A Corpus-Based Study of Explicitation in Chinese-English Conference Interpreting*

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Abstract—Based on the corpora CECIC (Chinese English conference interpretation corpus) and OENC (original English news corpus), this paper studies explicitation in the Chinese-English press conference interpreting in Chinese-English news conference interpretation in order to further explore explicitation in interpretation. This paper compares the numbers of connectives so as to provide a new typology of explicitation. In addition, it also discusses the motivations of explicitation from the aspects of the characteristics of interpretation itself, the habits of different interpreters and the different linguistic norms of Chinese and English.

Index Terms—explicitation, interpreting, corpus analysis, motivation

I. INTRODUCTION

The concept of “explicitation” has not been unanimously defined or patterned. Pioneered by Vinay and Darbelnet (1958) in their glossary of translation techniques, it has inspired many researchers to investigate widespread features and its category in translated texts (TT) that are likely to distinguish them systematically from their source texts (ST) and from non-translations (NT) in similar domains in the target language (TL). The definition and category of explicitation in this paper are respectively based on the German scholar—Juliane House’s models. Juliane House systematizes different types of explicitness in discourse across languages on the basis of theoretical distinctions made in literature and of the analyses of original texts and their translations. She makes a primary distinction between explicitness in translations that arises from obligatory linguistic choices a translator has to make between languages on account of typological differences between languages and explicitness that arises out of optional linguistic choices. She divides the latter into choices relating to referential content, interpersonal relations and textual coherence, using Halliday’s categories of elaboration, extension and enhancement to subdivide referential content, and distinguishes between three categories of met pragmatic instruction: model particles, frames and citation inside the category of interpersonal relations. This paper will be confined to the discussion of explicitation in Chinese-English press conference interpreting, though the general term explicitation will be used for convenience.

A corpus is the main body of data to be consulted in any corpus-based linguistic study, and corpus linguistics offers the necessary tools and methodologies for the investigation of language in actual use. This paper is devoted to retrieving information that can help determine whether or not explicitation through the use of connectives is a widespread feature in Chinese-English interpreting in the background of press conference interpreting.

II. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Problems, Purposes and Significance of the Research

Under the research background mentioned above, three research questions are formulated below to guide the process of data analyses:
1. Does the translated English version by Chinese interpreters tend to be more explicit than the original English text in the same genre?
2. If the translated English version by Chinese interpreters is found to be more explicit, how to pattern this phenomenon?
3. What are the possible motivations for explicitation in Chinese-English press conference interpreting?

To answer the first research question, the paper puts emphasis on the connectives to establish inter-clausal or inter-sentential relationships. It aims to establish quantitatively whether English translations rely more heavily on connectives to realize a higher level of explicitation than comparable original English texts.

In answering the second research question, attention is given to the pragmatic patterning of explicitation in translated text.
English version by Chinese interpreters. This part of analysis is conducted on the assumption that explicitation through the use of connectives is reflected not only in their higher overall occurrences in translations – i.e. quantitative shifts – but also in their potential for displaying distinctive syntactic patterns that depart from those found in non-translations (i.e. qualitative shifts). To realize this goal, the present paper provides a quantitative study of connectives, such as that-connective, causal connective and concession connectives.

Based on the findings obtained by using computing technology, this paper draws several motivations for explicitation in terms of linguistic and cultural differences between Chinese and English, the context in interpreting, some inherent features of interpreting and the interpreter’s style.

B. Scope of Study, Theory, Methodology and Data

The present research will be held through a corpus-based study, i.e., with a comparable study of the CECIC (Chinese-English Conference Interpreting Corpus) and OENC (Original English News Corpus). The data in CECIC is selected from texts of consecutive interpreting by professional interpreters in official press conferences held by the Chinese government from 1990 to 1999, the data in OEC is selected from news of the same genre on the official website of CNN in the same period of time.

The main source of data in CECIC comes from the book Press Conference Interpreting: Skills and Analysis (2003) by Wang Dawei. This book collects the interpreting materials in China’s official press conferences from the year 1990 to 1999 on eleven topics, namely: the Fifteenth Party Congress, government construction, market economy, financial system, state-owned enterprise reform, WTO, human rights, democratic election, military exercise, nuclear tests and foreign relations. The materials of other corpus OENC used to make a comparison come from the official website of CNN in the same period of time considering the same topics.

