree

B. Agree

C. Disagree

D Don't know

Q10: Do you think the English translations in your teaching material are accurate?

A. Very accurate

B. Slightly accurate

C. Not accurate

D. Don't know

Q11: Do you think inaccurate English translations affect the comprehension of Chinese learners during their vocabulary learning process?

A. Definitely

B. Possibly

C. Not at all

D. Don't know

Your email address (for any future withdrawal):

If you have other enquiry or suggestion about the questionnaire, please feel free to leave a message in the blank space or sent an email to hyflove1415@hotmail.com.

Thanks for your support.

Appendix 2



Assessment Test

Dear participant,

Thanks for attending the assessment test. The aim of the assessment test is to evaluate the translations of Chinese words in the given contexts. A rating instruction has been provided. You can use either electronic or paper dictionaries as part of your evaluation. The assessment test contains two levels: preliminary level and intermediate level. The assessment test is anonymous. You are required to leave your student ID for any future withdrawal. The data will only be used for the present study. Thanks for your kind help.

Evaluation instructions

Option	Description
<p>A Agree</p>	<p>The translation accurately reflects the content contained in the original without unwarranted alteration:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1.The translation presents lexical meaning / connotative meaning / context meaning within the original context / application / collocation at a functional equivalent level. 2.The translation presents a part of speech consistent with the original Chinese word and a complete explanation of sentence pattern / syntax.
<p>B Partially agree</p>	<p>The translation partially reflects the original Chinese meaning:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1.The lexical meaning is accurate but the connotative meaning / context meaning / collocation / application is inaccurate (e.g. formal or informal, oral or written and mandarin or dialect, etc). 2. Incomplete explanation of lexical meaning / sentence pattern / syntax. 3.The translation is a polysemous word / synonym which reflects or contains changes in meaning, omissions or additions 4.The translation is accurate, but the part of speech of the translation is inconsistent with the original Chinese.
<p>C Disagree</p>	<p>Serious / frequent terminological problems occurred:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1.The translation inaccurately reflects the semantic meaning (presents non - equivalent lexical / connotative meaning or application / collocation). 2.The translation inaccurately reflects the pragmatic meaning (presents complete unawareness / ignorance of specialized terminology / insufficient knowledge of specialized content or context). 3.The translation inaccurately reflects the grammatical function

	(both of the translation and part of speech are inaccurate; lack of explanation of sentence pattern / syntax).
D Don't know	Not sure.

Student ID: _____

Please evaluate the translation of the Chinese word in given context. There are four options: A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

Please tick the option of your answer.

Preliminary level

Verb:

1. 光临 动词 come, be present

欢迎光临古城宾馆。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

2. 光临 动词 be present

服务员：欢迎光临！

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

3. 光临 动词 to make one's presence, to come

欢迎光临！

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

4. 开 动词 drive (a car); open; prescribe

坐出租车或者开车又快又方便。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

5. 开 动词 open out

花园里，开着许多美丽的花。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

6. 开 动词 drive

阿明：假期我也回家，我可以开车陪你玩儿。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

7. 夹 动词 place or stay in between

一个小女孩儿摘下了一朵小花，夹进了一本旧书里。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

8. 羡慕 动词 admire, be envious of

书里的字看着这个会走路的新朋友，真羡慕。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

9. 擦 动词 towel; wipe with rags

女主人不但给了他 20 元钱，还拿出一条白毛巾，亲手帮他把脸上的汗擦了擦。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

10. 去世 动词 die; pass away

我很难过地告诉您，她在上星期日去世了。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

11. 聊天儿 动词 chat

我做韩国菜，他做中国菜，我们一起吃饭聊天儿。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

2. 打工 动词 work, labour

放暑假的时候，我会去打工挣钱。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

13. 来 动词 (used as a substitute for a more specific verb) want

马丁：再来一份意大利面条、两杯可乐。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

14. 上来 动词 to come up

金大成：今天早上电梯坏了，我只好走上来了。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

15. 改 动词 to correct

王一中：我现在回办公室，我还要改你们的作业呢。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

16. 过去 动词 to go over

金大成：我给您送过去。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

17.过来 动词 to come over

王一中：在，你给我送过来吧。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

18.上去 动词 to go up

金大成：您打算爬上去吗？

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

19.像 动词 to be like, to take after

杰克：真像过春节。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

20.抱 动词 to carry

金大成：那边走过来一个人，怀里抱着个大箱子。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

21.上门 动词 to call at (sb)

还可以送货上门。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

22.看中 动词 to take a fancy to

后来，足球队教练看中了我，想让我成为职业运动员了。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

23.加油 动词 to come on

杰克：加油！

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

24.打 动词 play

崔浩：我喜欢踢足球，也喜欢打篮球。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

25.拉 动词 to have diarrhea

杰克：我肚子不舒服，昨天晚上拉了三、四次。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

26.玩儿 动词 play; have fun; amuse oneself.

我和客人去长城玩儿。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

27. 来 动词 (used in place of a more specific verb) to do

我来介绍一下, 这是安娜, 她是俄罗斯留学生。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

28. 使劲儿 动词 exert oneself (physically)

有时候还使劲儿地亲我的脸。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

29. 上 动词 (used after a noun) on, in, at

我现在每天最少上两个小时的网。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

30. 是 动词 be

崔浩: 你是哪国人?

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

31. 团圆 名词 to reunite

老人呢, 他们经常买很多好吃的东西, 等孩子回家团圆。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

32. 打 动词 strike; beat

请你明天上午给他打电话, 好吗?

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

33. 航空 动词 aviate

我们可以寄包裹、取包裹, 可以买航空信封和邮票

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

34. 综合 动词 synthesize

我姓王, 叫王一中, 是你们综合课的老师。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

Noun:

1. 信鸽 名词 carrier pigeon; homer

他们有一只心爱的信鸽叫"小雨点儿"。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

2. 贵姓 名词 your (honourable) surname

马丁：老师，您**贵姓**？

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

3. 复姓 名词 compound surname

欧阳是中国的**复姓**。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

4. 花儿 名词 flower

我给她**花儿**，但是她不要。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

5. 农贸 名词 a market of farm produce

在**农贸**市场。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

6. 画儿 名词 painting; picture

这张**画儿**不好看。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

7. 点儿 名词 decimal point

我身高**一点儿**七九米，体重七十五公斤。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

8. 叔叔 名词 uncle

杰克和安娜：**叔叔**阿姨好！

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

9. 阿姨 名词 aunt

杰克和安娜：**叔叔****阿姨**好！

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

10. 胡同 名词 alley

有的去逛**胡同**了。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

11. 特快专递 名词 EMS

邮局很大，还可以汇款、寄挂号信和**特快专递**什么的。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

12. 快递 名词 EMS

杰克：我在等**快递**呢。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

13. 锅 名词 pot wok

把土豆丝放进**锅**里去

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

14. 园林 名词 garden

杰克：当然，苏州的**园林**、杭州的西湖、黄山的云和松、桂林的山水都非常有名。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

15. 天下 名词 land under heaven, China or the world

中国有句俗语叫"桂林山水甲天下"。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

16. 画展 名词 art exhibition

上周末我原来打算去美术馆看**画展**。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

17. 笔记本 名词 laptop

桌子上放着一个台灯，还放着一台**笔记本**电脑。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

18. 后来 名词 later, afterwards

后来，我只好打开了空调。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

19. 购物单 shopping list

快递员：这是您的**购物单**，一共三百三十八块钱，发票在箱子里。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

Adverb:

1. 有点儿 副词 a little bit

这个周末我**有点儿**累，可是过得很愉快。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

2. 到底 副词 1 at last, in the end, finally 2 used in a question for emphasis

我一直担心的事情**到底**还是发生了。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

3. 有点儿 副词 a bit, a little, slightly

可是我的自行车丢了，我**有点儿**生气。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

4. 好好儿 副词 all out, to one's heart's content

李一民：别着急，你应该**好好儿**休息休息。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

5. 常 副词 often, usually

吃饭时间也**常**问"吃了没"

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

6. 正好 副词 just

我**正好**要去邮局买邮票，下课以后咱们一起去吧

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

7. 才 副词 indicating that sth has taken place later than the usual, proper or expected time

你怎么**才**回来呀？

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

8. 还是 副词 still, get

不过听写的时候，很多生词**还是**不会写。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

9. 好好儿 副词 well

那我要**好好儿**想一想。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

10. 就 副词 exactly, precisely

学生 B：在前边。你看，那儿**就是**。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

Adjective:

1. 贵 形容词 respected

你**贵**姓？

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

2. 小 形容词 little; small

小王，你结婚了吗？

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

3. 优美 形容词 beautiful

除了风景**优美**以外，青岛还有很多企业，其中青岛啤酒非常有名。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

4. 花 形容词 flowery

那件**花**的多少钱？

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

Measure word:

1. 本 量词 used for books

有时间我要去图书馆借几**本**中文故事书。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

2. 本 量词 for books

那是一本**本**中文书。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

3. 张 量词 for thin, flat things; open

西安火车站有去兵马俑的公共汽车，车票每**张**七元。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

4. 份 量词 share

如果不想跟他再见面，我会付自己的那**份**。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

5. 件 量词 cloths

那是两**件**衣服。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

6. 个 量词 for people/things

那是三个**个**外国人。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

7. 个 量词 used before nouns without a special classifier of their own

朱云：林娜，你们班有多少个学生？

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

8. 杯 量词 a cup of / a glass of

我要一杯咖啡。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

9. 套 量词 (used for books, rooms, furniture, etc) set, suit, suite

山田想租一套房子。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

10. 级 量词 step; stage

一个爱美的女孩子，在公园的台阶上一级一级的往上走。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

11. 部 量词 used for movies, books, etc

尽管他已经把这部电影看了几十遍。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

12. 口 量词 a measure word

我家有四口人：爸爸，妈妈，哥哥和我。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

13. 块 量词 unit of money (equivalent to yuan)

一部电子词典七百八十块钱。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

14. 一下 量词 used after a verb to indicate one action or one try

马丁：我也觉得很累，我们休息一下吧。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

15. 件 量词 piece

我买了一件毛衣，还买了一件羽绒服。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

16. 次 量词 time, occasion

林娜：李老师，这是我第一次包饺子，您看怎么样？

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

17. 场 量词 used to indicate a process

从北方到南方，已经下了四**场**大雪，气温也非常低。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

18. 幅 量词 a measure word used for cloth, silk paintings, etc

墙上挂着一**幅**中国的山水画，还有一张我们全家的照片。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

19. 回 量词 (a measure word indicating frequency of occurrence) time

韩寒曾经对现在的中学生说：上学和学习是两**回事**。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

20. 款 量词 a measure word for clothes and other things, kind, type

对不起，这是今年的**新款**，不打折。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

21. 碗 量词 a measure word for some food

来两**碗**米饭吧。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

22. 杯 量词 a measure word for drinks

金大成：你能帮我买**杯**咖啡吗。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

23. 遍 量词 (for actions) once through, a time

昨天晚上应该多写几**遍**的。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

24. 条 量词 a measure word for long and thin things

不过可以送您一**条**真丝手帕。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

25. 束 量词 bundle, bunch

我特意买了一大**束**鲜花，准备送给她。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

26. 点 量词 o'clock

我每天六**点**半起床。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

27. 一阵子 量词 period of time; spell

一句温柔的话，就会使我们高兴一阵子。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

28. 套 量词 set (for rooms, furniture, books, etc.)

他买了一辆新汽车，又买了一套房子。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

Pronoun:

1. 这儿 代词 here

你的书不在**这儿**，在那儿。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

2. 那儿 代词 there

你的书不在这儿，在**那儿**。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

Particle:

1. 了 助词 used in conjunction with "得"or"不" after a verb to express possibility or impossibility

小学的时候，我考试得了第一名，老师给了我一本《世界地图》。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

2. 吗 助词 used at the end of a question

林娜：你学习法语**吗**？

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

3. 嘛 助词 indicating that sth. is obvious

我的想法是我既然挣了一万，就可以花五千，这不是还省下了一半**嘛**。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

4. 对了 语气助词 by the way

对了，我忘了介绍自己/啊，对了，欧阳是中国的复姓/对了，去邮局取包裹的时候要带护照。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

5. 了 助词 a modal particle

他出去了**了**。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

Preposition:

1. 除了 介词 except, besides

除了风景优美以外, 青岛还有很多企业, 其中青岛啤酒非常有名。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

2. 除了 介词 except; but; besides; in addition to

父亲对我说: "除了西班牙语和英语以外, 你还得再学习一种语言。"

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

3. 给 介词 used to introduce the recipient of an action

林娜: 可以, 一会儿我**给**你发个电子邮件。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

4. 把 介词 used to put the object of a verb before it

把豆腐切成小块。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

5. 把 介词 used when the object is the receiver of the action of the ensuing verb

这些菜请帮我们打包, **把**饭盒都放在袋子里。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

6. 跟 介词 with

以后我要**跟**他学习书法。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

Numeral:

1. 二/两 数词 two

那是**两件**衣服。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

2. 两 数词 two

林娜: 我们班有**两个**法国人。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

3. 俩 two

阿曼达: 你们**俩**在做什么?

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

Conjunction:

1. 而 连词 used to express coordination by joining two elements opposite in meaning that show a contrast

有些中国人和我见面不是问好，而是问一些奇怪的问题。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

2. 一边 连词 indicating two actions taking place at the same time

有的人一边散步，一边听收音机。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

Interjection:

1. 嘘 shh

嘘.....请安静，这里不能大声说话。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

Idiom:

1. 愚公移山 idiom Foolish Old Man who removed the mountains – spirit of perseverance

愚公移山。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

Sentence pattern:

1. 连...都/也... even

安娜：我已经决定回国了，连飞机票都买好了。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

2. 是...就是 however

这件紫的漂亮是漂亮，就是太贵了。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

3. 一边...一边 while)

大家一边聊天，一边吃饺子。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

Intermediate Level

Verb:

1. 羡慕 动词 envy

王玉：我很**羡慕**你的工作。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

2. 忙个不停 动词 like to keep busy

方太太好像总是**忙个不停**。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

3. 走访 动词 pay a visit to

今天我**走访**了内蒙古通辽的一个小学。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

4. 出 动词 go/come out

对,这叫情人眼里**出西施**。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

5. 没准儿 动词 maybe

没准儿他不好意思说,那我替他说。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

6. 端 动词 hold (a cup, a plate, etc)

外商很感动, **端起**一杯酒。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

7. 遭遇 动词 come across; run into

我宁可爬十七楼,也不想在**遭遇**这样难受的事了。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

8. 出于 动词 out of

她呢,尽管很吃惊,然而**出于**礼貌,还是答应了。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

9. 实践 动词 carry out

我怕你会因此离开我,所以我必须用一生去**实践**这个谎言。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

10. 逗 动词 to tease, to play with

一个女老师逗他："那你为什么不送花儿给我呢？"

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

11. 奔跑 动词 to rush about busily

我的朋友常年到处**奔跑**，养成了一切越简单越好的生活习惯。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

12. 谅解 动词 to make allowance for

于是，就**谅解**了他们。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

13. 让 动词 to let, to make, to ask

让我们一家人愉快相处的是我妈,爸只是每天上班下班。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

14. 没准儿 动词 probably, perhaps

大妈说"看着就像坏人，**没准儿**是个骗子。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

15. 放 动词 to set off, to let off

儿童**放**鞭炮。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

16. 拉 动词 to play

他认为最难的乐器是二胡，看起来简单，其实**拉**起来很难。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

17. 着 动词 used after a verb to indicate the result of the action

晚上睡不着**着**，白天精神就不好。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

18. 串门儿 stop by, come around

这是一个用腿（**串门儿**）到用嘴（电话、寻呼）到用手指（电脑）到用拇指（手机）的过程。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

19. 寻呼 动词 call sb.'s name over a public address system to find them and give them a message

从登门拜年到邮寄贺卡，从打电话到打**寻呼**。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

20. 实践 动词 to practice

这种变化将会对社会生活和社会**实践**产生越来越深刻的影响。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

Noun:

1. 语文 名词 language, language arts

她一个人要教三个年级的**语文**和数学课。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

2. 家 名词 home, measure word (for business establishments)

在别的城市还有几家**家**分公司。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

3. 鬼 名词 ghost

真见**鬼**！电梯又坏了。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

4. 傻小子 名词 silly boy

这个**傻小子**，穿皮鞋送快件，也不怕累。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

5. 干儿 名词 dried food

罗伟打开那个黑袋子一看，原来是自己小时候最喜欢吃的**鱼干儿**。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

