CHAPTER 2

TRANSLATION STUDIES AND CONTRASTIVE TEXT LINGUISTICS

2.1 Introduction

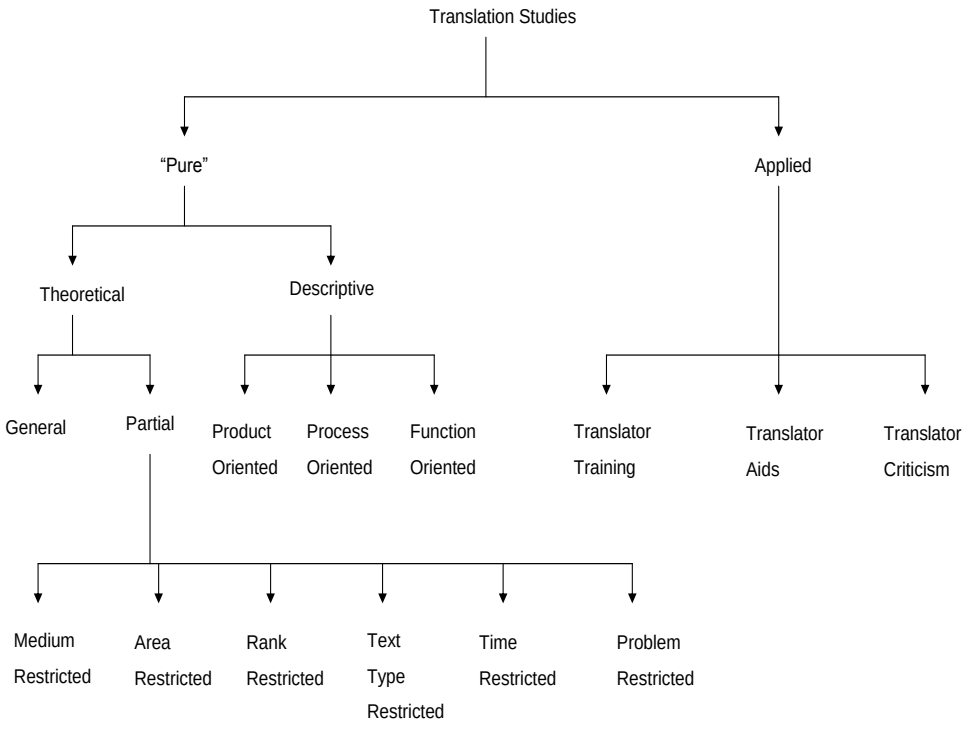
This chapter is divided into three sections. The first section is dedicated to the discussion of the scope and nature of Translation Studies, and its interdisciplinary nature and character. The areas reviewed include Modern Linguistics, especially its sub-disciplines, namely text analysis (the study of text as a communicative event) and pragmatics (the study of language in use), and their application to translation studies. The second section focuses on the notion of register. The notion of register is presented in terms of its original framework proposed in the early 1960s, and the modification made by Hatim & Mason within a model of discourse processing which takes into consideration pragmatic and semiotic values, demonstrating their importance in the development of the text and the way in which communication takes place. The final section is a discussion on the review of the literature on contrastive text analysis and Translation Studies.

2.2 Translation Studies

The academic discipline which concerns itself with the study of translation has been known by different names at different times. Some scholars have proposed to refer to it as the 'science of translation' (Nida 1969, Wilss 2001). However, James Holmes, in his seminal article *The Name and Nature of Translation Studies*, originally presented in 1972 in Germany at the Third International Congress of Applied Linguistics but widely

published only much later, argued for the adoption of 'translation studies' as the standard term for the discipline as a whole (2004:127). The paper was soon considered as 'the founding statement of work in the field' (Gentzler 2001:93).

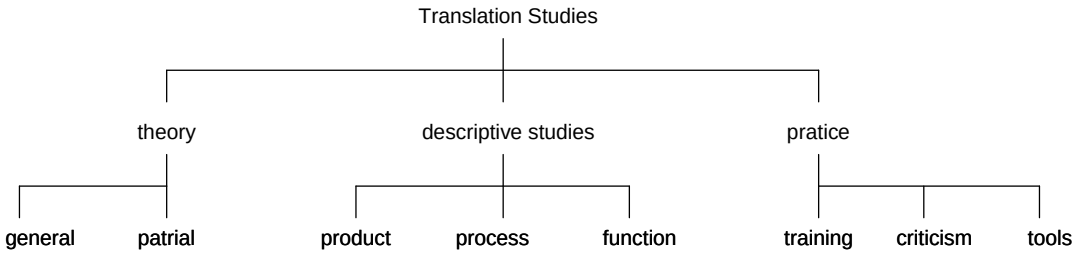
James Holmes (2004) is credited with the first attempt to chart the territory of translation studies as an academic pursuit. He laid out the scope and structure for the new discipline, advocating translation as an empirical science divided into the main categories of 'pure' and 'applied' translation studies. The former is further broken down into 'theoretical' versus 'descriptive', with descriptive branching into three foci of research: function, process and product-oriented. Included in the applied branch are translation training, translation aids, and translation criticism. Holmes' (2004) paper refers to many key aspects of translation. It talks of translation as a process and discusses what happens in the act of translating the source text (ST), translation as a product-analysis of the target text (TT), and translation as a function, that is, how the TT operates in a particular context. James Holmes' map of the discipline (see Figure 2.1) is now widely accepted as a solid framework for organizing academic activities within this domain.



