

## A Parallel Corpus-based Investigation of Vocabulary Features of Tourism Translations<sup>1</sup>

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### Abstract

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Based on a specially designed Chinese-English bilingual parallel corpus, this paper probes into the vocabulary features of translated English tourism texts. The corpus comprises texts of travel guides, tourist information and travelogues obtained from websites. The following findings are made: (a) as a full expression of simplification, one of the translation universals, translated English tourism texts are more concise than their Chinese source texts through the omission of detailed information in listings and culture-specific information in the original ; (b) translated English tourism texts are more formal and detached in tone than their Chinese original through the frequent adoption of nominalization; (c) the translated language in English tourism texts is more definitive and reassuring than that of their Chinese originals through the use of superlative form of adjectives and intensifiers; (d) translated English tourism texts create a more intimate interaction between the texts and the reader through the frequent use of second-person pronouns. This paper instantiated differences between the translated English tourism texts and the source text in Chinese by demonstrating the thematic and formal features of tourism discourse in translation, which may also raise important pedagogic implications in ways of translating tourism texts from Chinese into English.

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**Keywords:** parallel corpus; translated English tourism text; vocabulary feature

### 1. Introduction

Over the years, the way translation is studied and taught has been informed and animated by the study of corpora. The robustness of corpus research in relation to translation is verified by an empirical perspective it provides.

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Parallel corpora, consisting of original texts and their translated versions, have traditionally been the most popular data for research in translation studies. Tourism writing is a special register of writing that is different from general writing and that is assigned specific purposes such as promoting and selling tourist products and services. Yet little has been written on this hybrid genre, particularly with regard to its translation to investigate its unique features. And despite the fact that tourism is one of the largest and most popular industries in both China and many parts of the world, the translation of tourism texts has barely been researched on a parallel corpus basis. Although there are a number of books and articles on the translation of tourism texts from Chinese into English (i.e. Peng 2010; Ding 2008; Wang 2008; Jin 2007; Hong 2006; Lu 2006; Jia 2004; Chen 2004; Zhang 2000), they are mostly dedicated to providing guidance based only on their own experience and speculation, without offering sufficient empirical evidence to substantiate their points of view regarding the nature of tourism writing. The majority of these books and articles fail to adequately and reliably address and discuss how such the translation of tourism texts can be most effectively connected with the real world. Dann (1996: 2) contends that “the language of tourism transmits timeless, magical, euphoric and tautological messages which contain the circular expectations and experiences of tourists and tourism.” We still need to know how such translation actually used in the tourism industry deals with the features embedded in the original tourism text.

The features of translated language can be observed through several methods. As proposed by Santos (1995: 60), the analysis can focus on 1) attributes of all translation, i.e. the universals of translation (Baker 1993) or laws of translation (Toury 1995/2001: 267-268); 2) attributes of translations particular to a source language and target language, i.e. translationese; and 3) attributes of particular translated texts, i.e. translation of a particular person in a particular time segment. In this study, our analysis zooms in on the second set of attribute.

## **2. Previous Studies on Translated English Tourism Texts**

The use of parallel corpus in the study of translated texts started several years ago. Moreover, the study of translated tourism texts can also be found. However, previous studies on features of translated English tourism texts are mainly based on monolingual comparable corpus (Gandin 2013; Cui 2012; Kang 2012; Hou 2011).

Through these comparable corpus-based studies, some common features of translated English tourism texts compared with the tourism texts originally written in English are summarized as follows: (1) translated texts are with lower standardized type-token ratio; (2) the average word length between translated and original texts are similar; (3) translated texts are with longer average sentence length.

In addition, other specific features are also detected. Gandin's article (2013) reports his preliminary results of an ongoing project. He compares a specially designed corpus of translated tourism texts from a variety of languages into English with a large corpus of travel articles originally written in English. His attempts in this paper mainly lie in proving that the Universals of Translation (Baker 1993, 1996; Toury 1995/2001; Shlesinger 1989) can also be applied to many translated English tourism texts. For instance, the normalization universal is evidenced by lower percentages of superlative and comparative adjectives in the translated texts; and the interference universal is validated by higher percentage of foreign lexicon. Cui's study (2012) compares the English-version webpages of tourist attractions in China's Jiangsu Province with those in Britain and America.