The CECIC consists of 25193 running words, OENC of 25429 words. The overall size of CECIC stands at 25193 tokens while the OENC stands at 25429 tokens comparatively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE I</th>
<th>CORPUS SIZE OF CECIC AND OENC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tokens</td>
<td>CECIC 25193</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Tokens</td>
<td>50622</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


III. CORPUS ANALYSIS OF EXPLICITATION IN CHINESE-ENGLISH PRESS CONFERENCE INTERPRETING

Many scholars have different opinions on the typology of explicitation so there is not a definite classification of this phenomenon. Klauvy (1998) and House (forthcoming) use different data to classify various aspects of explicitation. In Klauvy’s typology, the corpus on which the classification was based consisted of two genres: academic and literary texts. The study was undertaken before electronic corpora began to be used in translation studies, although they had been widely used for at least a decade in linguistics by then. A decade later, when large machine-readable corpora had become a major source of data for translation scholars, House developed a schema of explicitation using an 800,000-word corpus of parallel texts in three genres: computer technology, popular science and business communication. Her choice of these text types reflects their growing importance in terms of translation activity across the globe.

Klauvy and House’s theories on the classification of explicitation have their shortcomings respectively so this paper tries to provide another classification based on M.A.K. Halliday’s systemic-functional linguistics concerning the function of language.

Systemic-Functional Linguistics (SFL) is a theory of language centered around the notion of language function. While SFL accounts for the syntactic structure of language, it places the function of language as central (what language does, and how it does it), in preference to more structural approaches which place the elements of language and their combinations as central (Halliday, 2004). An Introduction to Functional Grammar (Third ed.). London & New York: Arnold., Systemic semantics includes what is usually called “pragmatics”. Semantics is divided into three components:

- Ideational Semantics: It constructs a model of experience and constructs logical relations; to convey new information, to communicate a content that is unknown to the hearer.
- Interpersonal Semantics: It enacts social relationships;
- Textual Semantics: It creates relevance to context; language has mechanisms to integrate any stretch of spoken or written discourse into a coherent and unified text and make a living message different from a random list of sentences.

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The Lexicon-Grammar concerns the syntactic organization of words into utterances. Even here, a functional approach is taken, involving analysis of the utterance in terms of roles such as Actor, Agent/Medium, Theme Mood, etc. (Zheng Dingou, 1999)

This paper focuses on the language’s systematic metafunction so as to divide the explicitation phenomenon into three types: ideational explicitation, interpersonal explicitation and textual explicitation.

The data of Chinese-English Conference Interpretation Corpus (CECIC) compiled for the present paper is press conference interpreting texts. This part is devoted to the data analysis of explicitation in CECIC, using the Original English News Corpus (OENC) as a reference corpus of original English.

A. Ideational Explicitation

Ideational explicitation denotes that the interpreter clarifies the implicit information in the ST in order to make the listeners understand the TT information easily. This includes explicitation of cultural elements and explicitation of the subject or object of a sentence. In order to make a comparison with other types of explicitation in the interpreting process, the number of the ideational explicitation must be attained.

1. Explicitation of Cultural Elements

With the help of the tool Wordsmith, the author firstly lists the words of the original Chinese text of CECIC from which phrases denoting cultural meanings are chosen to be analyzed further. Then the author compares the corresponding translated text to analyze whether explicitation technique is adopted or not. There are 3 explicitations of cultural elements. They are listed below:

Example 1. 但是，不管前面是地雷阵还是万丈深渊，我将勇往直前，义无返顾，鞠躬尽瘁，死而后已！
But no matter what is waiting for me, in front of me, being, lying a landmine or an abyss, I would blaze my trail and I have no hesitation and no misgivings, and I will do all my best and contribute, devote all myself to the people and the country until the last day of my life.

In Example 1, the interpreter translates the four appositive Chinese idioms into a sentence "I would blaze my trail and I have no hesitation and no misgivings, and I will do all my best and contribute, devote all myself to the people and the country until the last day of my life.” The interpreter interprets each Chinese idiom into a sentence and then connect them by the coordinating connective “and.” Besides, the interpreter also tries to make the meaning more explicit by adding a phrase “to the people and the country”.

Example 2. 我们不要忘记历史，历史上曾经有这种时代，弄得草木皆兵，人人自危。在美国有这种时代，在中国也有这种时代，那就是文化大革命。
We should never forget history. Both China and the United States once experienced such periods when people treated even the grass and the wood as the enemies, and people were so afraid of , every people would be afraid of being accused by others. And in China we had such a period, that is the Cultural Revolution.