6. 人情味儿 名词 human interest, human kindness

我觉得一个有**人情味儿**的家庭。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

7. 老伴儿 名词 (of an old married couple) husband or wife

没办法，我和**老伴儿**只好飞到美国参加她的婚礼。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

8. 微博 名词 microblog

我在**微博**上与客户保持联系。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

9. 新新人类 名词 new generation

他们是新新人类的一种。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

10. 教养 名词 breeding, education

它从来不自己吃，显示出乖乖有着良好的"教养"。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

11. 老家 名词 old home

乖乖也会情绪不好，似乎是想念老家和主人了。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

12. 人力 名词 labour power

一位著名外企公司的人力资源主管曾经和我们讲过这样一个小秘密。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

13. 天下 名词 land under heaven, country, world

天下的事再大，也大不过老百姓要吃饱饭。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

14. 第 a prefix used to form ordinal number

从左边数，第二个房间。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

15. 爹 名词 father

当爹妈的，哪个不是首先想着孩子呢？

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

16. 娘 名词 mother, mom

俺爹俺娘。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

Adverbs:

1. 就 副词 as early as;

你一吃就知道了。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

2. 恐怕 副词 for fear of

要是你对现代史特别感兴趣，这本书恐怕不太合适。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

3. 倒 副词 indicating something unexpected

不吃葡萄**倒**吐葡萄皮。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

4. 简直 副词 simply; just

当第一次从录音机里听到中国话时，我**简直**灰心急了。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

5. 简直 副词 simply, just

正常高矮的电灯开关，在桑兰看来**简直**太高了，根本够不着。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

6. 一个劲儿 副词 continuously

手机铃声响了，她或者他拿出手机，不是用耳朵去接听，而是一个**劲儿**地盯着屏幕笑。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

7. 竟 副词 unexpectedly, actually (sic)

这中间价格的小小差别，他们**竟**可以计算的一点儿不差。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

8. 干脆 副词 simply, just

有人说，**干脆**走到她身边，告诉他，你喜欢上他了。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

9. 只能 副词 cannot but

人们**只能**想办法多找鸡毛、多增加肥料以提高产量。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

Adjective:

1. 精心 形容词 painstakingly

我花了一整天的时间，**精心**做了 200 多个中国煎饺。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

2. 融洽 形容词 on good terms

游客们为人与自然的**融洽**感动着。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

3. 温和 形容词 (of weather) temperate, gentle

由于形貌颜色黑白分明，体形肥胖，性格**温和**可爱，因此他们一直都是玩具设计师喜欢的形象。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

4. 坚强 形容词 strong

从小到大，我都希望把你培养成一个**坚强**自立的女孩子。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

Measure word:

1. 份 量词 set, copy

马丁想送他**一份**礼物。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

2. 篇 量词 piece

史蒂夫的一篇日记。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

3. 座 量词 for immovable object

关于这**座**古寺，有很多美丽的传说。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

4. 把 量词 for umbrella, chair, etc

我应该买**一把**雨伞。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

5. 把 量词 added to such measure words as 百, 千, 万, 里, 丈, 顷, 斤, 个 to indicate the approximate number

在那时，**百把**块钱就能让家里过个好年。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

6. 片儿 量词 for tablets, slices etc.

每次吃**两片儿**。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

7. 部 量词 a measure word used for books, movies, etc

他 17 岁就发表了自己的**第一部**小说。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

Pronoun:

1. 自个儿 代词 one's own

不错是不错，可毕竟不是自个儿的家。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

2. 俺 代词 I, my, we, our

俺爹俺娘。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

3. 一切 代词 all, every

当我把一切准备好要出发时，我的法国丈夫在旁边开玩笑。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

4. 西洋 代词 west

他学习了多种拳法，包括西洋拳法。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

Numeral:

1. 壹 数词 (used as the numeral on cheques, banknotes, etc) one

李连杰和他的"壹基金"。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

2. 俩 数词 two

大半年了，我俩竟然不知道彼此是邻居！

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

Preposition:

1. 把 介词 prep used in a ba-type sentence

他把汽车修理好了。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

Particle:

1. 得 助词 particle

他经常来得很晚。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

2. 着 助词 used after a verb, indicating the continuation of an action or a state

李伟：正等着你们呢。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

3. 了 used in conjunction with 得 or 不 after a verb to express possibility

火车来时我忍不住跑了起来!

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

Conjunction:

1. 一旦 连词 some day , once

然而,一旦人们遇到麻烦、有了困难、想找到答案时却发现,面对各种各样的说法,想要得到明确的结论却没那么容易。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

2. 并 连词 used before a negative to reinforce it

而你今天却别扭着、后悔着,去做你原来并不打算做的那些事。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

3. 况且 连词 besides; moreover

房子旧点儿,家居少点儿,也没有关系;况且,我很少逛商店超市,更没时间去美容健身,这些配套设施对我没什么用。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

Interjection:

1. 喂 语气词 hello, hey

崔浩:喂,是马丁吗?

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

Idiom:

1. 有眼不识泰山 have eyes but not see Mt.Tai, entertain an angle unawareness

想不到你知道的这么多,我真是有眼不识泰山。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

2. 七上八下 成语 at sixes and sevens

一醒来,我心里就七上八下的,什么也干不好。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

3. 一帆风顺 成语 as right as rain

人的一生不可能总是一帆风顺。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

4. 一路平安 成语 Bon Voyage

一路平安!

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

Sentence pattern:

1. 不是...而是...not ...but... , instead

这本书的重点**不是**各个朝代的皇帝，也不是战争故事，**而是**中国传统文化方面的内容。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

2. 是...的 a sentence construction for emphasis

我是前年来中国的。

A. Agree B. Partially agree C. Disagree D. Don't know

If you have other enquiries or suggestions about the assessment, please feel free to leave a message in the blank space or send an email to saihong.li@stir.ac.uk or yifei.hao@stir.ac.uk

Thanks for your support.

Appendix 3

Preliminary level

Verbs

Word \ Option		A.	B.	C.	D.
		Agree	Partially agree	Disagree	Don't Know
1. 光临	come, be present	17%	36%	47%	0%
2. 光临	be present	17%	36%	47%	0%
3. 光临	to make one's presence, to come	20%	39%	41%	0%
4. 开	drive (a car); open; prescribe	0%	35%	65%	0%
5. 开	open out	9%	66%	25%	0%
6. 开	drive	34%	62%	4%	0%
7. 夹	place or stay in between	7%	90%	3%	0%
8. 羡慕	admire, be envious of	2%	93%	5%	0%
9. 擦	towel; wipe with rags	6%	90%	4%	0%
10. 去世	die; pass away	0%	95%	5%	0%
11. 聊天 儿	chat	10%	82%	8%	0%
12. 打工	work, labour	21%	59%	20%	0%
13. 来	(used as a substitute for a more specific verb) want	23%	70%	7%	0%

14. 上来	to come up	13%	79%	8%	0%
15. 改	to correct	5%	82%	13%	0%
16. 过去	to go over	13%	79%	8%	0%
17. 过来	to come over	14%	78%	8%	0%
18. 上去	to go up	14%	77%	9%	0%
19. 像	to be like, to take after	15%	70%	15%	0%
20. 抱	to carry	26%	58%	16%	0%
21. 上门	to call at (sb)	17%	56%	27%	0%
22. 看中	to take a fancy to	9%	66%	25%	0%
23. 加油	to ⁴ come on	27%	63%	10%	0%
24. 打	play	45%	53%	2%	0%
25. 拉	to have diarrhea	7%	76%	17%	0%
26. 玩儿	play; have fun; amuse oneself	20%	71%	9%	0%
27. 来	(used in place of a more specific verb) to do	21%	67%	12%	0%
28. 使劲 儿	exert oneself (physically)	21%	72%	7%	0%
29. 上	(used after a noun) on, in, at	5%	90%	5%	0%
30. 是	be	20%	52%	28%	0%
31. 团圆	to reunite	39%	60%	1%	0%
32. 打	strike, beat	15%	80%	5%	0%
33. 航空	aviate	17%	82%	1%	0%
34. 综合	synthesize	15%	82%	3%	0%

⁴ This column contains original translations in the textbooks.

Total	16%	69%	15%	0%
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Nouns

Option Word		A.	B.	C.	D.
		Agree	Partially agree	Disagree	Don't Know
1. 信鸽	carrier pigeon ; homer	20%	72%	8%	0%
2. 贵姓	your (honourable) surname	29%	68%	3%	0%
3. 复姓	compound surname	33%	67%	0%	0%
4. 花儿	flower	16%	78%	6%	0%
5. 农贸	a market of farm produce	6%	92%	2%	0%
6. 画儿	painting; picture	37%	62%	1%	0%
7. 点儿	decimal point	34%	66%	0%	0%
8. 叔叔	uncle	7%	90%	3%	0%
9. 阿姨	aunt	7%	90%	3%	0%
10. 胡同	alley	37%	63%	0%	0%
11. 特快专递	EMS	66%	32%	2%	0%
12. 快递	EMS	5%	12%	83%	0%
13. 锅	pot, wok	23%	74%	3%	0%
14. 园林	garden	9%	90%	1%	0%
15. 天下	land under heaven, country, world	39%	61%	0%	0%
16. 画展	art exhibition	19%	80%	1%	0%
17. 笔记本	laptop	43%	52%	5%	0%
18. 后来	later, afterwards	27%	71%	2%	0%

19. 一阵子	period of time; spell	29%	71%	0%	0%
Total		26%	68%	6%	0%

Adverbs

Option Word		A.	B.	C.	D.
		Agree	Partially agree	Disagree	Don't Know
1. 有点儿	a little bit	46%	54%	0%	0%
2. 到底	1.at last, in the end, finally 2.used in a question for emphasis	20%	67%	13%	0%
3. 有点儿	a bit, a little, slightly	32%	65%	3%	0%
4. 好好儿	all out, to one's heart's content	20%	67%	13%	0%
5. 常	often, usually	37%	60%	3%	0%
6. 正好	just	33%	60%	7%	0%
7. 才	indicating that sth has taken place later than the usual, proper or expected time	39%	55%	6%	0%
8. 还是	still, get	16%	4%	80%	0%
9. 好好儿	well	30%	70%	0%	0%
10. 就	exactly, precisely	25%	74%	1%	0%
Total		30%	58%	12%	0%

Adjectives

Option Word		A.	B.	C.	D.
		Agree	Partially agree	Disagree	Don't Know
1. 贵	respected	29%	58%	13%	0%
2. 小	little; small	20%	70%	10%	0%
3. 优美	beautiful	23%	43%	34%	0%
4. 花	flowery	13%	32%	55%	0%
Total		21%	53%	25%	0%

Measure Words

Option		A.	B.	C.	D.
Word		Agree	Partially agree	Disagree	Don't Know
1. 本	used for books	7%	89 %	4%	0%
2. 本	for books	7%	89%	4%	0%
3. 张	for thin, flat things; open	7%	39%	54%	0%
4. 份	share	5%	87%	8%	0%
5. 件	clothes	5%	80%	15%	0%
6. 件	piece	13%	85%	2%	0%
7. 个	for people/things	9%	46%	45%	0%
8. 个	used before nouns without a special classifier of their own	5%	81%	14%	0%
9. 套	(used for books , rooms, furniture, etc) set, suit, suite	29%	67%	4%	0%
10. 套	set (for rooms, furniture, books, etc)	29%	67%	4%	0%
11. 级	step; stage	19%	69%	12%	0%
12. 部	used for movies , books, etc	1%	79%	20%	0%
13. 口	a measure word	1%	54%	45%	0%
14. 块	unit of money (equivalent to yuan)	32%	65%	3%	0%
15. 一下	used after a verb to indicate one action or	30%	66%	4%	0%

	one try				
16. 次	time occasion	31%	63%	6%	0%
17. 场	used to indicate a process	37%	61%	2%	0%
18. 幅	a measure word used for cloth , silk paintings, etc	40%	59%	1%	0%
19. 回	(a measure word indicating frequency of occurrence) time	45%	53%	2%	0%
20. 款	(a measure word for clothes and other things), kind, type	37%	60%	3%	0%
21. 碗	a measure word for some food	2%	97%	1%	0%
22. 杯	a measure word for drinks	2%	97%	1%	0%
23. 杯	a cup of / a glass of	20%	74%	6%	0%
24. 遍	(for actions) once through, a time	20%	70%	10%	0%
25. 条	a measure word for long and thin things	14%	80%	6%	0%
26. 束	bundle, bunch	46%	53%	1%	0%
27. 束	a bunch of	46%	53%	1%	0%
28. 点	o' clock	21%	69%	10%	0%
29. 一阵子	period of time, spell	20%	71%	9%	0%
Total		20%	70%	10%	0%

Pronouns

Option		A.	B.	C.	D.
Word		Agree	Partially agree	Disagree	Don't Know
1. 这儿	here	39%	56%	5%	0%
2. 那儿	there	39%	56%	5%	0%
Total		39%	56%	5%	0%

Numerals

Option		A.	B.	C.	D.
Word		Agree	Partially agree	Disagree	Don't Know
1. 二/两	two	3%	87%	10%	0%
2. 两	two	3%	87%	10%	0%
3. 俩	two	36%	60%	4%	0%
Total		14%	78%	8%	0%

Particles

Option Word		A.	B.	C.	D.
		Agree	Partially agree	Disagree	Don't Know
1. 了	used in conjunction with "得" or "不" after a verb to express possibility or impossibility	29%	63%	8%	0%
2. 吗	used at the end of a question	44%	55%	1%	0%
3. 嘛	indicating that sth. is obvious	39%	53%	8%	0%
4. 对了	by the way	26%	67%	7%	0%
5. 了	a modal particle	10%	66%	24%	0%
Total		30%	60%	10%	0%

Preposition

Option		Word			
		A. Agree	B. Partially agree	C. Disagree	D. Don't Know
1. 除了	except, besides	23%	66%	11%	0%
2. 除了	except; but; besides; in addition to	20%	70%	10%	0%
3. 给	used to introduce the recipient of an action	13%	79%	8%	0%
4. 把	used to put the object of a verb before it	5%	77%	18%	0%
5. 把	prep used in a ba-type sentence; used when the object is the receiver of the action of the ensuing verb	10%	73%	17%	0%
6. 跟	with	7%	73%	20%	0%
Total		13%	73%	14%	0%

Conjunctions

Option		Word			
		A. Agree	B. Partially agree	C. Disagree	D. Don't Know
1. 而	used to express coordination by joining two elements opposite in meaning that show a contrast	26%	66%	8%	0%
2. 一边	indicating two actions taking place at the same time	30%	65%	5%	0%
Total		28%	66%	6%	0%

Interjection

Option		Word			
		A. Agree	B. Partially agree	C. Disagree	D. Don't Know
1. 嘘	Shh	32%	53%	15%	0%
Total		32%	53%	15%	0%

Phrase and sentence patterns

Option		A.	B.	C.	D.
		Agree	Partially agree	Disagree	Don't Know
1. 愚公移山	Foolish Old Man who removed the mountains – spirit of perseverance	0%	14%	86%	0%
2. 连。。。都/也。。。	even	3%	37%	60%	0%
3. 是...就是	however	3%	42%	55%	0%
4. 一边...一边	while	10%	59%	31%	0%
Total		4%	38%	58%	0%

Intermediate level

Verbs

Option		A.	B.	C.	D.
Word		Agree	Partially agree	Disagree	Don't Know
1. 羡慕	envy	0%	39%	61%	0%
2. 忙个不停	like to keep busy	14%	46%	40%	0%
3. 走访	pay a visit to	27%	59%	14%	0%
4. 出	go/come out	25%	43%	32%	0%
5. 没准儿	maybe	33%	59%	8%	0%
6. 端	hold (a cup , a plate, etc	48%	52%	0%	0%
7. 遭遇	come across ; run into	44%	50%	6%	0%
8. 出于	out of	24%	66%	10%	0%
9. 实践	carry out	23%	67%	10%	0%
10. 逗	to tease, to play with	15%	79%	6%	0%
11. 奔跑	to rush about busily	23%	69%	8%	0%
12. 谅解	to make allowance for	43%	53%	4%	0%
13. 让	to let, to make, to ask	46%	54%	0%	0%
14. 没准儿	probably, perhaps	49%	51%	0%	0%
15. 放	to set off, to let off	33%	66%	1%	0%
16. 拉	to play	39%	59%	2%	0%
17. 着	used after a verb to indicate the result of the action	19%	59%	22%	0%
18. 串门儿	stop by , come	20%	79%	1%	0%

	around				
19. 寻呼	call sb' s name over a public address system to find them and give them a message	40%	59%	11%	0%
20. 实践	to practice	35%	60%	5%	0%
Total		30%	58%	12%	0%