Through a keyword analysis, the study reveals that the translated texts contain more information about "gardens" and "temple" while the original texts discuss more about "park", "shopping" and "transportation". Besides, through a POS distribution analysis, the study finds out that the translated texts use more verbs and less nouns, articles, pronouns and conjunctions. Although the author attributes this difference to the language feature of Chinese, he does not analyze the original Chinese texts. Through a keyword analysis, Hou & Qin (2012) identify that more "century" are used in the original texts where more "dynasty" are used in the translated texts. They propose that it shows a different way to record time in Chinese and English. Their analysis does not seem to be entirely relevant to the translated features of tourism texts. Kang (2012) compares the English tourism texts in Chinese websites with texts in the websites of English speaking countries. She finds out that the former employs more nouns, adjectives and adverbs but less lexical words, first person pronouns and second-person pronouns. She attributes the higher frequency of nouns, adjective and adverbs as well as the lower frequency of first-persona pronouns and second-person pronouns to more description of the scenery and less focus on the visitors of the Chinese originals. As to verbs, their fewer appearances are ascribed to more depiction of scene and less accounts of activities in the Chinese originals.

The author attempts to explain the features all with the Chinese original, yet no related analysis has been conducted.

A review of previous literature reveals the following weaknesses: firstly, previous studies are based on comparable-corpus analysis, so features of translated tourism texts compared with their originals remain unexplored; moreover, features identified in previous studies have mainly been attributed to features of the original, yet these studies do not refer to the original to instantiate their claims; last but not least, features that are claimed to derive from the content of the original somehow fail to show the influence of translation. They originate not from the process of translation but the difference in content between the Chinese original and the English original. Therefore, for a better inquiry into features of translated English tourism texts, especially their features yielded from the translation process, this study starts from the creation of the bilingual parallel corpus.

### **3. Corpora Used in this Study**

The parallel corpus we use for description and analysis are from the Bilingual Corpora of Tourism Texts (BCTT) created by The Hong Kong Polytechnic University (HKPU). BCTT has four subcorpora, namely Original Chinese Tourism Texts (OCTT) and Translated English Tourism Texts (TETT, the English translation of OCTT), Original English Tourism Texts (OETT) and Translated Chinese Tourism Texts (TCTT, the Chinese translation of OETT). The English texts taken from OETT and TETT corpora can form comparable corpus and so can the Chinese texts taken from OCTT and TCTT corpora. BCTT enables us to take into account the Chinese source texts in analyzing translational English.

In this study, with a view to demonstrating the vocabulary features of English tourism texts translated from Chinese, a parallel corpus comprised by OCTT and TETT are employed for analysis. With the advance of technology, the internet also provides us with huge amount of information concerning tourism. The OCTT corpus includes a large number of travel articles originally written in Chinese retrieved from various tourism websites, depicting a vast array of typical tourist topics and locations in the Chinese mainland, Hong Kong, Taiwan and Singapore. Since these websites are with multilingual versions, the TETT corpus is composed by the English translation of all the articles in OCTT. OCTT contains 737,565 tokens while TETT constitutes 418,843 tokens.

## 4. Results and Discussions

POS (part of speech) distribution partially reflects typological features of a language. For POS distribution analysis of Chinese and English, we use ICTCLAS and CLAWS to tag OCTT and TETT. Table 1 shows the distribution of content words in OCTT and TETT.

**Table 1: POS Distribution (Content Word) in OCTT & TETT**

Distribution POS		OCTT	TETT
1	Nouns	169825	185779
2	Verbs	61633	50784
3	Adjectives	27541	42626
4	Adverbs	13720	13163
5	Pronouns	4976	9231
6	Numerals	21126	16946
Total		298821	318529

Table 1 illustrates clearly that in general, TETT uses more content words than OCTT. Yet, except a higher number of nouns, adjectives and pronouns, the statistics also suggests that TETT contains less verbs, adverbs and numerals than OCTT. The lower frequency of verbs and adverbs may be attributed to syntactic restructure or other ways of transformation which will be discussed later; yet the lower frequency of numerals suggests omission in translation.

### 4.1 Simplification – Omission

Comparing the original and translation, we find some cases where the original numerals have been omitted. For instance,

(1) ST:

商场近200间店铺荟萃国际及本地潮流品牌、特色餐饮食肆  
.....等消费热点。

BT: The mall gathers 200 spending hot spots, including a  
myriad of international and local fashion brands, exclusive  
food & beverage outlets...

TT: The mall gathers a plethora of spending hot spots, including a myriad of international and local fashion brands, exclusive food & beverage outlets...