In Example 2, the Chinese idiom"草木皆兵" is interpreted into “people treated even the grass and the wood as the enemies”. Here the meaning of“兵”in this idiom is clear to Chinese listeners, however, it may sound ambiguous to English speakers. So the interpreter provides a corresponding word “enemy” to make the meaning more explicit.

Example 3. 这一点，任何外国人不应该说三道四。
On this matter, no foreign country should make irresponsible comments.

In this example, “三” and “四” in this sentence not numbers in meaning, instead, they have the abstract meaning of irresponsible comments. So the interpreter explains the term in explicit English for the sake of understanding.

2. Explicitation of the Subject or Object of a Sentence

With the help of the tool Wordsmith, the author firstly lists the words of the translated English text of CECIC from which four typical and most commonly-used pronouns are chosen to be analyzed further. Then the author compares the corresponding source text to analyze whether explicitation technique is adopted or not. Details are in table II.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pronouns</th>
<th>We</th>
<th>They</th>
<th>These</th>
<th>Those</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total number</td>
<td>517</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of ideational explicitation</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>9.28%</td>
<td>5.00%</td>
<td>7.28%</td>
<td>5.71%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Table II, we can see that the personal pronoun ‘we’ used for explicitation asserts the highest percentage compared with the other three. This can be explained by the structure of Chinese imperative sentences. Usually, the indicated subject of a Chinese imperative sentence is first person pronoun so that the percentage of the word ‘we’ outweighs the other three pronouns. Here are some examples:

Example 4. 第三个到位就是政府机构的改革，也就是说，根据中央政府今年已经在政府大会上通过的方案，已经把 40 个部委简化为 29 个部委；政府机关的人数，准备分流一半。
Thirdly, that’s concerning the reorganization of the government institutions. According to the program on the reorganization of the institutions of the central government adopted by the current session of the National People’s Congress, the number of the ministries and commissions under the State Council has been reduced from 40 to 29, and we plan to cut half of the working staff working in the government institutions in three years’ time.

Example 5. 中国由于农业政策的成功，已经连续三年丰收。

Thanks to the success in the agriculture policy of China, we have had bumper harvests for three consecutive years.

Example 6. 中央已经决定成立国家科技教育领导小组，我当组长，李岚清同志当副组长，已经得到江泽民主席批准。

The Central Committee of the CPC has decided to establish a leading group for the stat science and education development. And I will be the head of the group, and Vice Premier Li Lanqing will be the deputy head. And this has got the approval of President Jiang Zemin.

In the examples above, the subjects of the Chinese imperative sentences “政府机关的人数，准备分流一半”，“已经连续三年丰收”，“已经得到江泽民主席批准” are added as ‘we’, ‘we’ and ‘this’. In this way, the audience can understand the sentence without efforts.

B. Interpersonal Explicitation

Interpersonal explicitation means that the interpreter makes more explicit the relationship among different communicators, modal information and evaluative information. The analyzed of interpersonal explicitation is conducted manually because of the words adopted by the speaker varies a lot according to the change of attitude and evaluation.

There are 4 interpersonal explicitations in the corpus CECIC. They are listed as follows:

Example 1. 我可以负责任地说，中国再遭两年大灾——自然的灾害——中国的粮食也不会缺乏。

I can say in a very responsible manner that if there were to be very serious natural disasters in the coming two years, China would not be short of grain, short of food.

In this example, the word ‘very’ is used to indicate the affirmative attitude of the speaker. Meanwhile, the subjunctive mood ‘were to be’ is adopted to show that it is impossible for China to be short of food if faced with natural disasters. It also indicates that the speaker has a positive attitude towards China’s ability to fight with natural disasters.

Example 2. 这就是中央的财政，包括我们的银行，都拿不出钱来支持科教兴国。把钱浪费了。

That’s the main reason why the central government and including various state banks do not have enough money to support the strategy of revitalizing the country through science and technology.

In this example, the Chinese “拿不出钱来” is just a hyperbole so the interpreter makes the meaning clearer by interpreting as “do not have enough money”. In this way, the interpreter makes easy the communication between the Chinese and the English speakers.