Nouns

Word \ Option		A.	B.	C.	D.
		Agree	Partially agree	Disagree	Don't Know
1. 语文	language , language arts	10%	85%	5%	0%
2. 家	home , (measure word for business establishments)	1%	48%	51%	0%
3. 鬼	ghost	16%	44%	40%	0%
4. 傻小子	silly boy	13%	64%	23%	0%
5. 干儿	dried food	33%	51%	16%	0%
6. 人情味 儿	human interest , human kindness	17%	71%	12%	0%
7. 老伴儿	(of an old married couple) husband or wife	37%	52%	11%	0%
8. 微博	microblog	48%	52%	0%	0%
9. 新新人类	new generation	46%	53%	1%	0%
10. 教养	breeding , education	29%	58%	13%	0%
11. 老家	old home	31%	69%	0%	0%
12. 人力	labour power	20%	80%	0%	0%
13. 天下	land under heaven, China or the world	27%	46%	27%	0%
14. 第	a prefix used to form ordinal number	32%	35%	33%	0%

15. 爹	father	20%	52%	28%	0%
16. 娘	mother mom	20%	52%	28%	0%
Total		25%	57%	18%	0%

Adverbs

Option		A. Agree	B. Partially agree	C. Disagree	D. Don't Know
1. 就	as early as	5%	74%	21%	0%
2. 恐怕	for fear of	3%	44%	53%	0%
3. 倒	indicating something unexpected	12%	46%	42%	0%
4. 简直	simply; just	27%	61%	12%	0%
5. 简直	simply, just	27%	61%	12%	0%
6. 一个劲儿	continuously	37%	47%	16%	0%
7. 竟	unexpectedly, actually (sic)	13%	44%	43%	0%
8. 干脆	simply, just	29%	69%	2%	0%
9. 只能	cannot but	26%	58%	16%	0%
Total		20%	56%	24%	0%

Adjectives

Option		A.	B.	C.	D.
		Agree	Partially agree	Disagree	Don't Know
1. 精心	painstaking	28%	59%	13%	0%
2. 融洽	on good terms	33%	60%	7%	0%
3. 温和	(of weather) temperate, gentle	15%	63%	22%	0%
4. 坚强	strong	44%	50%	6%	0%
Total		30%	58%	12%	0%

Measure words

Option Word		A.	B.	C.	D.
		Agree	Partially agree	Disagree	Don't Know
1. 份	set, copy	26%	61%	13%	0%
2. 篇	piece	34%	54%	12%	0%
3. 座	for immovable object	37%	52%	11%	0%
4. 把	for umbrella, chair, etc	44%	49%	7%	0%
5. 把	added to such measure words as 百, 千, 万, 里, 丈, 顷, 斤, 个 to indicate the approximate number	28%	56%	16%	0%
6. 片儿	for tablets, slices etc	47%	52%	1%	0%
7. 部	a measure word used for books, movies, etc	29%	67%	4%	0%
Total		35%	56%	9%	0%

Pronouns

Option		Word			
		A. Agree	B. Partially agree	C. Disagree	D. Don't Know
1. 自个儿	one's own	45%	53%	2%	0%
2. 俺	I, my, we, our	40%	59%	1%	0%
3. 一切	all, every	47%	49%	4%	0%
4. 西洋	West	47%	52%	1%	0%
Total		45%	53%	2%	0%

Numeral

Option		Word			
		A. Agree	B. Partially agree	C. Disagree	D. Don't Know
1. 壹	used as the numeral on cheques , banknotes, etc) one	36%	60%	4%	0%
2. 俩	two	8%	77%	15%	0%
Total		22%	68%	10%	0%

Particle

Option		A.	B.	C.	D.
Word		Agree	Partially agree	Disagree	Don't Know
1. 得	particle	3%	83%	14%	0%
2. 着	used after a verb, indicating the continuation of an action or a state	33%	59%	8%	0%
3. 了	used in conjunction with "得" or "不" after a verb to express possibility	23%	69%	8%	0%
Total		20%	70%	10%	0%

Prepositions

Option		A.	B.	C.	D.
Word		Agree	Partially agree	Disagree	Don't Know
1. 把	used in a ba - type sentence	23%	72%	5%	0%
Total		23%	72%	5%	0%

Conjunctions

Option		A.	B.	C.	D.
Word		Agree	Partially agree	Disagree	Don't Know
1. 一旦	some day, once	18%	63%	19%	0%
2. 并	used before a negative to reinforce it	31%	52%	17%	0%
3. 况且	besides; moreover	23%	59%	18%	0%
Total		24%	58%	18%	0%

Interjection

Option		A.	B.	C.	D.
Word		Agree	Partially agree	Disagree	Don't Know
1. 喂	hello, hey	46%	50%	4%	0%
Total		46%	50%	4%	0%

Phrase and sentence pattern

Option		A.	B.	C.	D.
Word		Agree	Partially agree	Disagree	Don't Know
1. 有眼不识泰山	have eyes but not see Mt.Tai, entertain an angle of unawareness	10%	55%	35%	0%
2. 七上八下	at sixes and sevens	10%	57%	33%	0%
3. 一帆风顺	as right as rain	10%	56%	34%	0%
4. 一路平安	Bon Voyage	14%	54%	32%	0%
5. 不是...而是	...not ...but... , instead	20%	41%	39%	0%
6. 是...的	a sentence construction for emphasis	14%	67%	19%	0%
Total		13%	55%	32%	0%

Appendix 4

1. Semantic meaning

1.1 Lexical meaning

(1) Inadequacy

Example 1 (Line 6, Lesson 23 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 2*) P

加油 动词 to come on

杰克: 加油!

Jack: Come on!

"To come on" is a free translation of "加油" (jiāyóu). The lexical meaning of "加油" (jiāyóu) means to refuel a vehicle or machine. It is also used as a short sentence in spoken language for encouraging people when they are in a race or working. In English, the verb "to come upon" exists, meaning to meet or find by chance; however, "to come on" as an infinitive (not imperative) is rare and is not used apart, perhaps, from in sexual contexts. "加油" (jiāyóu) is used in spoken language as an informal way of encouraging people, just as "come on!" (as an imperative) is in English. This specific meaning and usage should be provided to avoid any misunderstanding. Its spoken language usage should also be emphasized for learners.

Suggested translation: come on ! (imperative) (oral)

Example 2 (Line 5, Lesson 7 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course I*) P

就 副词 exactly, precisely

学生 B: 在前边。你看, 那儿就是。

Student B: Look, it is directly in front of you. Here it is.

"就" (jiù) in Chinese is a polyseme. When used as an adverb, it can be used to indicate that something is quite near. In the given context, it means that the shop is in front of the speaker. The given translation "exactly" and "precisely" indicates

something with "accuracy and with clear detail". It is different from the uncertainty of the original Chinese meaning. A more appropriate meaning of "就" (jiù) should be pointed out to avoid any misuse.

Suggested translation: used to indicate that something is quite near

Example 3 (Line 3, Lesson 7 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I I*) P

还是 副词 still, get

不过听写的时候，很多生词**还是**不会写。

When taking the listening exam, there are still many new words that I can't remember.

"还是" (háishi) is a compound word in Chinese. The lexical meaning of "还是" (háishi) is to illustrate a constant status. It is also used to indicate "the result of an action/behaviour/status that has not changed yet even if some conditions for improvement have been provided or someone has tried to change it". It emphasizes the result of an action. "Still" in English is relatively similar in meaning. A related word might be "nevertheless", however, the emphasis of "tried to change but hasn't yet changed" would not be clearly reflected by such a translation. It is important to ensure that learners study and assimilate the original word and its translation at a functional equivalence level. "Get" in this translation is a mistake and is meaningless in the context. It is a translation problem within the lexical meaning category, and should be removed.

Suggested translation: still, as before

Example 4 (Line 3–4, Lesson 10 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course I*) P

一下 量词 used after a verb to indicate one action or one try

马丁：我也觉得很累，我们休息一下吧。

Martin: I also feel very tired. Shall we have a rest?

"下" (xià) in Chinese is a measure word used to indicate a very short time period or the frequency of the action that happens. When suffixed to "一" (yī), "一下"

(yīxià) is used to indicate that an action lasts for a very short time; in English, this could be conveyed by someone replying "I'll have a quick check" when asked to verify if a person's name is on a list of guests for an event. In the given textbook context, it means that they want to have a short rest and then they will keep going. The given translation has attempted to achieve the functional equivalent effect and provided a very limited and inaccurate range of the applications of "一下" (yīxià). The emphasis on "an action that lasts for a very short time" should be clarified to ensure that the essence of the term's application is understood.

Suggested translation: a measure word for an action that lasts for a very short time

Example 5 (Line 3, Lesson 7 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 1*) P

遍 量词 (for actions) once through, a time

昨天晚上应该多写几遍的。

I should have practiced more times yesterday evening.

"遍" (biàn) in Chinese is used to illustrate "a completed process of an action from beginning to the end". The emphasis is on "a completed process". It is commonly used after a numeral word for describing how many times this process has already been done. The current translation "through" conveys the concept of "from the beginning to the end" and "once through" effectively reflects the process. "A time" is also used to indicate a period of time or an occasion. Once translated into English, the emphasis on a "completed process" should be kept in order to distinguish the term from other measure words and to explain the original meaning at a functional equivalent level.

Suggested translation: a measure word for a complete action

Example 6 (Line 1, Lesson 13 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course I*) P

套 量词 (used for books, rooms, furniture, etc) set, suit, suite

山田想租一套房子。

Shantian wants to rent a well-equipped house.

"套" (tào) in Chinese is commonly used as a measure word for series of books, houses and furniture, etc. In the given context, it refers to a well-equipped residence. However, "room" in English refers to a part of a building which may only be a small part of a house or a well-equipped residence. In Chinese, there is another specific measure word "间" (jiān) for rooms. Moreover, the parts of speech featured in the existing translation 'set/suit/suite' are all nouns which are different from the original Chinese part of speech (measure word). This can also be seen to constitute a problem within grammatical categories. Such definitions need greater accuracy to avoid potential misuse.

Suggested translation: a measure word for complete set of things (e.g. a well-equipped house with furniture and electricity)

Example 7 (Line 4, Lesson 7 *An Easy Approach to Chinese I*) P

套 量词 set (for rooms, furniture, books, etc.)

他买了一辆新汽车，又买了一套房。

He has just bought a new car and a new house.

"套" (tào) in Chinese is used as a measure word for objects with matching equipment, such as a series of books, a well decorated house or dinnerware. In the given context, it refers to a well decorated house with a full range of equipment. The given translation "set" refers to a collection of things and is appropriate for expressing the original meaning. It is appropriate for use with furniture and books, etc. But the problem centres on its implied use for rooms, because this is not appropriate in Chinese. In Chinese, there is another measure word "间" (jiān) (for rooms within a house, e.g. a bedroom, a kitchen or a washroom, etc). This clarification should be made to avoid endowing measure words with applications that are not strictly appropriate.

Suggested translation: a measure word for complete set of things (e.g. a well equipped house with furniture and electricity)

Example 8 (Line 1, Lesson *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive*

Course I) P

份 量词 set, copy

马丁想送他一份礼物。

Martin wants to send him a gift.

"份" (fèn) in Chinese is used as a measure word for illustrating a part of a whole or a single item. In the given context, it refers to a gift from Martin. The given translation "set" refers to "a collection of things" and "copy" refers to "a single example of a particular book" or other object. These are highly problematic in this given context and do not convey the original meaning. The parts of speech "set" and "copy" are different from the original Chinese word, and this entry can also be considered as a problem within the grammatical meaning category.

Suggested translation: a measure word for gifts

Example 8 (Line 19, Lesson 9 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 2*) P

回 量词 (a measure word indicating frequency of occurrence) time

韩寒曾经对现在的中学生说：上学和学习是两回事。

Hanhan has said to the students that people can also be educated without going to school.

"回" (huí) in Chinese is commonly used as a measure word for illustrating things or matters. In the given context, the term indicates that learning knowledge and going to school were not always related. It emphasizes that these are two independent things. However, the given translation "time" and "indicating frequency of occurrence" are valid explanations for "回" (huí) when it is used as a noun. The translation is totally different from the original meaning of the Chinese word. This therefore creates a translation problem within the lexical meaning category.

Suggested translation: a measure word for different things/matters

Example 10 (Line 8, Lesson 16 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course I*) P

束 量词 bundle, bunch

你可以带一点儿水果，也可以带一束花。

You can either bring some fruit or some flowers.

"束" (shù) in Chinese is specifically used as a measure word for flowers. In the given context, it refers to a number of fresh flowers wrapped in gift paper. The given translation 'bundle' and 'bunch' have a similar meaning as "束" (shù) in terms of "a number of things grouped/tied/held/wrapped up together". But the specific usage (for flowers) should be pointed out in order to provide a proper translation for learners, and the definition must be limited to "a bunch of" which is the correct collocation; "bundle" is not used for flowers in English (it can be used for sticks, twigs, magazines/paper objects tied together with an elastic band, etc).

Suggested translation: a measure word for flowers (a bunch of)

Example 11 (Line 4, Lesson 3 *An Easy Approach to Chinese I*) P

个 量词 for people/things

那是三个外国人。

Those are three foreigners.

"个" (gè) in Chinese is an all-purpose measure word used both for individual units and plurals, such as a person, a product, fruits, etc. In the given context, it is used to illustrate that there are three foreigners. The given translation (for people/things) generally explains the range of applications of "个" (gè). But there are other measure words for people/things, such as "位" (wèi, a formal and polite way to refer to people), "名" (míng, a polite way of addressing people with specific title, such as a doctor, a scholar or a scientist) and "群" (qún, for a crowd of people). This clarification should be pointed out to ensure correct usage and distinguish "个" (gè) from other similar measure words.

Suggested translation: an all-purpose measure word for nouns (e.g. a person) which do not have a more specific measure word applicable to them

Example 12 (Line 12, Lesson 7 *Discover China 2*) P

把 介词 used to put the object of a verb before it

把豆腐切成小块。

Please cut the Tofu into small pieces.

"把" (bǎ) in Chinese is commonly used as a preposition to indicate how a person or thing is dealt with or affected. It is a specific sentence pattern – often referred to as a "ba-type" sentence pattern. In this sentence pattern, the word after "把" (bǎ) is the object to be dealt with or affected. In the given context, it means the Tofu will be cut into small parts by someone. The given translation has succeeded in introducing the collocation of "把" (bǎ) and its connection to a verb. But a more accurate translation and usage of "把" (bǎ) should be provided to ensure that the preposition is used correctly and appropriately.

Suggested translation: to indicate how a person or thing is dealt with or affected ("ba-type" sentence pattern)

Example 13 (Line 6, Lesson 21 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course I*) P

把 介词 used when the object is the receiver of the action of the ensuing verb.

这些菜请帮我们打包，把饭盒都放在袋子里。

Please pack up the leftovers and put them in the bag. "把" (bǎ) in Chinese is commonly used as a preposition to indicate how a person or thing is dealt with or affected. The word after "把" (bǎ) is what is affected. In the given context, it refers to the action of packing up the leftovers into the bags. The given translation has introduced the collocation of "把" (bǎ) and its relation to a verb. But the proper translation and usage of "把" (bǎ) should be provided to ensure that students are clear about how it is used. It creates a translation problem within the lexical meaning category.

Suggested translation: to indicate how a person or thing is dealt with or affected ("ba"-type sentence pattern)

Example 14 (Line 2, Lesson 1 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive Course II*) I

奔跑 动词 to rush about busily

我的朋友常年到处**奔跑**，养成了一切越简单越好的生活习惯。

My friend has led a simple living attitude due to his years' of busy lives.