Example (1) illustrates a case where the specific number “200” in the original has been omitted in translation. Similar omissions have also been identified in example (2), where the description of the public has been left out.

(2) ST:

2009年台中美食嘉年华将从本周六的下午一点热闹到晚上九点，台中市具代表性的特色美食店家热情参与，要民众好吃好玩一整天。

BT: 2009 Taichung Food Festival will start from 1 pm till 9 pm on September 12, 2009 (this Saturday). Representative and featured shops of Taichung will actively participate and the public can enjoy the food and fun for a whole day.

TT: 2009 Taichung Food Festival will be held from 1 pm till 9 pm on September 12, 2009 ... A number of representative and featured shops will participate in this grand event!

As the omitted information in example (2) is not limited to numerals, it indicates the improved reconstruction of the original as reflected in translation. The decision to omit “this Saturday” (no longer relevant) and “for a whole day” (not necessarily desirable for Western tourists) can be easily justified. Reviewing the aligned texts, more omissions are detected.

(3) ST:

昂坪市集佔地1.5公頃，除了購物及飲食設施之外還包含「與佛同行」、「靈猴影院」及「昂坪茶館」三個主題景點，讓您和家人探索遠古文化的軌跡，深深體會那種像走進時光隧道的悸動！

BT: Except shops and eateries, the 1.5-hectare Ngong Ping Village also contains three theme attractions – “Walking with Buddha”, “The Monkey's Tale Theatre” and “Ngong Ping Tea House”. Here you and your family can explore the ancient culture and experience the excitement of entering the time tunnel.

TT: It's here at the Ngong Ping Village, that your family can **enjoy three great attractions** and a choice of shops and eateries, all on this picturesque 1.5-hectare site.

The three theme attractions listed in the original – “Walking with Buddha”, “The Monkey's Tale Theatre” and “Ngong Ping Tea House” – have been omitted in the translation of example (3). The culturally loaded information items are neutralized to avoid unnecessary comprehension problems. The target reader does not need to be overburdened by the “extra” information items, which can be comprehended by the reader of the original without shortchanging the substance and thinking too much about the actual details. Undeniably, something is lost.

In example (4), another listing appears in the original. The translated version also omits the details of the listing. The details in the listing may well be omitted in translation because they can be, if anything, rather tiresome!

(4) ST:

主办单位集结花莲境内的民间社团、观光单位、饭店、民宿业者、商店业者、特产、小吃，共同迎接来自国内外的观光客。

BT: The organizer invited Hualien's local civil associations, tourism-relation organizations, restaurants, and managers from B&B, specialty and snacks shops to jointly welcome tourists from home and abroad.

TT: All the tourism **related industries** have been invited to take part in this grand event and to welcome the arrival of domestic and foreign tourists.

Similarly, examples (5) and (6) instantiate the omission of information regarding the unique culture of the source language, the translation of which is regarded as unnecessarily “thick”.

(5) ST: 楊侯古廟建於1699年，廟裏安放了一個鑄於光緒38年（1699年）的大鐘，是大澳香火最鼎盛的廟宇，被大澳村民認為是風水極佳之地。

BT: Established in 1699, Yeung Hau Temple, with a bell cast in the 38<sup>th</sup> year of the Kangxi (1699) inside, is the temple

with most worshipers in Tai O. It has been regarded by the villagers in Tai O as the place with best feng shui.

TT: This temple honours Hau Wong, a local court official from the late Sung dynasty in the 1270s whose real name was Yang Liangjie. A bell cast in the 38th year of the Kangxi (1699) was also placed in the temple.

“香火” (xiang huo) and “风水” (feng shui) are culture elements originated and widely spread throughout China, and it seems reasonable to assume that Westerners are unfamiliar with them. But perhaps they are not equally unfamiliar with them. It is true that “香火” (xiang huo), which literally means incense burning as part of a worshipping ritual is an unknown or little known practice but the art of fengshui has become meaningful and even significant for quite some people in the West. For this reason, a revised translation version is provided:

RT: This temple was built in 1699 to honour Hau Wong, a local court official in the late Sung dynasty in the 1270s, and it houses a bell that was cast also in 1699. The temple is most frequented by people from the neighborhood (or local devotees, the local devout), regarding it as a place with best Feng Shui.