Example 3. 现在已经存在这种机遇，第一是 WTO 的这些国家已经认识到没有中国参加的 WTO 是没有代表性的，是忽视了中国这个潜在的最大的市场。

Now there are those conditions and possibilities for that. First, the WTO states have come to realize that a WTO without China would not be representative enough, or the WTO would have neglected China, the largest potential market in the world.

In fact, the interpreter here adopts a mild way (not be representative enough) to express the speaker’s evaluation of the importance of the participation of China into the WTO.

Example 4. 第二是中国的改革开放的深入和积累的经验已经使它对于 WTO、符合 WTO 条件所带来的的一些问题，已经提高了它的监督能力和承受的能力，因此中国也准备作出最大的让步。

Second, with the deepening of the reform and opening wider to the outside world and also with accumulation of experience in this regard, China has already strengthened its supervision and regulation as well as its affordability and sustainability with regard to some problems that may arise after China joins the WTO. So, China is prepared to make the biggest concession within its ability.

In the source text, “最大的让步”may sound natural and clear to the Chinese audience but may arouse dispute in the opinion of westerners: can the concession be made in any aspect? The answer is definitely ‘no’ so the interpreter adds ‘within its ability’ to definite the boundary of the concession as well as making the words sound reasonable and easy to understand.

C. Textual Explicitation

If we take explicitation in translation to mean more words, it is reasonable to assume that, in the context of the present paper, connectives may occur more frequently in the translational CECIC than in the non-translational OENC. It is well established in corpus linguistics that a small number of words, most of them grammatical, typically account for a large proportion of total word tokens in a corpus. As shown in Kennedy (1998), 50 and 100 most frequent English words typically account for 50% of the total tokens in any text. Based on these studies, it is reasonable to assume that the most frequent words making up 50% of the total tokens in a corpus would include a number of connectives that can be considered “common”. It would be helpful, then, to establish whether common connectives are used even more frequently in the translational CECIC than in the non-translational OENC to realize a higher level of textual explicitness.
This paper chooses 4 kinds of common connectives trying to demonstrate this hypothesis. This includes the overall frequency and number of a typical connective “that”, that of causal connectives, that of concession connectives and that of conditional connectives.

In the two corpora being compared here, connectives are identified by the concordance in the Concapp device. Here the word “that” being calculated is used to introduce an objective clause or a predicative clause. The words “for”, “because” and “since” are used as causal connectives. The words “though” and “although” are used as concession connectives while “if” and “whether” are used as conditional connectives. Every sentence which includes the very connective is identified by concordance, however, not all these sentences including the word can be calculated because the function of the connective should be checked in the text manually. Then a calculation can be done to reach a final number. For example, the Concapp may identifies two sentences which include "that":

Do that, and you’re left relatively alone.

Chrysler found that Beijing Automotive Works was again hoarding proceeds from sales of the BJ212s.

Obviously, “that” in the first sentence is used as an objective but not a connective, so this cannot be calculated. In sentence 2, “that” is used after “found” to introduce an objective clause “Beijing Automotive Works was again hoarding proceeds from sales of the BJ212s.” This “that” which is used as a connective should be calculated since it agrees with the selective standard of the paper. The process can be shown in Picture I.

The sentences with “that” are listed in Concapp and “that” is highlighted in pink and the numbers are listed on the left side. “that” in the sentences in shadow are not connectives so that they cannot be calculated.

With the help of the tool Paraconc, the author can identify sentences including the four kinds of common connectives and decide whether they should be calculated in the context of the original text. The process is shown in Picture II.
In order to establish whether common connectives are used even more frequently in the translational CECIC than in the non-translational OENC to realize a higher level of textual explicitness, the author makes a table to show the results.

### TABLE III

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>CECIC</th>
<th>OENC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Corpus size in words</td>
<td>25193</td>
<td>25429</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occurrences of connectives</td>
<td>282</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>1.12%</td>
<td>0.98%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Overall, the translational CECIC, with a smaller size in word count terms, makes more frequent use of connectives (1.12%) than the non-translational OENC (0.98%) – an increase of 14.29%. Since the size of CECIC is almost the same as OENC, the extent of this rise in connective frequency is rather unusual. This heavy reliance on connectives in CECIC reflects a tendency to mark inter-clausal or inter-sentential relationships with explicit linking devices. The greater proportion of connectives in CECIC in Table III opens up another field of enquiry into this class of grammatical words, namely the most frequent words in translated texts are usually less varied than in non-translated texts and account for a greater proportion of the collection. This observation leads us to further study the sentences with connectives to see whether the goal of using those connectives is to make the interpreting more explicit to the audience.