"奔跑" (bēnpǎo) in Chinese is commonly used to indicate the action of running. In the given context, it is used to illustrate the hard and busy life of certain groups of people. The emphasis lies on illustrating the idea of "struggling for a living". The given translation is a free translation explaining both the lexical meaning of "奔跑" (bēnpǎo) – rush" and its connotative meaning "busy". However, in the given context, it didn't indicate the action of "running". In such a situation, only the connotative meaning should be clearly provided to avoid any misuse and misunderstanding on the part of learners.

Suggested translation: struggle for a living

Example 15 (Line 15–16, Lesson 12 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive Course I*) I

寻呼 动词 call sb' s name over a public address system to find them and give them a message

从登门拜年到邮寄贺卡，从打电话到打**寻呼**。

New Year's greetings have changed a lot. People begin to send New Year's cards instead of paying a visit to someone's house, and use beepers (an electric message receiving equipment) instead of calling someone by phone.

"寻呼" (xúnhū) in Chinese can be used as a verb to illustrate the action of "calling somebody over a base transceiver station to leave them a message" and as a noun it refers to "the equipment for receiving messages from base transceiver stations" or a so called "bleeper". In the given context, "寻呼" (xúnhū) is used after a verb "打" (dǎ) to form a phrase "打寻呼" (dǎxúnhū) to indicate the action of calling somebody. In this phrase, "寻呼" (xúnhū) is used as a noun (public address system or a beeper that can be used to pass a message to someone. Both the part of

speech and its translation problems should be revised to avoid any misuse and misunderstanding.

Suggested translation: noun, bleeper (message receiving equipment)

Example 16 (Line 11, Lesson 7 *Discover China 3*) I

语文 名词 language, language arts

她一个人要教三个年级的语文和数学课。

She teaches Chinese and Maths to three grades by herself.

"语文" (yǔwén) is a specific term exclusively referring to a compulsory module and a discipline focusing on Chinese language. In the given context, it means that the teacher will teach Chinese and Maths to three different grades. It does not refer to language or language arts in Chinese contexts and therefore the given translation does not accurately convey the original meaning of "语文" (yǔwén) in Chinese. It constitutes a translation problem within the lexical meaning category, and clarification should be provided to avoid any misunderstanding of the term.

Suggested translation: Chinese, Chinese language skills module

Example 17 (Line 6, Lesson 10 *An Approach to Chinese II*) I

就 副词 as early as;

你一吃就知道了。

You will know the taste immediately when you have it.

"就" (jiù) in Chinese is a polyseme. When used as an adverb, it can be used to indicate that something happens at once. In the given context, it means that someone will recognize the taste of something as soon as he eats it. The emphasis is specific to the moment at which he has this realization. The given translation "as early as" also indicates a rapidity and that something will happen soon, but has a different implication compared with the original Chinese word. The "immediate" emphasis should be pointed out to ensure the term is used correctly.

Suggested translation: at once, immediately

Example 18 (Line 6, Lesson 5 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive Course I*) I

自个儿 代词 one's own

不错是不错，可毕竟不是自个儿的家。

It's nice, but it is not my own house.

"自个儿" (zìgèr) in Chinese is a pronoun that refers to oneself. In the given context, it refers to the speaker himself. The given translation "one's own" refers to an attributive relationship and is inaccurate to convey the original meaning of "自个儿" (zìgèr). "自个儿" (zìgèr) is also an "r-ending retroflexion word" from ancient times. The formal version of "自个儿" (zìgèr) is "自己" (zìjǐ). The non-syllabic suffix "儿" (r) causes a retroflexion of the preceding vowel. It is a typical pronunciation phenomenon of Beijing dialects in the northern part of China and is used in spoken language. The specific usage of this r-ending retroflexion word should also be introduced and its spoken language context should be highlighted to inform students that "自个儿" (zìgèr) is not suitable for use in written work.

Suggested translation: oneself (r-ending retroflexion word) (Oral)

Example 19 (Line 10, Lesson 12 *Discover China 3*) I

份量词 share

如果不想跟他再见面，我会付自己的那份。

I will pay for my food if I don't want a date with him again.

"份" (fèn) in Chinese is commonly used as a noun to indicate a part (belonging to someone) of a whole. In the given context, "份" (fèn) refers to the amount of money the speaker spent when dating a man. The given translation provides a similar meaning as "份" (fèn) in terms of "a part of a larger amount which is divided among or contributed by a number of people". But the indication of "份" (fèn) in "belonging to someone/someone's own part" should be clarified to avoid any misunderstanding. The part of speech should also be annotated in accordance with the original Chinese word.

Suggested translation: noun; a portion, one's own part of the whole

Example 20 (Line 24, Lesson 6 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive Course II*) I

把 量词 added to such measure words as 百, 千, 万, 里, 丈, 顷, 斤, 个 to indicate the approximate number

在那时, 百把块钱就能让家里过个好年。

At that time, about one hundred yuan was enough for a big family to celebrate New Year's Day with lots of food.

"把" (bǎ) in Chinese is a polysemous word. When used as a measure word suffixed to a numeral (e.g. hundred and thousand, etc) and as a measurement unit (e.g. kilometre and kilogramme, etc), it indicates an approximate number or a number near the quantity indicated by the given figure. In the given context, it refers to about one or more than one hundred yuan (a Chinese monetary unit). The given translation partly conveys the original meaning of "把" (bǎ), but as "百, 千, 万" are not measure words, the original translation "added to such measure words as 百, 千, 万" is inaccurate.

Suggested translation: a measure word to indicate an approximate number

Example 21 (Line 1, Lesson 6 *Discover China 3*) I

篇 量词 piece

史蒂夫的一篇日记。

This is one of Stephen's diaries.

"篇" (piān) is commonly used as a measure word for a piece of written work (e.g. a diary, an article, or a report from the newspaper). In the given context, it is used to illustrate one of Stephen's diaries. The given translation "piece" has the meaning of "a musical or written work", but the clarification of "written work" should be made here, given that "piece" can accompany a limitless range of objects in English, ranging from "cheese" to "gold". The current definition's inadequacy causes a translation problem within the lexical meaning category.

Suggested translation: a measure word for written work

Example 22 (Line 3, Lesson 8 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I I*) P

拉 动词 to have diarrhea

杰克：我肚子不舒服,昨天晚上拉了三、四次。

Jack: Yesterday I went to the toilet for 3–4 times because my stomach felt discomfort.

"拉" (lā) is a polysemous verb in Chinese. Its basic meaning is to indicate the action "pull". When used together with "肚子" (dùzi, belly) in context, it refers to the action of excretion. It emphasizes the action and has derived related words such as "拉肚子" (lādùzi, diarrhea). "Diarrhea" in English refers to "an illness in which waste matter is emptied from the bowels much more frequently than normal, and in liquid form". When translated as a phrase "to have diarrhea", the semantic meaning of "拉" (lā) has been expanded, because diarrhea is one of the results of "拉" (lā). The action meaning of "拉" (lā) should be pointed out clearly to indicate a process of action.

Suggested translation: excrete, have diarrhea

Example 23 (Line 6, Lesson 16 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course II*) P

到底 副词 1 at last, in the end, finally; 2 used in a question for emphasis.

我一直担心的事情到底还是发生了。

Finally it happened.

"到底" (dàodǐ) in Chinese is commonly used as an adverb to illustrate the status "at last, in the end, finally". In the given context, it shows that the problems a person worried about for a long time have finally occurred. "到底" (dàodǐ) can also be used in a question for emphasis, but its use here is inaccurate for conveying the meaning in the given context. It creates a translation problem within the lexical meaning category, and should be removed.

Suggested translation: at last, in the end, finally

Example 24 (Line 2, Lesson 13 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course II*) P

除了 介词 except; but; besides; in addition to

父亲对我说: "除了西班牙语和英语以外, 你还得再学习一种语言。"

My father has suggested: "Besides Spanish and English, you'd better learn one more language".

"除了" (chúle) in Chinese can be explained as "except, besides, and in addition to". When used in an assertive sentence, the content within "除了" (chúle) and "以外" (yǐwài) is included. In the given context, it shows that the child has learnt Spanish and English, and his father asked him to learn one more language. Thus the other two languages (Spanish and English) are included in the conversation. "Except" in English means "not including". "But" has a similar meaning – "not including" – except when used as a preposition. These two translations are inappropriate to convey the original meaning of "除了" (chúle). 'Besides' and 'in addition to' can be used as the proper translation for "除了" (chúle) as they focus on the notion of "adding new quantities based on the original amount". The broad range of meanings presented in the textbook constitutes a translation problem within the lexical meaning category.

Suggested translation: besides; in addition to

Example 25 (Line 2, Lesson 15 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 2*) P

除了 介词 except, besides

除了风景优美以外, 青岛还有很多企业, 其中青岛啤酒非常有名。

Besides the beautiful scenery, there are many famous companies in Qing Dao, such as Qing Dao beer, a very famous brand in China.

"除了" (chúle) in Chinese is commonly used in the sentence pattern "除了" (chúle)...以外 (yǐwài) and can be explained as "except, besides, and in addition to". When used in an assertive sentence, the content within "除了" (chúle) and "以外" (yǐwài) is included. In the given context, the sentence is an assertive sentence.

It means that both beautiful scenery and many commercial enterprises are significant characteristics in Qingdao. "Except" in English means that the content after "except" is not included. This is different from the original Chinese meaning in the given context. "Besides" in English means "in addition to" and is very close to the original meaning of the Chinese word.

Suggested translation: besides, in addition to

Example 26 (Line 8, Lesson 1 *An Easy Approach to Chinese II I*) I

家 名词 home, measure word (for business establishments)

在别的城市还有几家分公司。

There are other branches in other cities.

"家" (jiā) in Chinese is commonly used as a noun refers to "home" and "house". When used as a measure word, it is used for calculating the size and scale of the business (e.g. 3 companies and 5 shops, etc). In the given context, it is used as a measure word to illustrate that there are other branches in different cities. "Home" is another meaning of "家" (jiā) and is used as a noun. But it is unnecessary to give all the possible translations within this specific context.

Suggested translation: measure word; a measure word for business establishment

(2) Inappropriateness

Example 27 (Line 7, Lesson 22 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course I*) P

来 动词 (used as a substitute for a more specific verb) want

马丁：再来一份意大利面条、两杯可乐。

Martin: Please give us one more pasta and two glasses of cola.

"来" (lái) in Chinese is a polyseme used to indicate the action of "coming here". When used together with a numeral, such as "一碗米饭" (yīwǎnmǐfàn, a bowl of rice), "两盘意大利面" (liǎngpányìdàlimiàn, two plates of pasta) and "一张纸" (yīzhāngzhǐ, a piece of paper), it is used to illustrate the action of "add one more to someone / somewhere". In the given context, "来" (lái) is used together with "

一份" (yīfèn, a pasta) to indicate that they still need one portion of pasta and two glasses of cola. The given translation "want" can convey part of the original meaning in "asking for". But the explanation "used as a substitute for a more specific verb" is too vague to express the original meaning of "来" (lái).

Suggested translation: need, ask for

Example 28 (Line 4, Lesson 16 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 2*) P

上来 动词 to come up

金大成：今天早上电梯坏了，我只好走上来了。

Jin Dacheng: I have to walk upstairs because the elevator has broken.

"上来" (shànglái) in Chinese is a directional verb to indicate the action of going upward. In the given context, "上来" (shànglái) refers to going upstairs. If it is translated as "to come up", it does not only reflect the notion of an upward movement, because "to come up" also indicates the meaning of "something unexpectedly happening" or "walking towards another person". Thus the concept of "upstairs" should be emphasized to avoid any misunderstanding.

Suggested translation: to go upstairs

Example 29 (Line 4, Lesson 16 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 2*) P

上去 动词 to go up

金大成：您打算爬上去吗？

Jin Dacheng: Do you want to walk upstairs?

"上去" (shàngqù) in Chinese is a directional verb to indicate an upward action. In the given context, it means "go upstairs". When translated as "to go up", the upward meaning should be distinguished as "to go up" also shares the meaning of "increasing", for example in the context of prices.

Suggested translation: to go upstairs

Example 30 (Line 7, Lesson 16 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 2*) P

过去 动词 to go over

金大成：我给您送过去。

Jin Dacheng: I will bring it to your office.

"过去" (guòqù) in Chinese is a directional verb that indicates an outward movement towards a given place. In the given context, "过去" (guòqù) means to bring the assignment to the teacher's office. When merely translated as "to go over", the sense of the "outward movement" also potentially extends to "review something that happened in the past". The sense of "outward movement" should be clearly pointed out to avoid any misuse.

Suggested translation: to go over to a certain place

Example 31 (Line 8, Lesson 16 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 2*) P

过来 动词 to come over

王一中：在，你给我送过来吧。

Wang Yizhong: Yes, I will be in my office then, please take it to my office.

"过来" (guòlái) in Chinese is a directional verb that indicates an inward movement. In the given context, 过来 (guòlái) means that someone will take the assignment to the speaker's office. When translated as "to come over", the emphasis of the "inward action" is not fully reflected as "to come over" as it also refers to "to visit someone". The indication of "inward movement" should be clearly emphasized.

Suggested translation: come here

Example 32 (Line 1, Lesson 2 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course I*) P

是 动词 be

崔浩：你是哪国人？

Cui Hao: Where do you come from?

"是" (shì) in Chinese is commonly used as a verb to express judgment. In the given context, it is used to lead to a judgment on the nationality of the speaker. The given translation is a general explanation of "是" (shì) at the lexical meaning

level. But the specific emphasis of judgment should be clarified to ensure that the term is used correctly.

Suggested translation: be (for judgment)

Example 33 (Line 4, Lesson 7 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 2*) P

来 动词 (used in place of a more specific verb) to do

我来介绍一下, 这是安娜, 她是俄罗斯留学生。

Let me introduce her. This is Anna, a Russian student.

"来" (lái) is a polysemous word in Chinese. Its basic meaning is "come". In this given context, it is used as a verb positioned in front of another verb to indicate a move or intentionality to do something. "来 + Verb" is a fixed collocation. When translated into English, the fixed collocation in this context should be introduced instead of saying "used in place of a more specific verb". Complete information such as this will help to avoid any problem as there are many other usages of "来" (lái) in Chinese. This clarification should be added to keep the translation at a functional equivalence level.

Suggested translation: to do (fixed collocation: 来 + verb)

Example 34 (Line 2, Lesson 15 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 2*) P

优美 形容词 beautiful

除了风景优美以外, 青岛还有很多企业, 其中青岛啤酒非常有名。

Besides the beautiful scenery, there are other famous companies, for example, Qing Dao beer company.

"优美" (yōuměi) in Chinese is used for praising non-human objects, such as scenery, voices, paintings, etc. In the given context, it is used for illustrating the beautiful scenery in Qingdao. "Beautiful" in English can be used for both human and non-human objects. The precise contextual limitations of this term should be clarified here to avoid any misuse.

Suggested translation: beautiful (for scenery)

Example 35 (Line 2, Lesson 7 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 1*) P

才 副词 indicating that sth has taken place later than the usual, proper or expected time

你怎么才回来呀?

Why did you come back so late?

"才" (cái) in Chinese is a time adverb used to describe a certain point-in-time. Its lexical meaning is "only". If a point-in-time has been given in the context, such as 9:00 am, yesterday or the time during which an action/behaviour is developing, "才" (cái) is used to indicate that "some actions have taken place earlier or later than the given time". When used in front of a verb, it is a fixed collocation to indicate a later status than the usual. In this given context, it is used together with the verb "回来" (huílái), and it refers to a later status than usual. The specific usage should be pointed out to avoid any misuse in other contexts. The translation uses an amplification translation strategy to convey its original meaning, but its fixed collocation with a verb should be highlighted to keep its appropriacy here. Suggested translation: indicating that sth has taken place later than the usual, proper or expected time (fixed collocation: 才+ verb)

Example 36 (Line 8, Lesson 3 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 1*) P

正好 副词 just

我正好要去邮局买邮票，下课以后咱们一起去吧。

I will go to the Post Office to buy a stamp at that time, too. Shall we go together after class?

"正好" (zhènghǎo) is used as an adverb in this context. The lexical meaning of the adverb is to indicate a coincidence. According to the context provided, it means that both the speaker and listener will go to the Post Office but they did not know this until they talked about it. "Just" in English has a similar meaning in terms of "exactly or nearly at this or that moment", but this should be pointed out to distinguish "at this/that moment" from other meanings of "just" (such as 'only') to avoid any confusion for learners.