Similarly, the revised version avoids direct transfer of “香火” (xiang huo) because the image it evokes in Chinese: worshipers burning incense to show their piety. The more worshipers a temple attracts, the more popular it is. However, the translated version contained in the data adds some extra information: the name of Yang Liangjie. Whether this extra information is necessary seems to be open to debate. Does the target reader really need to know the real name of this man? It may help to clear up the confusion surrounding Hau Wong and Yang Liangjie, but there is a further complication: Wong is Cantonese spelling and Yang is *pinyin* pronunciation system developed in mainland China. This lack of consistency can be confusing. In addition, Yang is the surname but the way it is presented, it may well be mistaken as first name. Not only is this note of explanation wasted, it creates a further historical reference that does not help to clarify things. Furthermore, to demonstrate a syntactic re-arrangement is necessary so that the bell becomes special and so that the interest of potential customers is aroused.

In the next example, the data contains “阿美族的丰年祭” (Amis people's Harvest Festival) and “布农族的打耳祭” (Bunun people's Malahodaigian), which are only celebrated by the Aborigines in Taiwan. This culture-loaded information is totally removed in the process of translation.



(6) ST:

如阿美族的丰年祭、布农族的打耳祭等等，遍布在台湾各地的原住民祭典，约有150几个之多，大多依据祖传习俗举行。

BT: There are over 150 aboriginal festivities spread throughout Taiwan, which are held in accordance with their ancestral rituals, such as the Harvest Festival of Amis people and the Malahodaigian of the Bunun people.

TT: There are over 150 aboriginal festivities spread throughout Taiwan, which are held from time to time in accordance with their ancestral rituals.

In brief, the analysis of OCTT and TETT shows that the translation of tourism texts seldom takes the word-for-word form. Detailed information in listings and original-culture specific information items tend to be omitted. This seems to conform to one of the Translation Universals – simplification, which is defined by Baker (1993) as the tendency of translators to produce easier-to-follow and simpler texts. Example texts in the present study are collected from internet webpages to represent common translation practices in real situations. To create an immediate effect on the prospective travelers, tourism texts depend on a visual appeal shown on the webpage and for this reason, they are meant to be concise and to the point. This strategy of reducing complexity is widely used and signals a proactive approach to potential translation problems. The semantically compromised translation provides a more direct route to the message to be conveyed. After all, the omitted details are not exactly irretrievable: when they start their journey, they may experience first-hand what is omitted in the text.

It is worth noting, however, that simplification is not necessarily simplistic. While it is widely acknowledged that with certain textual types and text genres, particularly tourism texts, to reduce the complexity is unarguably justifiable, and simplification is the key to making reading possible, it is not taken lightly as is shown in compensation in translation.

Aside from simplifying selectively and discriminately, the solution to the loss of meaning is compensation of various forms. In general, compensation is required to minimize translation loss and improve on reader/hearer comprehension of the TT.

Broadly, it can be divided into contextual compensation and textual compensation. The conscious attempts at compensation simplification should not be taken for granted at its face value. However, as long as there is no excessive demand for meaning or rather full meaning as in the case of translation of tourism texts, the need for compensation is reduced to absolute minimum.

#### 4.2 Objectification – Nominalization

Halliday proposes that the “same” meaning can be expressed in basically two ways: the congruent wording and the metaphorical wording (Thompson 2008: 221). The former refers to a kind of “natural” relation between the meaning and the structure. For instance, actions are encoded by the verbal groups; things are encoded by nominal groups; attributes are encoded by adjectives or modifying groups; circumstantial elements like time, location, manner etc. are encoded by adverbs; and logic relations are encoded by conjunctions, etc. Yet when the normal rule is broken, like actions being represented by nominal groups, the metaphorical wording appears. One of the most important metaphorical wordings is nominalization. It is defined by Thompson (2008: 225) as “the use of a nominal form to express a process meaning” and can be recognized when “the nominal form is derived from a verbal form”.

We have counted the frequency of nouns and verbs in the two subcorpora for our study. As is shown in Table 2, there are significantly more nouns and fewer verbs in the translated texts, which is somewhat surprising and suggestive of the natural instinct and tendency of translators to choose nominalization. But it seems that nominalization may appear to be more professional so as to create the impression that an authoritative tour guide is being provided.

**Table 2. Frequency of Nouns and Verbs in OCTT & TETT**

	nouns	verbs
OCTT	169825	61633
TETT	185779	50784

There are generally three possibilities that verbs can be nominalized: the first occasion occurs when some verbs can also be used as nouns without any form change; the second occasion occurs when some verbs can be converted into nouns by moving their stress from the second syllable to the first syllable; the third occasion occurs when verbs are followed by noun-suffixes.