In fact, in order to make himself/herself understood the interpreter often adopts some interpreting techniques many of which can be categorized as textual explicative technique. To prove this assumption, the frequencies and percentages of the four kinds of connectives used in the two corpora are calculated in Table IV.

### TABLE IV

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>CECIC</th>
<th>OENC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>that</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>because</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>although</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>though</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>if</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>whether</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>282</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table IV identifies the number of the four typical common connectives in CECIC and their total number in the two corpora. From this table we can see that the numbers of these connectives in the translational CECIC is greater than...
they are in the OENC except the words “though” and “whether” (in bold). It can be assumed that the translational CECIC tends to use more connectives than the original OENC to make explicit the information in the interpreting.

For causal connectives, the TT tends most to use the word “because” as 35 identified in Table III compared with “for” (2) and “since” (5). It’s also the case in the original corpus OENC, however, the numbers of the same connectives are less than they are in the translational CECIC.

For concession connectives, there exists a different case. In the translational CECIC, the interpreter never uses the word “though”; instead, he/she only uses the word “although” to indicate a concession relationship in the context. It is possibly due to the interpreting habits of the interpreter. In the original OENC, both of the two words are adopted to indicate a concession relationship. “Though” performs a higher number (21) than the number of the word “although” (4).

For conditional connectives, “if” is adopted more than the word “whether” both in the translational CECIC and the original OENC, as the number shows: 51:12, 31:14, but the total number of conditional connectives in the translational CECIC outweighs that in the original OENC.

The total number of the three common connectives shows that connectives are adopted more often in the translational CECIC than they are in the original OENC, indicating an increase of 12.8%.

IV. MOTIVATIONS FOR EXPLICITATION IN CHINESE-ENGLISH PRESS CONFERENCE INTERPRETING

It seems clear from the findings in the previous part that different English translations of the same source texts in CECIC demonstrate fairly consistent patterns in the use of connectives for realizing explicitation. In general, the original explicitation hypothesis proposed by Blum-Kulka (1986) has been supported by the present research involving translations from Chinese into English, a language pair having little in common in terms of language structure or historical development. Some of the recent explanations include the nature of translation as language mediation (Chesterman, 2004), preference of individual translators (Baker, 2004), meeting readers’ expectations for text clarity and cohesion, lack of shared references in the target culture, and level of translator’s expertise. To this list I would like to add three potential motivations related to linguistic and cultural differences between Chinese and English, inherent features of interpreting and interpreter’s style.

A. Differences between Chinese and English in Terms of Diction and Culture

1. Differences in Terms of Diction

Diction refers to the “style of speaking or writing” (World Book Dictionary). It is the preference of speakers of a language for words chosen and used for expression of ideas. Way of expression is language-specific; English and Chinese unexceptionally display tendencies in diction specific to their own. It is generally accepted that, for expression of ideas, native speakers of English tend to use abstract expressions while those of Chinese concrete ones. Tendency towards abstract diction in English is regulated by the rational tradition of the western nation that advocates analytic and abstract thinking, and is facilitated by the linguistic properties characteristic of English. Specifically, that tendency of English in diction is manifested in the frequent occurrence of abstract noun phrases formed through nominalization, and of prepositions and “empty” verbs used in collocation with abstract noun phrases. Concrete diction by native speakers of Chinese is revealed in the heavy use of verbs, adjectives and image-carrying phrases, and in the arrangement of sentential elements in parallel with temporal sequence.

A professional conference interpreter understands the differences between Chinese and English in terms of diction so that he/she always adopts different interpretive techniques to solve the comprehension problems. Explicitation is an effective technique for them. For example, if a Chinese speaker delivers a concrete diction by an image-carrying phrase, the interpreter cannot find a corresponding phrase in English so that he/she may choose to explain it in a sentence or several sentences for the sake of understanding. This way of interpreting can be considered as using the technique of explicitation.

2. Differences in Terms of Culture

Culture in concept is different from it is in the sense of literature, music, philosophy, art, etc. People from different countries give various definitions of culture because of different studying background, or different theories employed. This paper categorizes culture into: material culture, social culture and spiritual culture.

Material culture, as its name implies, is concrete and observable. It is reflected in buildings, clothes, food and tools. Usually material culture refers to things we can see and touch. Spiritual culture is usually embodied through the intangible things produced by people’s thinking, including ideologies, values, mode of thinking, aesthetic standards, beliefs, time and space concepts and so on. It is the product of thought (e.g., philosophy, history and literature).