Suggested translation: (the same time) as well

Example 37 (Line 4, Lesson 2 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I I*) P

常 副词 often, usually

吃饭时间也常问"吃了吗"?

We often ask others "have you had your meal?" as a greeting at dining time.

"常"(cháng) in Chinese is used to illustrate that the status of a type of behaviour/action is "of frequent occurrence, but not happening all the time". Its conceptual meaning is "repeated action". "Often" in English means the "behaviour/action happens many times (at short intervals)". This translation is close to the original meaning of "常" (cháng) and essentially conveys the original meaning in English. However, "usually" indicates "the behaviour/action happening all the time and on every occasion". It offers an approximate rendition of "常" (cháng) but contains an unnecessary emphasis (all the time and on every occasion). This is not in accordance with the original meaning of "常" (cháng) and cannot meet the requirement of functional equivalence.

Suggested translation: often

Example 38 (Line 4, Lesson 4 *An Easy Approach to Chinese I*) P

杯 量词 a cup of / a glass of

我要一杯咖啡。

I would like a cup of coffee.

"杯" (bēi) in Chinese is a polysemous word. Its basic meaning is "cups/mugs/glasses or other cup shape containers". When used as a measure word together with drinks, it is used to describe drinks contained in cups/mugs/glasses. The drinks described by 杯 (bēi) should be contained in cups/mugs/glasses rather than contained in bowls, bottles and other containers. In Chinese there are many different measure words for drinks. The essential condition "drinks contained in cups/mugs/glasses" should be identified clearly to distinguish "杯" (bēi) from other measure words used for drinks.

Suggested translation: a measure word for drinks contained in a cup/mug/glass

Example 39 (Line 10, Lesson 18 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course II*) P

部 量词 used for movies, books, etc

尽管他已经把这部电影看了几十遍。

He has watched this movie for several times.

"部" (bù) in Chinese is measure word commonly used for movies, books of a specific genre, or theatrical plays. In this given context, it refers to a movie. The given translation "used for movies" appropriately illustrates one key application of "部" (bù). But simply putting "books" here is not accurate enough as there are other measure words for books, such as "本" (běn) and "套" (tào). "部" (bù) can also be used for books, but the genre of such books must be clearly clarified, such as "一部小说" (yībù xiǎoshuō, a novel) or "一部人物传记" (yībù rénwùzhuànjì, an autobiography), etc. This sort of clarification should be made to ensure that this very specific measure word is used appropriately. As it stands, it creates a non-equivalent translation problem within the lexical meaning category. As "部" (bù) – in this given context – is only used for a movie, arguably, it is unnecessary for other information to be listed, and if it is, it needs to be tailored in its accuracy. Suggested translation: a measure word for movies, books (of a specific genre)

Example 40 (Line 3, Lesson 19 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 2*) P

幅 量词 a measure word used for cloth, silk paintings, etc

墙上挂着一幅中国的山水画，还有一张我们全家的照片。

Besides the Chinese landscape painting, there is a family photo hanging on the wall as well.

"幅" (fú) is a measure word used for paintings and cloth products (e.g. cross-stitch product and silk paintings). Paintings include silk paintings, paper paintings and other kinds of paintings. In the given context, "幅" (fú) is used for a

painting of Chinese landscapes. There is no evidence to show whether the painting is made from paper or silk. The given translation has conveyed the original meaning of "幅" (fú) but for some reason limits the definition unnecessarily to silk artworks.

Suggested translation: a measure word used for paintings and cloth products

Example 41 (Line 4, Lesson 7 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 1*) P

杯 量词 a measure word for drinks

金大成：你能帮我买杯咖啡吗？

Jin Dacheng: Would You Please Buy Me A Cup Of Coffee?

"杯" (bēi) in Chinese is a polysemous word. Its basic meaning is "cups/mugs/glasses or other cup shaped containers". When used as a measure word together with drinks, it is used to describe drinks contained in cups/mugs/glasses. The drinks described by "杯" (bēi) should be contained in cups/mugs/glasses rather than contained in bowls, bottles and other containers. In Chinese there are many different measure words for drinks. The essential condition "drinks contained in cups/mugs/glasses" should be identified clearly to distinguish "杯" (bēi) from other measure words used for drinks.

Suggested translation: a measure word for drinks contained in a cup/mug/glass

Example 42 (Line 4, Lesson 9 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 1*) P

条 量词 a measure word for long and thin things

不过可以送您一条真丝手帕。

But we can give you a silk scarf for free.

"条" (tiáo) in Chinese is a measure word. Its basic meaning is "bar shaped object". In this context, it is used for describing "the specific shape (long and thin) and property (soft) of something". The emphasis in this context is on its "long, thin and soft" properties, such as those of a scarf, a dress, or ribbon. When translated from its basic meaning, these specific properties and characteristics must be identified to distinguish "条" (tiáo) from different measure words that are relevant

to other "long and thin things" (e.g. a tree branch or a carton of cigarettes). If such specific characteristics are not provided, the definition will not fully explain the original meaning of "条" (tiáo) at a functional equivalence level.

Suggested translation: a measure word for long, thin, and soft objects

Example 43 (Line 7, Lesson 9 *An Easy Approach to Chinese I*) P

束 量词 a bunch of

他手里拿着一束花儿。

He has brought some flowers.

"束" in Chinese is used as a measure word for flowers. In the given context, it refers to a number of fresh flowers wrapped in gift paper. The given translation 'bunch' has a similar meaning to "束" in terms of a number of things grouped/tied/held/wrapped up together. But unlike in English, where 'bunch' can be applied to fruits (e.g. grapes, bananas) and other contexts, the specific usage (for flowers) should be emphasized in order to provide a proper translation for learners.

Suggested translation: (a measure word for flowers) a bunch of

Example 44 (Line 8, Lesson 1 *Discover China 2*) P

本 量词 used for books

有时间我要去图书馆借几本中文故事书。

I will go to the library to borrow some storybooks when I have time.

"本" (běn) in Chinese is a measure word for illustrating a single book or several books (not for a series of books). In the given context, it means that the speaker wants to borrow some storybooks from the library. There is no obvious indication to show whether these are a series of books or individual books. The translation is appropriate to convey the original meaning of "本" (běn). But there are other measure words used for books, such as "套" (tào, for a series of books) and "册" (cè, a formal way to refer to books). This specific use should be clarified to avoid any misuse or misunderstanding.

Suggested translation: used for books (not for books in a set)

Example 45 (Line 2, Lesson 3 *An Easy Approach to Chinese I*) P

本 量词 for books

那是一本中文书。

That is a Chinese book.

"本" (běn) in Chinese is a measure word for illustrating a single book or several books (not a series of books). In the given context, it refers to a single book. The translation is appropriate to convey the original meaning of "本" (běn). But there are other measure words used for books, such as "套" (tào, for a series of books), "册" (cè, a formal way to refer to books) and "部" (bù, for books of a specific genre). This specific application should be clarified to avoid any misuse or misunderstanding.

Suggested translation: used for books (not for books in a set)

Example 46 (Line 2, Lesson 5 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course I*) P

个 量词 used before nouns without a special classifier of their own

朱云：林娜，你们班有多少个学生？

Zhu Yun: Lin Na, how many students are there in your class?

"个" (gè) in Chinese is commonly used as an all-purpose measure word for anything (both single and plural), such as a person, products, fruits, etc. In the given context, it is used for counting the amount of students. The given translation has generally explains the usage of "个" (gè). But the specific characteristic of its wide use should ideally be given to assist the student in understanding the term's application.

Suggested translation: an all-purpose measure word for nouns (e.g. a person) which do not have a specific measure word applicable to them

Example 47 (Line 4, Lesson 6 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive*

Course I) P

块 量词 unit of money (equivalent to yuan)

一部电子词典七百八十块钱。

The electronic dictionary cost 780 kuai.

"块" (kuài) in Chinese is commonly used as a measure word to indicate a part of the whole. It is also used as a basic Chinese currency unit in spoken language. 块 (kuài) is equivalent to "元" (yuán, basic Chinese currency unit) but 块 (kuài) is used in an informal way in spoken language. A more detailed explanation like this should be provided to avoid any misuse.

Suggested translation: Chinese currency unit, equivalent to 元 yuán (Oral)

Example 48 (Line 11, Lesson 10 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course II*) P

级 量词 step; stage

一个爱美的女孩子，在公园的台阶上一级一级的往上走。

A beautiful girl walks upstairs step by step in the park.

"级" (jí) in Chinese is a measure word for steps. In the given context, it refers to the steps leading up or down into a garden. The given translation 'step' is within the range of application of "级" (jí). But the full explanation should be provided for learners. "Stage" in English can refer to "a raised floor or platform on which actors, entertainers, or speakers perform" and it is also used for a phase of a project or journey. Because of these supplementary meanings, the term is not helpful for illustrating the original meaning.

Suggested translation: a measure word for steps

Example 49 (Line 5, Lesson 17 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course I*) P

次 量词 time, occasion

林娜：李老師，這是我第一次包餃子，您看怎麼樣？

Lin Na: Miss Li, it is my first time making dumplings. Can you give me some

suggestions about it?

"次" (cì) in Chinese is commonly used as a noun and a measure word. When used as a measure word (as shown in the given context), it is used to indicate the occasions when an action occurs. In the given context, it is Lin Na's first time making dumplings. The given translation "time" and "occasion" explain the original meaning of 次 (cì) when it is used as a noun. However, as "次" (cì) is also used together with specific activities, for example "包饺子" (bāojiǎozi, making dumplings) and functions as a measure word, it cannot be simply explained by its noun meaning.

Suggested translation: a measure word for the occasion(s) / time(s) of an action

Example 50 (Line 9, Lesson 4 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course I*) P

吗 助词 used at the end of a question

林娜：你学习法语吗？

Lin Na: Do you want to learn French?

"吗" (mā) in Chinese is a modal particle in Chinese grammar. It is used at the end of the sentence to show interrogation. In the Chinese grammatical system, each modal particle must be used in a certain kind of sentence to express a certain mood. In the given context, the speaker is asking a question to another person. The given translation has provided the usage of "吗" (mā), but the modal particle "吗" (mā) can only be used at the end of a statement to form a question, not after other kinds of interrogative constructions. This distinction should be provided for learners in order to ensure that the particle is used appropriately.

Suggested translation: used at the end of a statement to form a question

Example 51 (Line 20, Lesson 16 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 2*) P

嘛 助词 indicating that something is obvious

我的想法是我既然挣了一万，就可以花五千，这不是还省下了一半嘛。

For me, as I have earned 10,000 yuan, I can spend half of them and save the rest.

"嘛" (ma) in Chinese is a particle used at the end of a sentence to indicate that something is obvious. It is also used in a fixed sentence pattern "不是 (búshì) ... 嘛 (ma)" to enforce affirmation. In the given context, the speaker emphasized the result that half of the money has already been saved. The given translation is adequate to explain the use of "嘛" (ma), but the usage in a fixed sentence "不是 (búshì) ... 嘛 (ma)" to enforce affirmation" should be clarified to give a clear explanation of "嘛" (ma).

Suggested translation: used to form a fixed rhetorical question; "不是...嘛" to indicate that something is obvious

Example 52 (Line 9, Lesson 1 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course II*) P

而 连词 used to express coordination by joining two elements opposite in meaning that show a contrast.

有些中国人和我见面不是问好，而是问一些奇怪的问题。

Some Chinese people have asked me a lot of strange questions instead of normal greetings.

"而" (ér) in Chinese is commonly used as a conjunction to express a transitional relationship between the former part and the latter part of the sentence. In the given context, it means that people always ask the person some strange questions rather than offering normal greetings. It is always used in a fixed sentence pattern "不是...而是..." (búshì... érshì...). The usage of "而" (ér) in the given context is used in the fixed sentence pattern "不是...而是" (búshì... érshì...). The given translation has explained the usage of "而" (ér), but a fuller explanation outlining its fixed sentence pattern should be provided to clarify the format of sentences featuring the construction.

Suggested translation: express a transitional relationship between two parts of a

sentence (fixed sentence pattern: 不是...而是...)

Example 53 (Line 4, Lesson 27 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course I*) P

一边 连词 indicating two actions taking place at the same time

有的人一边散步，一边听收音机。

Some people are listening to the radio while walking.

"一边" (yibiān) in Chinese is widely used within a fixed sentence pattern "一边 (yibiān)...一边 (yibiān)..." to indicate a simultaneous status. In this given context, it is used specifically in a fixed sentence to indicate that someone likes listening to the radio while walking. The translation has explained the meaning of "一边 (yibiān)...一边 (yibiān)...", but the fixed sentence pattern should be clarified to ensure that it is used appropriately.

Suggested translation: indicating two actions taking place at the same time (fixed sentence pattern: 一边...一边...)

Example 54 (Line 7, Lesson 18 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course I*) P

给 介词 used to introduce the recipient of an action

林娜：可以，一会儿我给你发个电子邮件。

Lin Na: Of course, I will send you an email then.

"给" (gěi) in Chinese is used as a preposition to introduce the object of an action. In the given context, "给" (gěi) is used to emphasize that the email is sent by the speaker to the listener. The given translation adequately explains the usage of "给" (gěi), but a fuller explanation, including a preposition, should be provided for learners in order to avoid any misunderstanding.

Suggested translation: to, for (used to introduce the recipient of an action)

Example 55 (Line 11, Lesson 22 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 2*) P

连... 都/也... even

安娜：我已经决定回国了，连飞机票都买好了。

Anna: I have decided to go back and I have already bought the air ticket.

"连...都/也 (lián...dōu/yě)" in Chinese is used to form an emphatic sentence. In the given context, it is used to emphasize that the speaker has already bought the air ticket. The given translation "even" in English is also used for emphasis, but the original words have been used to compose a fixed sentence pattern which is different from a single word. This translation does convey the original meaning but the different pattern should be pointed out to give learners a clear understanding of the functional equivalence relationship between "连...都/也 (lián...dōu/yě)" and "even".

Suggested translation: (fixed emphatic sentence pattern) even

Example 56 (Line 9, Lesson 9 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 1*) P

是...就是 however

这件紫的漂亮是漂亮，就是太贵了。

This purple one is very beautiful, however, it is too expensive to afford.

"是...就是 (shì...jiùshì)" in Chinese is used as a transitional relative clause to indicate a contrastive transitional relationship. The latter part after "是" (shì) has a contrastive relationship with the initial part before "就是" (jiùshì). For example, "好是好，就是太贵了买不起" (It is good but too expensive to afford). When translated into English, "however" can admittedly present the contrastive transitional meaning of "是...就是 (shì...jiùshì)". But the original words have been used to compose a fixed sentence pattern which is different from a single word. The present translation conveys the original meaning but the specific pattern should be pointed out to give learners a clear understanding of the functional equivalence relationship between "是...就是 (shì...jiùshì)" and "however".

Suggested translation: (fixed adversative sentence pattern) however

Example 57 (Line 3, Lesson 5 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 1*) P

一边...一边 while

大家一边聊天，一边吃饺子。

We were chatting happily when having dumplings.

"一边... 一边 (yibiān... yibiān)" is a coordinate sentence pattern of Chinese syntax. It indicates a parallel relationship between both actions. Action "A" is being carried out at the same time as action "B". "While" in English has a similar meaning, "at the same time, meanwhile", but "while" also has a transitional meaning for describing a contrastive relationship. When translated as "while" in English, its coordinative relative meaning should be pointed out for learners to avoid choosing a transitional relative meaning or other meaning. The original Chinese words have been used to create a fixed sentence pattern which is different from a single word, and this different pattern should be highlighted to give learners a clear understanding of the functional equivalence relationship between "一边 一边 (yibiān... yibiān)" and "while".

Suggested translation: (fixed coordinate clause pattern) while

Example 58 (Line 2, Lesson 1 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course II 1*) I

让 动词 to let, to make, to ask

让我们一家人愉快相处的是我妈,爸只是每天上班下班。

It is my mother who makes us happy and pleasant. My father has just concentrated on his work.

"让" (ràng) in Chinese is a verb to indicate that someone has made an effort to cause an effect on something. In the given context, it indicates that his mother has done everything to make the whole family happy and harmonious. The given translation "to make" has a similar meaning to "让" (ràng) in "causing something to happen". But "to let" and "to ask" in English mean "requiring/allowing someone to do/something to happen" and "want someone to do, give, or allow something". These meanings have some similarity to the original meaning but the emphases are different. It is better to use the first definition, rather than be too

broad with possible definitions, which can cause a translation problem within the lexical meaning category.