The most frequently employed noun-suffixes include -tion(s), -sion(s), -ment(s), -ence(s), -ance(s).

First, we may look at nominalization concerning the first two models, involving verbs that are converted into nouns without any change in form. From the high frequency word list created by Wordsmith 5.0, we have picked out the top five words that can be used both as nouns and verbs and express similar meaning whether used as nouns or verbs. Their frequency when used as noun and verb are illustrated in table 3. As is shown, when a word can be used both as a noun and a verb, it tends to be nominalized in TETT.

**Table 3. Frequency of the Top Five Words Used as Noun or Verb in TETT**

TETT	noun	verb
tour	365	26
travel	159	109
transport	254	8
experience	106	99
drive	106	92

As pointed out by Halliday and Matthiessen, nominalization is usually used in “adult discourse” (Halliday & Matthiessen 2004: 657) and “high levels of nominalization characterize abstract written English, especially in the context of science, the humanities and administration” (Martin 1992: 138). This suggests that texts with high level of nominalization tend to be formal and appear to be objective, which is of fundamental importance to tourism texts. Usually verbs appear with matched subjects and objects, but when verbs are converted into nouns or nominal phrases, “some of the information is lost” (Halliday & Matthiessen 2004: 657). One main loss is the doer of action or activities.

In some cases, it is precisely the omission of “the human doer” that objectifies the texts. (Thompson 2008: 230).

The following example can well illustrate this point:

(7) ST:

別忘記購買一些當地醃製的蝦醬和鹹魚，體驗獨特的漁村飲食風味。

BT: Don't forget to buy some locally produced fish paste and salted fish and you can experience the unique culinary flavor of the fishing village.

TT: Be sure to check out the locally produced fish paste and salted fish for a unique culinary experience.

In the Chinese source text, it is customary that the subject is sometimes omitted. In example (7), the doer of the action "experience" just does not appear in the original. Since in English "clauses normally require a Subject" (Thompson 2008: 230), if "experience" is used as a verb, the subject that has been omitted in the original should be complemented. However, in the translated version, "experience" is used as a noun, which makes it possible for the subject to remain invisible. "Nominalized processes are non-finite: they are not tied to any specific time in relation to the time of speaking" (ibid.). In other words, nominalized processes, different from normal processes, tend to be regarded as something general not to be limited or confined to any specific occasion. Therefore, through the nominalizing transformation, the translated version functions to objectify the "unique experience" as an objective fact applicable to anyone at any time.

As mentioned above, the third way of nominalization is through the addition of noun-suffix. Through the search of "-tion(s)\_N", "-sion(s)\_N", "-ment(s)\_N", "-ence(s)\_N", "-ance(s)\_N" by AntConc 3.3.5., as is shown in table 4, we have counted the frequency of five most common noun-suffixes in TETT.

**Table 4. Frequency of Nominalization by Adding Noun-suffix in TETT**

	TETT
-tion(s)	7952
-sion(s)	423
-ment(s)	973
-ence(s)	733
-ance(s)	962
total	11043

Tourism texts are not merely for exotic scenery depiction or culture introduction. Their ultimate purpose, like that of advertisements (Burke 1966: 12), is to persuade the customer to purchase the tourism product or service.

The importance of tourism has long been recognized and it is increasingly regarded as a basic need of human beings to experience different cultures in other places away from home out of curiosity. To this end, tourism texts are overtly designed to inform readers about the value of identifying and exploring places of tourist interest with convincing details about the places in question. With a view to realizing this goal, an overriding motivation is to maximize the appeal and attractiveness of a tourist zone by making the information presented in a tourist brochure or other literature authentic and credible. Moreover, as observed by Halliday & Matthiessen (2008: 657), nominalization “tends to become merely a mark of prestige and power”. This is because verbs and verbal groups are more specific and context-dependent while nouns and nominal groups are more abstract and context-independent. Another illustration of this point can be found in the following example:

(8) ST:

大雁塔·大唐芙蓉园景区包括大慈恩寺大雁塔景区、大唐芙蓉园、大雁塔文化休闲景区及唐大慈恩寺遗址公园，集中**体现了**盛唐文化的灵魂与精髓

BT: The Big Wild Goose Pagoda - Tang Dynasty Hibiscus Garden zone includes the Da Ci'en Temple Big Wild Goose Pagoda zone, the Tang Dynasty Hibiscus Garden, the Big Wild Goose Pagoda Cultural and Leisure zone, and the Tang Dynasty Da Ci'en Temple Ruins Park, all **expressed** the spirit and essence and the culture of the Tang Dynasty at its peak.