Most spiritual culture is intangible, implicit, hidden or abstract. Social culture usually refers to those that are used to regulate the relationship between individuals or groups.

In press conference, as proved by practice, interpreting cannot be viewed as merely linguistic undertaking, but should be regarded as an aspect of a larger domain namely, that of communication. The encyclopedic knowledge refers to extra-linguistic knowledge, among which “culture” is the most difficult part to interpret. The interpreter explains in English the Chinese idioms, phrases and so on that are of special meaning in Chinese thinking in order to provide a
clearer meaning in the press conference. In this paper, the cultural factors refer to the Chinese cultural elements loaded in press conferences, and the author tries to divide them into two categories:

The Chinese cultural factors containing image, descriptions and meanings identical to the cultural factors in English or containing meanings can be easily understood by target listeners.

Example 1. 以史为镜，面向未来。
We shall take history as our guidance, and we shall look into the future.

Example 2. 比如说在不提出任何先决条件下推动两岸“三通”
For instance, without setting any pre-condition, can you think of any measure to advance the “three direct links?”

Example 3. 关于台湾问题，中国所有领导人的讲话都是明确的、一致的，也就是根据“一国两制”的原则和江泽民主席的八项主张来办事。
That is, this question should be resolved on the basis of the “one country, two systems” principle and the Eight-Point Proposal put forward by President Jiang.

In Example 1, the Chinese sentence contains the meaning similar to that in English so that the interpreter provides a literal translation without any explicitation technique. There are some descriptions in Chinese definite terms in Example 2 and 3, such as “三通”, “一国两制”, “八项主张”. These terms can be easily understood by the target listeners because the audiences attending the press conference have already had enough political knowledge. On the basis of this shared presupposition, the interpreter directly interpret them into “three direct links”, “‘one country, two systems’ principle”, and “the Eight-Point Proposal”.

The Chinese cultural factors containing image, descriptions and meanings different from the cultural factors in English or containing meanings cannot be easily understood by target listeners.

Unlike the examples above, for some Chinese idioms the interpreters always explain the idioms in phrases or sentences to make the meaning clear to the English audience.

Example 4. 不入虎穴, 焉得虎子。
Nothing venture, nothing have.

In this example, the interpreter eliminates the Chinese images “虎穴” and “虎子”, instead, he/she explains the inner meaning of the sentence in more explicit language as “venture” and “have”.

Example 5. 中国起到了龙头的作用。
China is playing a leading role.

Just like the first example, the interpreter doesn’t interpret “龙头作用” as “dragon head role” because foreigners may be confused about the meaning of this image. Here, explicitation technique is also adopted so that the sentence is interpreted as “China is playing a leading role.” In this way, the audience can understand the speaker in an easier way.

B. Inherent Features of Interpreting

1. The Interpretive Theory

In French the word “interpretation” can mean “interpreting (explaining) meanings”, “interpretative translation”, “extraction of meanings so as to translate”, “divorcing from the linguistic forms and interpret (explain) their implications”, “explaining the implications of the speaker’s speech verbally” and “oral translation” respectively in different contexts. The interpretation of the source text (sense) is a key process of interpreting as can be seen clearly from the triangle mode of interpreting in Figure I proposed by Danica Seleskovitch. Interpreting is, in its final analysis, mainly a process of interpretation of sense in which lies “the fundamentality of the working of interpreting” (Bao Gang, 1998, p231).

In terms of the Interpretive Theory, the pragmatic meaning of a speech in practical use is just the meaning the interpreter should pay special attention to in interpreting, this kind of meaning is termed as “sense” which is different from the concept “sense” in semantics as shown from the lines above. It is at the level of text, referring to the whole meaning of a text in interpreting. It includes part of the linguistic significations, but its connotations can hardly be covered by the linguistic significations in the dictionary.

For interpreters, sense, which begins with the conceptualization of vocal speech chains and ends with the
combination of linguistic knowledge and non-linguistic knowledge, is the product of combining the non-linguistic knowledge of the text with linguistic significations. It is the pragmatic meaning of a speech and basically equivalent to what is commonly called contextual meaning. It comes from the interpretation (comprehension) of the text, from the dynamic combination of linguistic knowledge and non-linguistic knowledge, from the analysis, synthesis and reasoning of the speech. A speech consists of words, however, the sense of the speech is not the sum total of the words. When making utterances or writing texts, language users usually do not do so without any purpose.