Suggested translation: to make

Example 59 (Line 9, Lesson 5 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive Course II*) I

融洽 形容词 on good terms

游客们为人与自然的**融洽**感动着。

The tourists were touched by the harmonious relationship between humans and nature.

"融洽" (róngqià) in Chinese is used to illustrate a harmonious and peaceful relationship and atmosphere. In this given context, it illustrates the harmonious relationship between the local inhabitants of a place and nature. The given translation "on good terms" has a similar meaning as "融洽" in illustrating harmonious relations, but between people. However, "融洽" (róngqià) is also used to illustrate the rapport between humans and nature. This clarification should be pointed out to avoid any misuse of this culturally specific term.

Suggested translation: harmonious, peaceful

Example 60 (Line 2, Lesson 3 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive Course I*) I

坚强 形容词 strong

从小到大，我都希望把你培养成一个**坚强**自立的女孩子。

I hope you can become a strong and independent person in the future.

"坚强" (jiānqiáng) in Chinese is an adjective used to illustrate that someone is brave and able to overcome difficulties and pressures. It is described from a mental / spiritual perspective. In the given context, it means that parents want to bring a girl up to be a brave and independent person. The given translation "strong" has a similar meaning as "坚强" (jiānqiáng) in "withstanding great force or pressure". However, "strong" in English also frequently refers to "physically

powerful" in certain contexts and this key difference should be distinguished to ensure that the implications of the term are understood.

Suggested translation: strong (mental/spiritual level)

Example 61 (Line 8–9, Lesson 4 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course II I*)

I

干脆 副词 simply, just

有人说，干脆走到她身边，告诉他，你喜欢上他了。

Someone suggests to her to walk straight up to him and tell him that she has fallen in love with him.

"干脆" (gāncuì) in Chinese is an adjective used to illustrate a quick and decisive style of behaviour, the opposite to hesitation. In the given context, the speaker is encouraged by her friends to express her feelings to the young man, rather than only waiting. The given translation "simply" has a similar meaning to "干脆" (gāncuì) in terms of "a simple way". "Just" means "exactly or nearly at this or that moment", and it is not the best option to convey the original meaning. A more delineated definition should be provided to ensure that the term is learned accurately.

Suggested translation: adjective; straightforward, decisive

Example 62 (Line 5, Lesson 4 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive Course II*) I

简直 副词 simply, just

正常高矮的电灯开关，在桑兰看来简直太高了，根本够不着。

The switch button is not very high, but it is still very hard for Sang Lan to touch it.

"简直" (jiǎnzhí) in Chinese is commonly used as an adverb to illustrate a considerable extent or degree. In this particular context, it is used to indicate that Sang Lan feels that even the normal height is very hard for her to reach. The given translation "simply" in English refers to an absolute status and as outlined in the

previous example, "just" has a whole range of possible definitions in English. These translations cannot convey the original meaning of "简直" (jiǎnzhí).

Suggested translation: very

Example 63 (Line 8, Lesson 20 *An Approach to Chinese II*) I

片儿 量词 for tablets, slices etc

每次吃两片儿。

Take two tablets every time.

"片儿" (piànr) in Chinese is a "r"-ending retroflexion word from ancient times. The non-syllabic suffix "儿" (r) causes a retroflexion of the preceding vowel. It is a typical pronunciation phenomenon of Beijing dialects in the northern part of China and is used in spoken language. Its original format is "片" (piàn) which is commonly used in Chinese as a measure word for thin and slice-shaped objects, such as tablets, slices of bread, or leaves. In the given context, it is used for two tablets. The given translation has explained "片" (piàn) in terms of its usage, but the distinctive indication of "thin and slice-shaped" and the specific usage of this "r-ending retroflexion word" should be introduced and its spoken language context should be highlighted to inform students that "片儿" (piànr) is not suitable for written work.

Suggested translation: a measure word for thin and slice-shaped objects (tablets) (r-ending retroflexion word) (Oral)

Example 64 (Line 10, Lesson 3 *An Easy Approach to Chinese II*) I

把 量词 for umbrella, chair, etc

我应该买一把雨伞。

I have to buy an umbrella.

"把" (bǎ) in Chinese is a measure word for objects with a handle, such as an umbrella, a knife or certain types of chair. In the given context, it refers to an umbrella. The given translation has given an indication of the original word's

range of applications, but the characters of objects that are referred to after "把" (bǎ) should be clarified so that learners are clear about which items are relevant to this measure word.

Suggested translation: a measure word for objects with a handle (e.g. umbrella)

Example 65 (Line 16, Lesson 9 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course II 1*) I

部 量词 a measure word used for books, movies, etc

他 17 岁就发表了自己的第一部小说。

When he was 17 years old, he published his first novel.

"部" (bù) in Chinese is a measure word commonly used for movies, books from a specific genre or plays. In the given context, it refers to a novel. The given translation "used for books, movies, etc" explains the range of applications of "部" (bù). But a mere reference to "books" here is not sufficient as there are other measure words for books, such as "本" (běn) and "套" (tào). "部" (bù) can also be used for books, but the genre of these books should be clearly clarified, such as "一部小说" (yībù xiǎoshuō, a novel) or "一部人物传记" (yībù rénwùzhuànjì, an autobiography), etc. It is important to make this distinction to ensure that the measure word's use is learned appropriately. Suggested translation: a measure word for books (of a specific genre)

Example 66 (Line 9–10, Lesson 2 *Discover China 3*) I

不是...而是... not ...but... , instead

这本书的重点**不是**各个朝代的皇帝，**也不是**战争故事，**而是**中国传统文化方面的内容。

The book neither concerns emperors in different dynasties nor war stories. It talks about the traditional Chinese culture.

"不是 (búshì)... 而是 (érshì)..." in Chinese is a fixed coordinate complex sentence pattern used to express a coordinative relationship. In this fixed sentence pattern, the order of the clauses introduced by "不是" (búshì) and "而是" (érshì) cannot be exchanged. Otherwise the meaning of the whole sentence will be

changed. "Not... but..." in English is used to express the coordinate relationship and is appropriate to convey the original meaning of the Chinese sentence pattern. However, as a complex sentence pattern, it is not suitable to be explained by a single word "instead". The emphasis of the coordinative sentence pattern should be clearly pointed out to avoid any misuse.

Suggested translation: (a fixed sentence pattern for coordinative relationship)
not... ; but...

Example 67 (Line 8, Lesson 14 *An Easy Approach to Chinese II*) I

是...的 a sentence construction for emphasis

我是前年来中国的。

I came to China a year ago.

"是" (shì)... "的" (de) in Chinese is used to express emphasis. It can be used to emphasize particularly the time of a completed action. In the given context, it is used to emphasize the time "前年" (qiánnián) of an occurrence. The given translation has explained the fixed sentence pattern at its function meaning level. But the specific emphasis on time should be clarified in order to give a complete explanation to readers.

Suggested translation: a sentence pattern for emphasis, particularly the time of an action

Example 68 (Line 5–6, Lesson 2 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive Course I*) I

况且 连词 besides; moreover

房子旧点儿，家居少点儿，也没有关系；况且，我很少逛商店超市，更没时间去美容健身，这些配套设施对我没什么用。

It doesn't matter if the house is old and unfurnished. Moreover, I don't go shopping very often and seldom visit the beauty salon and fitness centre. Such supporting facilities are not necessary.

"况且" (kuàngqiě) in Chinese indicates a further stage beyond a current status. In

the given context, it means that the condition of the housing is acceptable; although it is far away from commercial area, this is not an issue for the speaker because she does not go shopping very often. The given translation "moreover" effectively explains the original meaning of "况且" (kuàngqiě) as "as a further matter". "Besides" in English can refer to "as well as" and this is not ideal as a definition of the original meaning. Suggested translation: moreover

Example 69 (Line 2, Lesson 1 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive Course II*) I

着 助词 used after a verb, indicating the continuation of an action or a state

李伟：正等着你们呢。

Li Wei: We are waiting for you.

"着" (zhē) in Chinese is commonly used as a particle. Compared with English verbs, Chinese verbs do not have inflection in form. Thus, some particles, such as "了" (le), "着" (zhē), "过" (guò) are commonly used after verbs to add various additional meanings. When added to a verb, "着" (zhē) indicates that an action is in progress or in a certain state at a certain time, or a certain state is continuing. It is used together with the particle "呢" (ne) at the end of the sentence. In the given context, it means that the speaker is waiting for someone. The given translation has explained the usage of "着" (zhē) but a complete explanation (collocation with 呢 ne) for fixed usage of this kind should be provided to avoid any misunderstanding or misuse.

Suggested translation: (fixed collocation with 呢) used after a verb to indicate the continuation of an action or a state

Example 70 (Line 1, Lesson 15 *An Easy Approach to Chinese II*) I

把 介词 prep used in a ba-type sentence。

他把汽车修理好了。

He has repaired the car.

"把" (bǎ) in Chinese is commonly used as a preposition to indicate how a person or thing is dealt with or affected. The word after "把" (bǎ) is what is dealt with or affected. In the given context, it means someone has repaired the car. The given translation has indicated the collocation of "把" (bǎ) in a fixed ba-type sentence, but the proper translation and usage of "把" (bǎ) should be added to provide clarification.

Suggested translation: to indicate how a person or thing is dealt with or affected (ba-type sentence pattern)

(3) Incompleteness

Example 71 (Line 3, Lesson 11 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course II*) P

夹 动词 place or stay in between

一个小女孩儿摘下了一朵小花，夹进了一本旧书里。

The little girl has picked up a small flower and placed it into an old book.

"夹" (jiá) in Chinese is commonly used as a verb to illustrate the action of "place something in between and press from both sides". In the given context, the little girl has placed a flower into an old book and then closed the book. The process of "placing the flower into the book and then closing the book" can be explained by 夹 (jiá). The given translation has illustrated half of the action – "place something in between". But the complete meaning of the whole process of 夹 (jiá) should be provided to avoid any misunderstanding. The reference to "stay" is irrelevant here.

Suggested translation: place in between and press from both sides

Example 72 (Line 4, Lesson 2 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I I*) P

复姓 名词 compound surname

欧阳是中国的复姓。

Ouyang is a compound surname in China.

"复姓" (fùxìng) is a Chinese culturally loaded compound word. In China, One

character surnames/family names are still prevalent in Chinese culture. However, there are still some unique surnames/family names of two or more syllables that derive from ancient China and which have been preserved till now. "复姓" (fùxìng) in Chinese means a surname/family name with two or more characters. When translated as "compound surname" in English, this just shows the lexical meaning at the word level; the specific cultural meaning and the notion of "two or more characters" does not fully reflect the original meaning at the functional equivalence level. Such specific cultural information should be provided for learners.

Suggest translation: compound (two or more characters) surname (culture)

Example 73 (Line 4, Lesson 9 *Discover China 3*) I

座 量词 for an immovable object

关于这座古寺，有很多美丽的传说。

There are many fantastic stories about the ancient temple.

"座" (zuò) is used as a measure word for large scale and immovable object, such as buildings, temples or mountains. The emphasis of "座" (zuò) is "large scale" and "immovable". In the given context, it is used for referring to an ancient temple. The given translation "for an immovable object" has explained part of the meaning of "座" (zuò), but the complete meaning and distinction from other measure words in Chinese for immovable objects should be provided as well.

Suggested translation: a measure word for a large scale and immovable object

Example 74 (Line 6, Lesson 14 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive Course II*) I

一旦 连词 some day, once

然而，一旦人们遇到麻烦、有了困难、想找到答案时却发现，面对各种各样的说法，想要得到明确的结论却没那么容易。

However, when people are in trouble and struggling for solutions, it is hard for

them to make the right decision among various suggestions.

"一旦" (yídàn) in Chinese is commonly used as an adverb to indicate an unfulfilled event. In the given context, it indicates an unforeseen circumstance. The given translation is appropriate to convey the meaning of "一旦" (yídàn) in context, but the right part of speech should be provided as well as a more detailed translation to ensure a correct application of the term.

Suggested translation: adverb, some day, once (an unfulfilled event)

Example 75 (Line 1, Lesson 18 *An Easy Approach to Chinese II*) I

得 助词 particle

他经常来得很晚。

He always comes late.

"得" (de) in Chinese is commonly used as a structural particle. In the Chinese grammatical system, "得" (de) is only used after a verb or an adjective as a complement for further explanation. In the given context, it is suffixed to the verb "来 (lái)" to reinforce the status of his late coming. The given translation has explained its part of speech, but the indication of complement should be provided as well as the part of speech to give learners more detailed information.

Suggested translation: used after a verb or an adjective for further explanation

1. 2 Connotative meaning

(1) Affective meaning

Example 76 (Line 2, Lesson 9 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I I*) P

光临 动词 to make one's presence, to come

欢迎光临!

Welcome !

"光临" (guānglín) is a polite word used by a host to welcome guests on a visit. It is only used by the host to "welcome his/her guest" and is not suitable for guests to use when visiting somewhere. This is the fixed usage and situation for "光临" (guānglín). "To make one's presence" is an unclear, ineffective translation, perhaps

attempting to convey the idea of presenting oneself with an impressive manner. "To come" as an infinitive conveys the idea of arriving or approaching, but both of these two translations have no indication of the usage and politeness of "光临" (guānglín). When translated into English, this specific and polite meaning should be indicated to avoid any improper usage and to keep the functional equivalence. Suggested translation: (welcome) be present (a polite expression of salutation exclusively used by a host)

Example 77 (Line 1, Lesson 5 *Discover China 2*) P

光临 动词 come, be present

欢迎光临古城宾馆。

Welcome to Gucheng Hotel.

"光临" (guānglín) is a polite and formal word used by the host to welcome guests during their visits. It is only used by a host (not suitable for guests) to "welcome his/her guest" and this is the fixed usage and context for "光临" (guānglín). "Be present" just reflects the state of being present. Neither of these two translations conveys the usage and politeness of "光临" (guānglín) in the category of affective meaning, and "be present" is also a problem in the grammatical meaning category as it is different from the original part of speech (verb). When translated into English, this specific context and the polite meaning should be indicated to avoid any improper usage and to maintain the functional equivalence.

Suggested translation: (welcome) be present (a polite word/phrase of salutation exclusively used by a host)

Example 78 (Line 2, Lesson 20 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course I*) P

光临 动词 be present

服务员：欢迎光临！

Waiter: Welcome!

This is a further example of the term "光临" (guānglín), a polite word used by the

host to welcome guests for their visits. It is only used by the host to "welcome his/her guest" and is not suitable for guests to use when visiting somewhere. This is the fixed usage and context for "光临" (guānglín). "To be present" just reflects the state of being present and does not convey the usage and politeness of "光临" (guānglín). When translated into English, the specificity of the context and the polite meaning should be clearly indicated to avoid inappropriate use and to maintain functional equivalence.

Suggested translation: (welcome) to be present (a polite word/phrase of salutation exclusively used by a host)

Example 79 (Line 6, Lesson 10 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 1*)

P

团圆 名词 to reunite

老人呢，他们经常买很多好吃的东西，等孩子回家团圆。

The elder people always buy a lot of delicious food and wait for the reunion of their children.

"团圆" (tuán yuán) is a compound word in Chinese that indicates the "gathering of relatives or family members after a certain period of separation". It emphasizes the act of "relatives or family members" meeting again after a period of separation and is not suitable for use in other situations, involving friends, colleagues or classmates. There are many words which possess affective meaning in the Chinese vocabulary system. Such a specific emphasis should be conveyed clearly. "Reunite" implies the act of getting together again. The definition is left open and is not tailored to any particular group of people. In order to maintain the original emotional meaning, more information should be added to emphasize the unique emotional meaning of "团圆" (tuán yuán) to meet the requirement of functional equivalence.

Suggested translation: to reunite (family members and relatives only)

Example 80 (Line 1, Lesson 3 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course I*) P

贵姓 名词 your (honourable) surname

马丁：老师，您贵姓？

Martin: May I have your name, teacher.

"贵" (guì) in Chinese is commonly used to mean "dear and expensive" in the context of certain products. It is also used as a polite word in front of surnames, such as "贵姓" (guìxìng) to form a polite way of addressing a person. In the given context, it is used in a polite and respectful way to ask someone's name. It does not mean that someone's surname is necessarily honourable or prestigious. The meaning of "showing respect and politeness" should be clarified to avoid any misuse.