TT: The Big Wild Goose Pagoda - Tang Dynasty Hibiscus Garden zone includes the Da Ci'en Temple Big Wild Goose Pagoda zone, the Tang Dynasty Hibiscus Garden, the Big Wild Goose Pagoda Cultural and Leisure zone, and the Tang Dynasty Da Ci'en Temple Ruins Park, **giving expression to** the spirit and essence of the culture of the Tang Dynasty at its peak within a small piece of land.

In the Chinese source text of example (8), the word “体现” is a verb. The auxiliary word “了” indicates this is an action that has already been performed. If the rendition continues to use the past form of the verb “express”, the whole sentence turns to be a description of a specific past action. Yet, in the translated version from TETT, the original verb is replaced by a noun “expression”.

With the loss of the “finiteness” of the verb and the gain of the “thingness” of the noun, the authenticity and credibility of the description of the listed scenic spots thus established can demonstrate the quintessence of the culture of Tang dynasty at its peak. The potential tourists are likely to feel impressed by what they have read about the destination of their visit.

In sum, as proposed by Halliday (1985: 91), nominalization can set writers free from the context and produce a text that is more formal and objective. A certain decontextualization thus generated is helpful for readers of tourism texts, for they can acquire a general understanding of the text involved without being overburdened by an inordinate amount of information containing unnecessary cultural references. Some cultural universals should be quite sufficient. In the tourism translations we have collected, a large amount of nominalization has been identified, which seems to suggest that the translated texts are with higher degree of objectivity than their Chinese originals, hence the increased power to perform a better and more satisfactory service to the customer.

#### 4.3 Intensification– Addition of Superlative Form & Intensifier Addition of Superlative Form

Like any advertisement, general tourism literature aims to grab attention and in order to do so effectively, it should be capable of creating interest in its product. And marketing requirement is such that tourism literature must be written with clarity and style underpinned with various rhetorical devices. Emphatic modifiers including, most notably, superlatives feature prominently in tourism texts. In Chinese, the superlative form of adjective and adverb can be realized simply through the addition of the adverb “最” (*zui*, which can roughly be translated as “most” in English). In English, for adjective and adverb with no less than three syllables, the superlative form can be realized through the addition of “most” in front while for those with less than three syllables, it can be realized by adding the suffix “-est”.

To investigate the frequency of superlative forms in the two corpora, AntConc 3.3.5 has been adopted by searching “最” (*zui*) in the original corpus and “most” as well as “-est” in the translated corpus. Irrelevant cases like “destination” and “forest”, etc. are excluded through manual checking.

**Table 5. Frequency of Superlative forms in OCTT & TETT**

	<i>superlative forms</i>
<i>OCTT</i>	2303
<i>TETT</i>	2605

The result is shown in Table 5, where far more superlative forms can be identified from the translated corpus. This statistics demonstrates that more superlative forms have been added in the process of translation. As it happens, this finding conforms to one of the features of tourism texts proposed by Dann (1996: 65): “the language of tourism tends to speak only in positive and glowing terms of the services and attractions it seeks to promote. Febas Borra (1978: 80) also concludes, after a detailed analysis of Spanish tourism pamphlets, that “we never come across what is average or normal. The discourse of tourism is a form of extreme language”. In this sense, usually “the novelty” and “the exotic” (Endicott 1984:53) of the attractions are emphasized and perhaps also exaggerated, which is admittedly permissible and even desirable in advertisement. Indeed, reasonable allowances are made for exaggeration and even melodrama with regard to any form of advertisement, including, of course, tourism products.

In addition, our findings that more superlative forms have been added in the English translation can be taken as evidence for the translator’s emotional involvement, which is exemplified in a tendency of the translator to repeatedly intensify the effect of the original meaning.

(9) ST:

電車沿途經過五光十色的西區、灣仔、銅鑼灣及北角。

BT: The tram goes through the colorful Western district, Wan Chai, Happy Valley, Causeway Bay and North Point.

TT: Neighbourhoods along the way include some of Hong Kong’s **most** colourful: Western district, Wan Chai, Happy Valley, Causeway Bay and North Point.