According to the Interpretive Theory, the sense information involved in interpreting can be divided into two types, one is the explicit information and the other is the implicit information. Explicit information indicates the language used in the text, dealing with linguistic knowledge; implicit information indicates the implications of the language, dealing with non-linguistic knowledge. Sense unit consists of both explicit information and implicit information. The key points of explicit information are the trunks of the explicit information, and the organic combination of the explicit information and the implicit information forms the sense units, then the sense units combine together and the sense of the text is constructed. It can be seen clearly from Figure II that interpreting, in its final analysis, is the dynamic interpreting of the key points of explicit information and the implicit information conveyed by the key points of the text through the combination of the interpreter's linguistic knowledge and non-linguistic knowledge in interpreting.

2. The Language Carrier of Consecutive Interpreting: Spoken Language

Compared with written language, spoken language has the following main characteristics that bring many restrictions on consecutive interpreting:

To begin with, spoken language is transitory. The carrier of spoken language is acoustical sound waves. The transitoriness of spoken language brings some difficulties to the study and practice of consecutive interpreting.

Secondly, the releasing speed of spoken language is fast and the information conveyed by spoken language is relatively ambiguous and incompact. The average releasing speed is "14 phonemes per second, but the fastest speed may exceed 30 phonemes per second" (Bao Gang, 1998, p25). Though the releasing speed of spoken language is much faster than that of written language at the level of linguistic symbols, the important information released is relatively limited and there is much redundant information in the speech.

Thirdly, spoken language can make full use of non-linguistic information such as gesture, facial expression, mood, tone, theme, communicative situation, context, etc. Non-linguistic information is an indispensable part in speech communication.

Spoken language is the language carrier of interpreting, so it will inevitably influence the consecutive interpreting. Since spoken language is transitory and extempore, the interpreting is also transitory and extempore.

For one thing, consecutive interpreting is extempore. The speaker thinks, organizes the speech and speaks at the same time, so the object of consecutive interpreting, i.e. the source speech, is extempore. It can be seen that interpreting, whose working language is spoken language, is extempore and it is inevitable for the interpreter to commit some errors and it is also impossible for him/her to make interpreting just as precise and beautiful as written translation.

And for another, consecutive interpreting is transitory. On the one hand, due to the transitoriness, speediness of spoken language, the time for the interpreter to differentiate the speech sounds, to process the information of the source speech and to organize the expression in the target language is rather transitory, hence the impossibility for the interpreter to remember and interpret all the words and grammatical structures in the source speech. On the other hand, though the releasing speed of spoken language is very fast, the information conveyed has the characteristics of ambiguity and incompactness, thus in a relatively long period of time, a piece of important information which conveys key points can be produced, which makes it possible for the interpreter to remember and interpret the holistic sense of the source speech.

3. The Psychological Mechanism of Consecutive Interpreting: Memory Structures

Since the source speech in consecutive interpreting is transitory, memory plays a much more important role in consecutive interpreting than in translating. Structurally, memory can be divided into three categories: sensory register, sensory memory, or sensory store, short-term memory, or working memory, long-term memory, or permanent memory (see Figure III).
Sensory register includes visual memory, auditory memory and haptic memory. It can keep information for a very short period of time, visual memory can keep sensory information completely for 1/5 second to 2 seconds, while auditory memory can keep information for 4 seconds. As the first step of information processing, sensory register selects and keeps the information needing further processing until short-term memory can process the information. So the function of short-term memory is obviously to process the information filtrated by sensory register. The duration of short-term memory is very short, only about 1 ± 1 minute, and the capacity of short-term memory is very limited, that is, about 7 ± 2 units. Miller refers to this unit as “chunk”, a piece of related information, part of which may help remember another part (Gui Shichun, 1991, p.105). For example, if we consider the number 13628378986 as separate figures, it is not easy to chunks “13628378986”, to remember them, but if we encode them into three chunks “136+2837+8986”it is much easier to remember the number. Long-term memory is the main instrument for human brain to store information. Its duration can be over one minute and even the lifetime, and its information storage capacity is very huge, even limitless. It is the repository of knowledge of human brain, including general knowledge and personal experiences, the former is named as semantic memory and the latter is episodic memory.