Suggested translation: surname (polite word)

Example 81 (Line 2, Lesson 1 *An Approach to Chinese I*) P

贵 形容词 respected

你贵姓？

Can I have your name, please?

As mentioned above, "贵" (guì) in Chinese is commonly known as "dear" or "expensive" to describe certain products. It is also used as a polite and formal word in front of surnames to form a polite way of asking others' names. In the given context, it is used in a polite and respectful way to ask someone's name. The meaning of "showing respect and politeness" should be clarified to avoid any misuse.

Suggested translation: respected, honourable (surname) (polite word)

Example 82 (Line 1, Lesson 5 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive Course I*) I

端 动词 hold (a cup, a plate, etc)

外商很感动，端起一杯酒。

The foreign businessman was so moved that he wanted to raise his glass.

"端" (duān) in Chinese is commonly used as a verb to indicate the action of "holding something level with both hands". It is always used on a formal occasion when drinking together with guests. In the given context, it means that the foreign businessman was so moved that he wants to make a toast. The given translation has explained "端" (duān) in terms of its range of applications, but the specific usage "on a formal occasion" should be provided for learners so that they are clear about the term's specific social connotation.

Suggested translation: hold (a cup) (on a formal occasion)

(2) Stylistic meaning

Example 83 (Line 9, Lesson 6 *An Approach to Chinese I*) P

玩儿 动词 play; have fun; amuse oneself

我和客人去长城玩儿。

I will invite the guests to go to the Great Wall for fun.

"玩儿" (wánr) in Chinese is a "r-ending retroflexion word" originating from ancient times. The original word is "玩" (wán) which means "play, have fun". The non-syllabic suffix "儿" (r) causes a retroflexion of the preceding vowel. It is a pronunciation phenomenon typical of Beijing dialects in the northern part of China and is used in spoken language. In the given context, it means that the speaker will take guests on a visit the Great Wall for enjoyment. The translation "play, have fun and amuse oneself" are appropriate for conveying the original meaning, but the specific application of this "r-ending retroflexion word" should be introduced and its spoken language use should be emphasized together with the translation to inform students that "玩儿" (wánr) is not suitable for use in written work.

Suggested translation: play, have fun, amuse oneself (r-ending retroflexion word)
(Oral)

Example 84 (Line 2, Lesson 8 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive*

Course II) P

使劲儿 动词 exert oneself (physically)

有时候还**使劲儿**地亲我的脸。

Sometimes she kisses my cheek hard.

"使劲儿" (shǐjìn) in Chinese is another "r-ending retroflexion word" originating from ancient times. The original word is "使劲 shǐjìn". The non-syllabic suffix "儿" (r) causes a retroflexion of the preceding vowel. It is another word whose pronunciation is a typical phenomenon of Beijing dialects in the northern part of China, and such words are used in spoken language. This word is always used before a verb to strengthen the action. It keeps the original meaning of "使劲" (shǐjìn) which describes a status of "exert oneself / make an effort to do something by physical strength". In the given context, it means that my elder sister likes me very much and consequently she kisses my cheeks very firmly. The given translation "exert oneself (physically)" does translate the original meaning appropriately. But the specific usage of "r-ending retroflexion words" should be introduced and their spoken language context should be pointed out together with the translation to inform the students that "使劲儿" (shǐjìn) is not suitable for use in written work.

Suggested translation: exert oneself (physically) (r-ending retroflexion word)
(Oral)

Example 85 (Line 8, Lesson 18 *An Easy Approach to Chinese I*) P

画儿 名词 painting; picture

这张**画儿**不好看。

This painting is not good.

"画儿" (huà) in Chinese is another "r-ending retroflexion word" originating from ancient times. The original word is "画" (huà). The non-syllabic suffix "儿" (r) causes a retroflexion of the preceding vowel. Like many of the examples in this section, it features a pronunciation phenomenon that is typical of Beijing dialects in the northern part of China and it is used in spoken language. The term keeps the

original meaning of "画" (huà) to refer to all kinds of painting. In this given context, it means a painting as a work of art. "Painting" and "picture" properly express the original meaning of "画" (huà). But it is important to introduce the specific usage of this r-ending retroflexion word, and its spoken language use should be pointed out together with the translation to inform the students that "画儿" (huàr) is not suitable for use in written work. Suggested translation: painting, picture (r-ending retroflexion word) (Oral)

Example 86 (Line 5, Lesson 20 *An Easy Approach to Chinese I*) P

点儿 名词 decimal point

我身高一点儿七九米，体重七十五公斤。

I'm 1.79 meters tall and my weight is about 75 kilograms.

"点儿" (diǎnr) in Chinese is a "r-ending retroflexion word" that originated from ancient times. The original word is "点" (diǎn). The non-syllabic suffix "儿" (r) causes a retroflexion of the preceding vowel. It is a further example of the pronunciation phenomenon that is typical of Beijing dialects in the northern part of China and the term is used within spoken language. In the given context, it refers to the decimal point used when illustrating the height of an object or person. "Decimal point" is an appropriate translation of the original meaning of "点" (diǎn). But the specific oral usage of this r-ending retroflexion word should be introduced and its spoken language application should be pointed out together with the translation to inform the students that "点儿" (diǎnr) is not suitable for use in written work.

Suggest translation: decimal point (r-ending retroflexion word) (Oral)

Example 87 (Line 4, Lesson 25 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course I*) P

好好儿 副词 (well)

那我要好好儿想一想。

I have to think carefully.

"好好儿" (hǎohāor) in Chinese is an "r-ending retroflexion word" that originated in ancient times. The original word is "好好" (hǎohāo). The non-syllabic suffix "儿" (r) causes a retroflexion of the preceding vowel. It is a pronunciation phenomenon typical of Beijing dialects in the northern part of China and the term is primarily used in spoken language. It is always used in front of a verb to strengthen the action. The term maintains the original meaning of "好好" (hǎohāo) to describe a status of "trying one's best to do something". "Well" is widely used in English to indicate a good/proper/satisfactory manner or something done to a high standard. It is close to the original meaning of "好好" (hǎohāo). But the specific oral usage of this "r-ending retroflexion word" should be introduced and its spoken language application should be pointed out together with the translation to inform students that "好好儿" (hǎohāor) is not suitable for use in written work. Suggest translation: well (r-ending retroflexion word) (Oral)

Example 88 (Line 4, Lesson 6 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 1*) P

有点儿 副词 (a little bit)

这个周末我有点儿累，可是过得很愉快。

Although I felt a little tired, I spent a happy day.

"有点儿" (yǒudiǎnr) in Chinese is another "r-ending retroflexion word" that originated in ancient times. The original word is "有点" (yǒudiǎn). The non-syllabic suffix "儿" (r) causes a retroflexion of the preceding vowel. Again, it is a pronunciation phenomenon that is typical of Beijing dialects in the northern part of China and the term is used in spoken language. In this given context, it is used as a degree adverb to indicate a tired status. The original meaning of "有点" (yǒudiǎn) is to illustrate a relatively low amount or a superficial status. When translated as "a little bit", the emphasis of insufficient status is clearly reflected. But the specific oral usage of this r-ending retroflexion word should be introduced and its spoken language application should be pointed out together with the translation to inform students that "有点" (yǒudiǎn) is not suitable for use in written work.

Suggest translation: a little bit (r-ending retroflexion word) (Oral)

Example 89 (Line 4, Lesson 22 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course I*) P

有点儿 副词 a bit, a little, slightly

可是我的自行车丢了，我有点儿生气。

I feel a little angry because I have lost my bike.

"有点儿" (yǒudiǎnr) in Chinese is another "r-ending retroflexion word" that originated in ancient times. The original word is "有点" (yǒudiǎn). The non-syllabic suffix "儿" (r) causes a retroflexion of the preceding vowel. It is a pronunciation phenomenon that is typical of Beijing dialects in the northern part of China and the term is used in spoken language. It is always used in front of a verb to strengthen the action. It maintains the original meaning of "有点" (yǒudiǎn) to describe "a small amount/slight degree". In this given context, "有点儿" (yǒudiǎnr) is used to describe a scenario in which although the speaker has lost his bike, he is not very angry but feels disappointed. The given translation "a bit, a little and slightly" appropriately conveys the original meaning of "有点儿" (yǒudiǎnr) in terms of "small in amount/degree". But the specific oral usage of this r-ending retroflexion word should be introduced and its spoken language application should be highlighted together with the translation to inform students that "有点儿" (yǒudiǎnr) is not suitable for use in written work.

Suggested translation: a bit, a little, slightly (r-ending retroflexion word) (Oral)

Example 90 (Line 1, Lesson 7 *An Approach to Chinese I*) P

这儿 代词 here

你的书不在这儿，在那儿。

Your book is over there.

"这儿" (zhèr) in Chinese is a "r"-ending retroflexion word that originated in ancient times. The formal version of "这儿" (zhèr) is "这里" (zhèlǐ). The non-syllabic suffix "儿" (r) causes a retroflexion of the preceding vowel. It is a

pronunciation phenomenon that is again typical of Beijing dialects in the northern part of China and which is used in spoken language. It is an informal way of indicating locations/direction. In the given context, it means that the book is here, not in the other place. "Here" is close to the original meaning of "这儿" (zhèr). But the specific feature of this r-ending retroflexion word should be introduced and its spoken language usage should be indicated together with the translation to inform students that "这儿" (zhèr) is not suitable for use in written work.

Suggested translation: here (r-ending retroflexion word) (Oral)

Example 91 (Line 1, Lesson 7 *An Approach to Chinese I*) P

那儿 代词 there

你的书不在这儿，在那儿。

Your book is over there.

"那儿" (nàr) in Chinese is another r-ending retroflexion word that originated in ancient times. The formal version of "那儿" (nàr) is "那里" (nàlǐ). The non-syllabic suffix "儿" (r) causes a retroflexion of the preceding vowel. It is another example of a pronunciation phenomenon that is typical of Beijing dialects in the northern part of China and which is used in spoken language. It is an informal way of indicating locations/directions. In the given context, it means that the book is there, not elsewhere. "There" is close to the original meaning of "那儿" (nàr). But the specific oral usage of this r-ending retroflexion word should be highlighted and its spoken language use should be pointed out together with the translation to inform students that "那儿" (nàr) is not suitable for written work.

Suggested translation: there (r-ending retroflexion word) (Oral)

Example 92 (Line 6, Lesson 1 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I I*) P

对了 语气助词 (by the way)

对了，我忘了介绍自己。

Oh, I forgot to introduce myself.

"对了" (duìle) is used as a modal particle in spoken language to attract the

attention of listeners to enable a speaker to say something has forgot to mention/ask. When placed at the beginning of the sentence and separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma, it is a fixed sentence pattern used in spoken language to arouse the attention of listeners. "By the way" in English is used in spoken language. It is also used to introduce additional information or a different topic. When translated as "by the way ", it maintains equivalence at a functional level and can convey the original meaning of "对了" (duìle). But its spoken language usage and its fixed sentence pattern should be highlighted to avoid any improper use.

Suggested translation: by the way (fixed sentence pattern) (Oral)

Example 93 (Line 14, Lesson 14 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive Course I*) I

没准儿 动词 maybe

没准儿他不好意思说，那我替他说。

Maybe he is too nervous to say so. Let me help him.

"没准儿" (méizhǔnr) in Chinese is a "r-ending retroflexion word" which originated in ancient times. The original word is "没准" (méizhǔn). The non-syllabic suffix "儿" (r) causes a retroflexion of the preceding vowel. It is a typical pronunciation phenomenon of Beijing dialects in the northern part of China and is used in spoken language. It is always used in front of a verb to strengthen the action. It keeps the original meaning of "没准" (méizhǔn) to describe the uncertain status of something/certain affairs. "Maybe" is widely used in English to express uncertainty or possibility. It is close to the original meaning of "没准" (méizhǔn), but the specific feature of "r-ending retroflexion word" should be included in the definition and its spoken language feature should be emphasized together with the translation to inform students that "没准儿" (méizhǔnr) is not suitable for written work.

Suggest translation: maybe (r-ending retroflexion word) (Oral)

Example 94 (Line 14, Lesson 6 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course II 1*) I

没准儿 动词 probably, perhaps

大妈说"看着就像坏人，没准儿是个骗子。"

The old woman says: "He looks like a cheat. Perhaps he is really a bad guy".

As mentioned above, "没准儿" (méizhǔnr) in Chinese is a "r-ending retroflexion word" from ancient times. The original word is "没准" (méizhǔn). The non-syllabic suffix "儿" (r) causes a retroflexion of the preceding vowel. It is a typical pronunciation phenomenon of Beijing dialects in the northern part of China and is used in spoken language. The original meaning of "没准" (méizhǔn) describes the uncertain status of something/certain affairs. In the given context, an old woman doubts a young man's honesty as his behaviour is very strange. "Perhaps" is widely used in English to express uncertainty or possibility. It is close to the original meaning of "没准" (méizhǔn), but "probably" in English means that something is "almost certain(ly)", and this is a step beyond notions of "uncertainty" or "possibility", making it inappropriate. The specific feature of this "r-ending retroflexion word" should be introduced into the definition and its spoken language feature should be pointed out together to inform the students that "没准儿" (méizhǔnr) should not be used in written work.

Suggested translation: perhaps, maybe (r-ending retroflexion word) (Oral)

Example 95 (Line 13, Lesson 3 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course II 1*) I

人情味儿 名词 human interest, human kindness

我觉得一个有人情味儿的家庭

I believe it is the family which is united by strong intimate affection between family members.

"人情味儿" (rénqíngwèir) in Chinese is another "r-ending retroflexion word" from ancient times. The original word is "人情味" (rénqíngwèi). The non-syllabic suffix "儿" (r) causes a retroflexion of the preceding vowel. It is a typical pronunciation phenomenon of Beijing dialects in the northern part of China and is used in spoken language. "人情味 (rénqíngwèi)" refers to a harmonious

relationship and intimate feeling among family members/people. "Human interest" and "human kindness" are widely used in English to express warmth and affection among people, and the terms are close to the original meaning of "人情味" (rénqíngwèi). But it is also important to introduce the specific usage of this "r-ending retroflexion word", and its spoken language feature should be pointed out to inform students that "人情味儿" (rénqíngwèir) is not suitable for inclusion in written work.

Suggested translation: human interest, human kindness (r-ending retroflexion word) (Oral)

Example 96 (Line 4, Lesson 12 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive Course I*) I

一个劲儿 副词 continuously

手机铃声响了，她或者他拿出手机，不是用耳朵去接听，而是一个劲儿地盯着屏幕笑。

He or she laughed, staring at the screen, rather than answering the mobile when it rings.

"一个劲儿" (yí gè jìn r) in Chinese is a "r-ending retroflexion word" from ancient times. The non-syllabic suffix "儿" (r) causes a retroflexion of the preceding vowel. This pronunciation is typical of Beijing dialects in northern China and is used in spoken language. "一个劲儿" (yí gè jìn r) is always used to indicate an action's continuous status. In the given context, it means that someone is laughing all the time. "Continuously" is an effective rendition of the original meaning of "一个劲儿" (yí gè jìn r). But it is necessary to explain the specific usage of this "r-ending retroflexion word", and its spoken language context should be pointed out to inform the students that "一个劲儿" (yí gè jìn r) should not be used in written work.

Suggested translation: continuously (r-ending retroflexion word) (Oral)

Example 97 (Line 1, Lesson 15 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive*

Course II) I

娘 名词 mother, mom

俺爹俺娘。

My dad and mum.

"娘" (niáng) in Chinese means "mother or female parent" and is commonly used in spoken language. It is an informal way of addressing a female parent and is not used in Chinese writing (except for certain literary genres, for example, novels). "Mother" in English is a formal way of addressing a female parent. "Mom" in American English is an informal way of addressing a female parent. This dual definition effectively mixes formal and informal registers and creates a problem within the dialect meaning category.

Suggested translation: mum, mummy (dial.)

1.3 Field of meaning

Example 98 (Line 3, Lesson 19 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 2*) P

笔记本 名词 laptop

桌子上放着一个台灯，还放着一台笔记本电脑。

There is a table lamp and a laptop on the desk.