In the above example (9), the translated version turns the original form into a superlative one through the addition of the adverb “most”.

This hyperbole underscores and adds seemingly factual substance to the beauty of the scenery along the route and as a result, may better motivate readers to take a ride and experience the journey by themselves. Similarly, in example (10), the original Chinese version states a fact that “the activity of September is the Hakka Sweeping the Street Carnival” in a simple and unadorned manner whereas the addition of “most” in the translated version amplifies the appeal of the Carnival by capitalizing on its colourful feature. The translator has made an obvious attempt to produce something fresh and catchy to capture readers’ attention and stir their desire to get involved in trying to have some serious fun.

(10) ST:

13项各具地方特色的客家代表节庆于每个月陆续登场，其中，9月主题为桃园平镇客家踩街嘉年华会。

BT: There are 13 Hakka representative festivities have been launched in succession every month. Among them, the theme of September is the Hakka Sweeping the Street Carnival.

TT: There are 13 Hakka representative festivities have been launched in succession every month. Among that, the **most** eye-catching upcoming event in September will be the Hakka Sweeping the Street Carnival.

#### Addition of Intensifier

Aside from the addition of superlative forms, translators also adopted other forms of emphatic modifiers to mark tourism texts as “an obsession with breaking records, of heading up a non-existent classification without any sort of justification” (Febas Borra 1978: 80). For instance, the addition of intensifiers, like “surely”, “definitely”, “extremely”, “greatly”, etc. is commonly observed.

(11) ST:

走一趟鲤鱼潭，感受到的，是一种自然、也是一种自在与惬意。

BT: Taking a trip in Liyu Lake Scenic Area. What you can feel is a sense of nature, also a sense of freedom and pleasure.

TT: Taking a trip in Liyu Lake Scenic Area **surely** can be a **really** pleasant and leisure travel experience.



(12) ST:

同设在加东的圣帕加维那雅加庙建筑设计风格亮丽，值得一游。

BT: In the vicinity of Kadong is the Sri Senpaga Vinayagar Temple, with stunning architecture design – worth a visit.

TT: In the same vicinity is the Sri Senpaga Vinayagar Temple, with stunning architecture and murals – **definitely well** worth a visit.

The emphatic modifiers of “surely”, “really”, “definitely”, “well” in examples (11) and (12) are all attitudinal intensifiers added in translation, which serve the purpose of generating fascination with the tourism products and appealing to readers' enthusiasm. One of the most important advertising strategies of tourism is the involvement of readers with what they are promised to experience. It seems like a friendly intervention with a personal touch as if to say "Come on. Let's do it!" Maybe this is not so objective but nonetheless presents a convincing reason in order to dispel any lingering doubt.

#### 4.4 Intimation – Addition of Second-Person Pronoun

Judicious use of personal pronouns can be an important part of a writing style, and it is advisable to introduce them in translation for a particular effect. For instance, the frequent use of first-person pronouns indicates the writer's self-centered perspective while the frequent use of third-person pronouns gives a sense of objectivity. In this section, we are going to explore some of the salient features of using personal pronouns in translated English tourism texts.

According to Reiss (1971/2000: 27-43; 1989: 108-109), there are three types of texts, namely, informative, expressive and imperative texts. For instance, news and scientific essays are mainly informative, literary writings usually expressive and advertisements and notices dominantly imperative. Tourism texts can be both informative and imperative. To achieve imperative effects, the writer needs to get the reader involved in what has been described. As Reilly emphasizes (1988: 110-111, 116-118), it is important to identify the target audience and keep them in mind all the time while stressing the uniqueness of individual persons and tailor the services to better suit their needs and wishes.

For this purpose, writers of tourism texts may want to adopt “a conversational style which suits the needs of and reduces the anxiety in the targeted subject” (Dann 1996: 186). To initiate a dialogue between authors and readers, the use of second-person pronouns can be an effective way to do so, which can be seen as an excellent linguistic gesture to convey a sense of friendliness and a spirit of hospitality. To be sure, a familiar personal language is decidedly reassuring and respectful.