It is obvious that due to the restriction of memory mechanism, what the interpreter can remember in consecutive interpreting is the sense of the source speech, not the original linguistic forms, thus it is inevitable and scientific for the interpreter to interpret the sense of the source speech. He/she will only make the work even worse, because he/she may catch some redundant information at the expense of the holistic sense of the source speech. The feature of human’s memory structure requires that interpreters must deliver the sense of the source speech but not the original linguistic forms due to the limited memory time. This also makes the use of explicitation possible.

4. The Simultaneity of Communication and Consecutive Interpreting

Due to the simultaneity of the communication and interpreting, the communication should be achieved effectively through the interpreting on the spot, thus interpreting pays much attention to the actual effect of the communication between the speaker and the listener(s). It is impossible and unnecessary for the interpreter to keep all the words as well as the grammatical structures of the source speech in the interpreting, so the only effective and possible way for the interpreter is to keep the key points in his/her memory and interpret the holistic sense of the source speech clearly to help the listeners quickly get the information sent by the speaker.

Spoken language and memory mechanism bring many difficulties not only to the interpreter but also to the listener. What the listeners actually needs during the communication in interpreting is the holistic sense of the speaker’s speech, not the linguistic forms. Therefore, it is not necessary for the interpreter to render every word in the source speech. What he/she needs to do is to interpret the sense of the source speech, including the accurate comprehension and clear, intelligible expression of its sense, in order to help the listener understand the information sent by the speaker at once and achieve the communication.

Besides the influences of spoken language and memory, the information receptivity of the listeners is also affected by their non-linguistic knowledge, mostly by their professional knowledge and cultural knowledge. Non-linguistic knowledge plays an important part in the assimilation of the sense of source speech. It is through the comprehension of the information with non-linguistic knowledge that speeches produce sense, and then texts can be understood. And only after the non-linguistic information is understood can sense be produced. So non-linguistic knowledge is very important for the interpreter as well as the listeners.
C. Linguistic Habits of Interpreters

In the translational CECIC, explicitation through the use of connectives is characterized by what might be termed multiple-to-one relationships. That is, a wide variety of ST connectives in Chinese are all translated into the same English connective in TT. Translators are both readers and writers (Chesterman 2004), they read the source text following their own interpretation, and then translate with the target audience in mind, providing additional communicative clues whenever necessary. This mediating role is reflected in numerous instances in the translational CECIC, where connectives are optionally added to replace ST structures of juxtaposition and post-modification with zero connective. The statistics suggest that translators may develop a habit of connective explicitation in response to certain complex syntactic structures in an attempt to make their translations more reader-friendly.

V. Conclusion

The present research represents an initial attempt to apply the corpus-based approach to the study of explicitation in Chinese-English press conference interpreting. The findings of the study complement previous research, which predominantly used data from Indo-European languages. The current study further extends previous research by its inclusion of interpretations for source texts in the same topics, its adoption of a composite methodology of comparable analyses, and the investigation of a range of connectives that are shown to realize a higher level of explicitation in English translations. Based on the above comparative study of the two mini-corpora CECIC and OENC, the following generalizations can be made with regard to explicitation realized through the use of connectives: 1) connective explicitation is a recurring feature in English interpreting of political texts, with some common connectives being used much more frequently than their counterparts in non-translated English, 2) additive, objective and causal connectives are more likely to be added during the process of interpreting.

In terms of future directions in corpus-based studies of translational phenomena, the author first considers the necessity of distinguishing between process-oriented and product-oriented types of explicitation. Alongside attempts to differentiate between process- and product-oriented explicitation, there have been concerns regarding a potential overlap of definitions among some of the main features of translation proposed in the literature. To prevent corpus researchers from becoming the specter of a generation of translation scholars busy observing corpora without thinking about people, we need to conduct more studies on individual translators’ voice. In this regard, Olohan (2000) proposes building corpora that include translations and the translators’ original writings, in an attempt to establish their own linguistic habits and examine whether these habitual patterns feature in their translated texts. As in the field of interpreting, we may also create corpora of multiple interpretations by the same interpreter, multiple interpretations of the same text done by female and male interpreters, or interpretations carried out by professional and novice interpreters. All these different types of corpora should allow researchers to capture a wide variety of features that may not be universal, but specific to groups of individual interpreters or groups of interpreters. The findings of these proposed studies, in turn, will have implications for interpreter training and interpreting practice.

REFERENCES

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