"笔记本" (bǐjìběndiànnǎo) in Chinese refers to all kinds of notebooks. The term "laptop" has emerged with the development of computer technology in recent years. "笔记本电脑" (bǐjìběndiànnǎo) has become a specific term for laptop. It is a fixed collocation, "笔记本" (bǐjìběn) + "电脑" (diànnǎo) to represent the meaning of laptop. In the given context, it is used together with "电脑" (diànnǎo) to express the meaning of a laptop computer. When translated, both "laptop" and "computer" should be included to avoid any misunderstanding or misuse.

Suggested translation: (with computer) laptop

Example 99 (Line 1, Lesson 24 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course I*) P

喂 叹词 hello, hey

崔浩：喂，是马丁吗？

Cui Hao: Hello, is that Martin speaking?

"喂" (wéi) in Chinese is an interjection used when making or answering a phone call. In Chinese, each interjection expresses a certain feeling or imitates a certain sound. It cannot be used indiscriminately in any context. In this given context, it is used by Cui Hao when he is making a phone call to Martin. The given translation has translated "喂" (wéi) from its lexical meaning. Such a translation is suitable to convey the original meaning but the specific application scope should be pointed out to learners in order to avoid any misuse of the word.

Suggested translation: hello, hey (making or answering phone call)

Example 100 (Line 5, Lesson 10 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course II 2*)

I

放 动词 to set off, to let off

儿童放鞭炮。

Children are playing with firecrackers.

"放" (fàng) in Chinese is a polyseme. When used together with fireworks, such as "鞭炮" (biānpào) (Chinese firecracker), "礼花" (lǐhuā, fireworks) and 烟花 (yānhuā, fireworks), etc, it can be explained as "light by fire". "放" (fàng) can be explained as "set off" and "let off" as well, but in the given context, it is used together with fireworks; in other contexts, "set off" and "let off" have potentially different meanings in English. "To set off" and "to let off" do not fully reflect the original meaning of "放" (fàng).

Suggested translation: light (by fire)

2. Pragmatic meaning

Example 101 (Line 3, Lesson 23 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 2*)

P

看中 动词 to take a fancy to

后来，足球队的教练看中了我，想让我成为职业运动员了。

I was chosen to be a professional player by the coach of the football team later.

"看中" (kànzhòng) in Chinese can be explained as "choosing the most satisfying one after careful observation". In the given context, "看中" (kànzhòng) means the speaker has been selected to be a football player by the coach of the football team. However, "take a fancy to someone" in English can be explained as "become fond of". Although the original Chinese word is also used when a man falls in love with a woman, it should be clarified in this given context to avoid any misunderstanding.

Suggested translation: to choose, to select

Example 102 (Line 4, Lesson 20 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 2*)

P

锅 名词 pot, wok

把土豆丝放进锅里去

Adding the shredded potato into the wok.

In Chinese, "锅" (guō) is the generic term for pot, wok, pan, etc. In Chinese, there are specific words for different kinds of "锅" (guō), such as "炒锅" (chǎoguō, wok), "煎锅" (jiānguō, pan), "砂锅" (shāguō, pot), etc. In this given context, "锅" (guō) is used as a wok for dishes involving the stirring of ingredients. "Pot" should be removed from the translation to avoid any misunderstanding of "锅" (guō).

Suggested translation: wok

Example 103 (Line 3, Lesson 5 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 1*) P

阿姨 名词 (aunt)

杰克和安娜：叔叔阿姨好！

Jack and Anna: Hello, Mr and Mrs Ouyang !

"阿姨" (āyí) in Chinese only refers to "aunt" in the sense of "mother's sister".

Like the example above, it is also used as a polite way for a youngster to address an unrelated female in a similar age group to the youngster's parents (e.g. his/her parents' friends). In English, aunt means both "sister of father or mother" and "wife of uncle". There is also no clear distinction between "mother's sister" and "unrelated female of a similar age to a youngster's parents". This translation just provides the basic meaning of the original Chinese word and is too general to convey the specific meaning of "阿姨" (āyí). A short explanation should be provided to help learners avoid confusion and to maintain functional equivalence. Suggested translation: aunt (polite way for a youngster to address an unrelated female of a similar age group to the youngster's parents)

Example 104 (Line 1, Lesson 22 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 2*)

P

天下 名词 land under heaven, China or the world

中国有句俗话说叫"桂林山水甲天下"。

There is a famous saying that "the Landscape of Guilin ranks first among other scenic spots in China. "

"天下" (tiānxià) in Chinese refers to the whole country. It represents everything within the country boundary. In the given context, it indicates that the landscape of Guilin is more impressive than other scenic spots in China. The given translation "land under heaven" is a word-for-word translation of "天下" (tiānxià). "World" is close to "land under heaven". Both "land under heaven" and "world" convey the meaning of "天下" (tiānxià) but they are not appropriate to express the meaning of "天下" in the given context. "Country" is suitable to convey the meaning of "天下" (tiānxià) in the given context.

Suggested translation: country (China)

Example 105 (Line 2, Lesson 19 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I 2*)

P

购物单 shopping list

快递员：这是您的**购物单**，一共三百三十八块钱，发票在箱子里。

Delivery courier: This is your shopping receipt. The total amount is 338 yuan and your invoice is in the parcel.

"购物单" (gòuwùdān) in Chinese is a noun that refers to a shopping list or receipt. In the given context, it refers to the shopping receipt provided by shops. The given translation is a word-for-word explanation of "购物单" (gòuwùdān) (购物 (gòuwù, shopping) + 单 (dān, list)) and its contextual meaning should also be provided in the given context. The part of speech should also be provided to keep the consistency.

Suggested translation: noun; shopping receipt

Example 106 (Line 1, Lesson 15 *An Easy Approach to Chinese I*) P

小 形容词 little; small

小王，你结婚了吗？

Have you got married, Mr Wang?

"小" (xiǎo) in Chinese means "small, little or tiny". It also means "young" when used as a prefix with surname to form an informal and friendly way of calling people younger than the speaker. In the given context, "小" (xiǎo) is used together with a surname "王" (wáng) forming part of an address from an elder colleague. This informal mode of address is commonly used among colleagues and should be clarified for learners.

Suggested translation: young (informal way of addressing young people)

Example 107 (Line 5, Lesson 9 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I I*) P

花 形容词 flowery

那件**花**的多少钱？

How much is that floral dress?

"花" (huā) in Chinese means flower. When used as an adjective, it describes the "floral and colourful images printed on the surface of clothes". "花" (huā) in the given context cannot be merely described as a floral image. Whether the image

printed on the dress is flowery or not is not mentioned. "Flowery" in English mainly refers to "full of, decorated with, or like flowers", but when referring to people's use of language, the term "flowery" also means "over elaborate". Such a translation – with its dual meaning – is not conveyed by the original meaning of "花" (huā) in the Chinese context and does not meet the requirement of functional equivalence. The word 'floral' would remove this ambiguity.

Suggest translation: floral, colourful

Example 108 (Line 2, Lesson 7 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course II*) P

了 助词 used in conjunction with "得" or "不" after a verb to express possibility or impossibility.

小学的时候，我考试得了第一名，老师给了我一本《世界地图》。

When I was a pupil, my teacher gave me a *World Map* as a reward when I got the first prize in the exam.

"了" (le) in Chinese is commonly used as a modal particle at the end of a sentence. Compared with English verbs, Chinese verbs do not have inflection in form. Thus, some particles, such as "了" (le), "着" (zhē), "过" (guò) are commonly used after verbs to add various additional meanings. "了" (le) is used as a suffix to indicate the completion of an action. In the given context, 了(le) is used with a verb "得" (dé) " get, acquire" to illustrate the result of the exam. Although "了" (le) is also used in conjunction with "得" (dé) or "不" (bù) after a verb to express possibility or impossibility, it is unsuitable to convey the original meaning in the given context.

Suggested translation: used as a suffix of a verb to indicate the completion of an action

Example 109 (Line 3, Lesson 1 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I I*) P

跟 介词 with

以后我要跟他学习书法。

I will learn calligraphy from him.

"跟" (gēn) in the given context is used as a preposition. Its lexical meaning is "together with". When used together with a personal noun, it is a fixed collocation to "introduce the person who will work together with the speaker to complete the action or fulfil the task". The emphasis here is on "adherence to a personal noun" in tandem with a fixed collocation. "With" in English implies "accompanied by". However, in this given context, as there is a teacher–student relationship and the student wants to learn calligraphy from the teacher, here "跟" (gēn) should be translated as "from" to maintain functional equivalence at word level. The limitation "adherence to a personal noun" and the fixed collocation should also be clearly presented to keep the translation and the original meaning at the functional equivalent level.

Suggested translation: from (fixed collocation: (跟 gēn + personal noun))

Example 110 (Line 2, Lesson 3 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive Course II*) I

教养 名词 breeding, education

它从来不自己吃，显示出乖乖有着良好的"教养"。

The dog has shown good habits as it never eats alone.

"教养" (jiàoyǎng) in Chinese is used to indicate people's level of education. In the given context, it refers to the habits and behaviour of a dog. The given translation "breeding" can be explained as "upper–class good manners seen as being passed on from one generation to another" and "education" mainly refers to "the process of teaching or learning". Although the terms can sometimes be extended to animals, the way the definition is presented strongly implies a human application, and this is therefore misleading in describing the good habits of a dog.

Suggested translation: habit, behaviour

Example 111 (Line 10, Lesson 6 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive Course II*) I

天下 名词 land under heaven, country, world

天下的事再大，也大不过老百姓要吃饱饭。

The people's livelihood should be considered as the priority by the government.

This example mirrors Example 162: "天下" (tiānxià) in Chinese refers to a whole country, representing everything within the country's boundary. In the given context, the term indicates the importance of people's living conditions and food, with China being the specific point of reference. The given translation "land under heaven" is a word-for-word translation of "天" (tiān, heaven) and "下" (xià, under). "World" is similar to "land under heaven". Both "land under heaven" and "World" convey the general meaning of "天下" (tiānxià) but they provide more information than the meaning within context. They are inappropriate to express the meaning of "天下" (tiānxià) in the given context, and create a non-equivalence problem within the pragmatic meaning category. "Country" conveys the meaning of "天下 (tiānxià)" in this given context.

Suggested translation: country (China)

Example 112 (Line 2, Lesson 4 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive Course I*) I

傻小子 名词 silly boy

这个傻小子，穿皮鞋送快件，也不怕累。

The cute boy always wears a formal suit and a pair of leather shoes for delivering parcels. He works very hard.

"傻小子" (shǎxiǎozi) in Chinese is used as an informal way of referring to someone. It is commonly used among friends or colleagues and is used in a positive sense. In the given context, the speaker feels that the delivery boy's appearance is quite unique as he always dresses smartly. However, the given translation "silly" in English indicates "unwise or foolish" which does not exist in the original Chinese context. It is essential to make this clarification because the existing definition is very misleading and causes a substantial problem in pragmatic meaning category.

Suggested translation: cute boy

Example 113 (Line 7, Lesson 12 *Developing Chinese: Intermediate Comprehensive Course I*) I

新新人类 名词 new generation

他们是新新人类的一种。

They are a group of unique and specific young people.

"新新人类" (xīnxīnrénlèi) is a new word in Chinese created in recent years. The term is a common way to describe a specific group of young people who behave differently and oppose traditional lifestyles. In the given context, it refers to a group of young people who are distinctive in some way. The given translation has explained "新新人类" (xīnxīnrénlèi) at a basic meaning level, but the specific emphasis on "a group of people of similar age involved in an activity" should be pointed out in order to distinguish "新新人类" (xīnxīnrénlèi) from "people born and living at about the same time".

Suggested translation: a specific group of young people involved in an activity

Example 114 (Line 1, Lesson 12 *An Easy Approach to Chinese II*) I

倒 副词 indicating something unexpected

不吃葡萄倒吐葡萄皮

Spitting skins when you don't eat grapes (a Chinese tongue twister).

"倒" (dào) in Chinese is a polyseme. When used as an adverb, "倒" indicates a reversing process and can be explained as "on the contrary, not as one thinks". The original meaning of the full Chinese tongue twister is "吃葡萄不吐葡萄皮 (chīpútáobùtǔpútáopí), 不吃葡萄倒吐葡萄皮 (bùchīpútáobùtǔpútáopí)". It illustrates a contrary process when someone eats grapes: eating grapes with skins while spitting skins when you don't eat them. The original tongue twister has no coherent meaning as it is just used for oral practice. But the meaning should be identified clearly to learners of Chinese.

Suggested translation: on the contrary

Example 115 (Line 24, Lesson 10 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course II 2*)

I

一切 代词 all, every

当我把一切准备好要出发时，我的法国丈夫在旁边开玩笑。

When I prepared well for setting off, my French husband was telling a joke.

"一切" (yíqiè) in Chinese is commonly used as pronoun to refer to "everything". It can also be defined as "all, every" when used as an adjective. In the given context, it means that the speaker has got everything ready before departure. The given translations are adjectives and do not convey the exact meaning of "everything, all the things". It is best to provide the proper meaning of the pronoun to avoid any misunderstanding.

Suggested translation: everything

3. Grammatical meaning

3.1 Grammatical function

Example 116 (Line 3, Lesson 5 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course I*) P

两 数词 two

林娜：我们班有**两个**法国人。

Lin Na: There are two French students in my class.

"两" (liǎng) in Chinese is used as a numeral. It refers to the meaning of "two" but cannot be used independently. "两" (liǎng) is used in front of a measure word to express the meaning of "two". In the given context, it is used together with a measure word "个" (gè) to indicate that there are two French students in Lin Na's class. The given translation has translated the basic meaning of "两" (liǎng). However, the specific usage of "两" (liǎng) should be clarified, because another Chinese numeral "二" (èr) also has the same meaning as "两" (liǎng) but is used differently.

Suggested translation: two (used in front of a measure word to illustrate the quantity/number of two)

3.2 Mistaking of part of speech

Example 117 (Line 4, Lesson 9 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course I I*) P

款 量词 a measure word for clothes and other things, kind, type

对不起，这是今年的新款，不打折

I am sorry. There is no discount for this new edition.

"款" (kuǎn) is a polysemous word in Chinese. It is commonly used as a noun to refer to "style, pattern or design". When used as a measure word, it is used to illustrate the "unique design, style or pattern of clothes and other products that can be distinguished from others". In the given context, it is used as a noun. "Kind" in English means "a class or type of similar people or things". "Type" in English refers to "a category of people or things that share particular qualities or features". Both of the translations properly convey the original meaning of "款" (kuǎn), but the wrong part of speech should be corrected to keep the consistency between the original noun and the translation.

Suggested translation: noun; kind, type, design

Example 118 (Line 20, Lesson 10 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course II*) P

一阵子 量词 period of time; spell

一句温柔的话，就会使我们高兴一阵子。

Some kind words may cheer us up.

"一阵子" (yīzhènzǐ) in Chinese is the combination of a numeral 一 (yī) and a noun "阵子" (zhènzǐ). The word "一阵子" (yīzhènzǐ) is a noun referring to a period of time/spell. In the given context, it means that they will be happy with the gentle words for a certain period. The translation has properly translated the original noun, but the part of speech should be corrected to maintain the equivalent status.

Suggested translation: noun; period of time, spell

Example 119 (Line 2, Lesson 19 *Developing Chinese: Elementary Comprehensive Course I*) P

后来 名词 later, afterwards

后来, 我只好打开了空调。

I have to turn on the conditioner then.

"后来" (hòulái) in Chinese is used as a time adverb to indicate that something happens at a later time or afterwards. In the given context, it is used to illustrate the result of suffering a long, hot day, which is to turn on the air conditioner. The given translations are appropriate to convey the original meaning of the adverb but the right part of speech should be provided to keep the consistency.

Suggested translation: adverb; later, afterward

3.3 Omission of part of speech

Example 120 (Line 16, Lesson 11 *ERYA CHINESE: Comprehensive Course II 2*)

I

了 used in conjunction with 得 or 不 after a verb to express possibility

火车来时我忍不住跑了起来!

I ran to the train when it arrived.

了 (le) in Chinese is commonly used as a particle after a verb or adjective to indicate completion. In the given context, it is used after a verb "跑 (pǎo) run", meaning that the speaker has already started to run. The given translation has provided the meaning and usage of 了 (le) when it is used as after a verb with 得 (dé) or 不 (bù), but it is not sufficient to convey the meaning of 了 in this given context. The proper translation and part of speech should be provided for learners to avoid any misunderstanding of the term's usage.

Suggested translation: particle; used after a verb or adjective to indicate completion of the action