**Table 6. Frequency of Second-Person Pronoun in OCTT & TETT**

	Second-person Pronoun
OCTT	409
TETT	1662

In this study, AntConc 3.3.5 has been used to search all the derivatives of “you”, like “你 (们/的)” (*ni men/de*), “您 (们/的)” (*nin men/de*) in OCTT and “you, your, yours” in TETT. As shown in Table 6, there are considerably more second-person pronouns in TETT than in OCTT, which suggests that the translator has added a large number of second-person pronouns while translating. Be this act conscious or sub-conscious, it definitely can increase the readers’ involvement. The following examples may illustrate this point:

(13) ST:

「與佛同行」是這個多媒體節目，引領觀眾進入釋迦牟尼一生的立體旅程

BT: “Walking with Buddha” is a multimedia program, which leads the participants into a three-dimensional journey of the life of Siddhartha Gautama.

TT: **Your** journey of discovery begins with the Walking with Buddha multimedia facility that takes **you** through the life of Siddhartha Gautama.

While the original text is addressed to “觀眾” (the participants), the translated version is addressed directly to “you”. As readers read this sentence, they may feel the writer is talking directly to him/her. This dialogic expression assumes the form of an intimate conversation as if “you” are the only person in the world to be invited, thereby signaling the unique quality of each individual being addressed. Moreover, the addition of the modifier “your” also creates a sense of belonging – the journey is a tailor-made VIP service especially for “you”.

(14) ST:

「優質旅遊服務」計劃助您搜尋經濟實惠和服務優良的住宿選擇。

BT: The QTS Scheme helps you find economical accommodation with good service.

TT: The QTS Scheme makes it easy for you to find budget visitor accommodation **that you can trust**.

In example (14), the modifier “服務優良的” (with good service) does not spell out who makes the judgment, and it is unclear whether it refers to the reader, the author or the general public. However, in the translated version, through the addition of the attributive clause “that you can trust”, the doer of the judgment – “you” – has been specified. Reading this version of translation, the reader may feel that they are in a position to exercise the right to decide what accommodation would be suitable or not. Needless to say, the sense of power and responsibility thus engendered results in considerable psychological appeal so that “you” must invariably have the desire to exercise their right of judgment in matters pertaining to their own holidays. In this sense, the persuasion aim to convince customers of the tourism text has been achieved.

## 5. Conclusion

Based on a parallel-corpus analysis, the analysis on vocabulary features of translated English tourism texts is performed with the aid of corpus analysis tools, including ICTCLAS 2012, Treetagger, AntConc 3.3.5, and Wordsmith 5.0. The following features of translated English tourism texts are identified: 1) as a full expression of simplification, one of the translation universals, translated English tourism texts are more concise and effective than direct, unmediated translation of Chinese originals through the omission of detailed information in listings and original-culture-unique information; 2) translated English tourism texts are more formal and objective than the Chinese original through the frequent adoption of nominalization; 3) translated English tourism texts use more extreme language than their Chinese originals through the addition of the superlative form and other intensifiers; 4) translated English tourism texts create a more intimate interaction between the text and the reader through the frequent use of second-personal pronouns.

The findings of this study may have pedagogic implications by giving insights into the teaching and learning of translating tourism texts. For instance, the high frequency of extreme expressions in the translated texts can remind the translator of the importance to evoke readers' imagination and arouse their interests. And to be able to establish a somewhat intimate relation of proximity to the target allows and enables the translator to provide a more conversational style of expression in translating tourism texts. In addition, sometimes a further revision of the translated text proves to be necessary to help students or training translators to improve their translation skills and understanding of the related cultural factors in the process of translation. It is widely acknowledged that translation entails not only cross-linguistic interpretation but also cross-cultural interpretation. And for this reason, the related contextual factors must be taken into account. It is the overall contextual performance that determines the quality of the final product of translation.

This study is far from being complete at the present time due partly to the following limitations: on the one hand, the size of the corpus is still relatively small. This may compromise the representativeness of the findings, for we have reason to ask: Will quantitative information, accumulated to a certain level affect qualitative outcome? On the other hand, all the tourism materials are collected from the internet. It is convinced that future studies with expanded corpus size and extended material sources can generate results that are more reliable and of better validity. We feel strongly that more suitable corpora perhaps should contain such information as the identity of the translator, and just like the OED that contains valuable historical information including the etymology of words, the value of corpora would be greatly enhanced if more contextual information is incorporated. As to how important or relevant such information is, further investigation is obviously needed. We should bear in mind that translation often constitutes a moving text: undertaken according to or in response to different social, historical, cultural situations. In the final analysis, translation is a matter of translating translation(s), involving choice of words and syntactical structure, and reflecting the different thinking patterns behind the source and target texts and their respective cultural systems.

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