(Source: Mona Baker 2004:278)

Figure 2.1: Holmes' Map of Translation Studies

Holmes argues that information gained from the research on the 'theoretical' and 'descriptive' domains of the 'pure' branch of translation studies would be valuable for the training of translators. Gentzler (2003:11) found the tri-partite model for Translation Studies by Holmes to be very productive. He modified Holmes' map of *Translation Studies* slightly as shown in Figure 2.2:



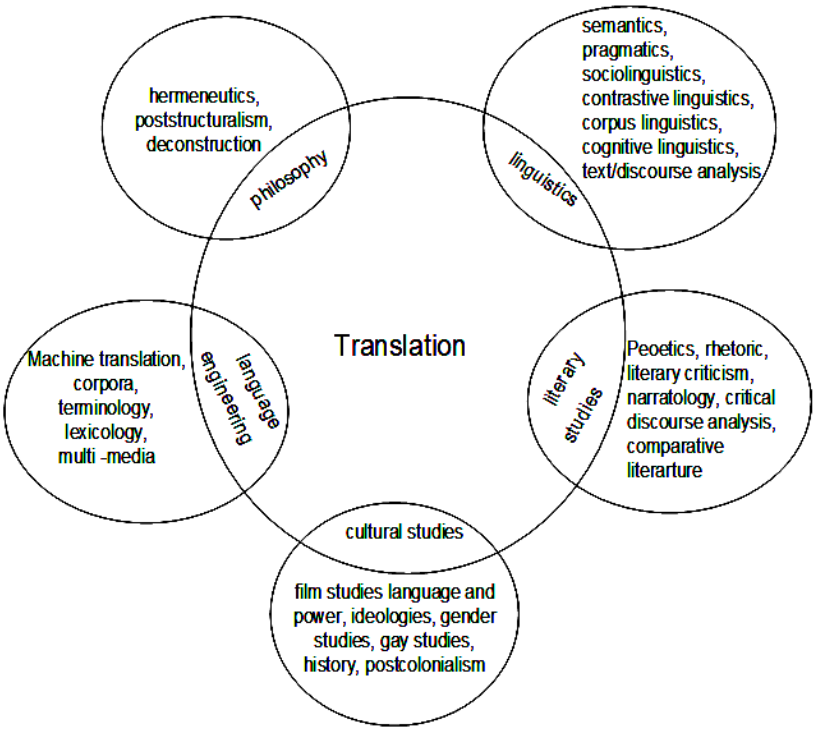
(Source: Gentzler 2003:12)

Figure 2.2: The Scope and Structure for Translation Studies

The development of the field of Translation Studies has borne out of Holmes' belief that as case studies are described and data collected, theory would evolve. Gentzler (ibid:12) suggests that an open structure – one that allows for theories, descriptive studies, practice and training to productively interact with each other – should be created. What seems to be new and exciting about Holmes' model for this field, especially in higher education, argues Gentzler, are the research possibilities presented by the middle branch (ibid:12). During the late 1970s and 1980s, many of the most important scholars in Europe working on Translation Studies such as Jose Lambert, Hendrik van Gorp, Theo Hermans, devoted themselves to descriptive studies and developed models for a better description of translation. They also provided the norms for translation activities in different cultural situations (ibid:12).

2.2.1 Translation Studies and Other Disciplines

Holmes' paper *Translation Studies* has evolved to such an extent that translation was clearly seen as an inter-disciplinary field. In the 1970s, and particularly during the 1980s, translation scholars began to draw heavily on theoretical frameworks and methodologies borrowed from other disciplines. As observed by Hatim & Munday, the methods of analysis are more varied and the cultural and ideological features of translation have become as prominent as linguistics. Figure 2.3 illustrates the breadth of contacts:



(Source: Hatim & Munday 2004:8)

Figure 2.3: Map of Disciplines Interfacing with Translation Studies

Based on its interdisciplinary nature and character, there are a number of distinct theoretical perspectives from which translation can be studied. Gentzler (2003), has pointed out that interdisciplinary approaches to Translation Studies are a historical trend. His article *Interdisciplinary Connections* (2003) offers a presentation of the state of the art of translation as well as a view of where Translation Studies is heading. He points out that (2003:10) 'the most distinguishing characteristic of Translation Studies in the last two decades is that they have exploded with different approaches, strategies, and theories'. He also welcomes their impact on Translation Studies in its narrower sense. For him, Translation Studies has shown 'new interaction with other fields, including continental philosophy, feminism, postcolonial studies, and cultural studies'. He also suggests that scholars from other fields engage in dialogue with Translation Studies scholars, and since 'Translation Studies scholars have taken the "interdisciplinary turn"

in Translation Studies…scholars from other fields need to take the "translation turn" in interdisciplinary studies' (ibid:20).

2.3 Linguistics and Translation Studies

The discipline of linguistics has developed in several different directions, but always with the aim and ambition that the study of language is a science. Linguistics has contributed to Translation Studies in four fields: syntax, semantics, pragmatics, and text linguistics or discourse analysis. Syntax and semantics contribute to the awareness that 'each language is full of gaps and shifts when compared with another language' (Fawcett 1997:19). Accordingly, Catford (1965/1980:49) states that 'the [source-text and target-text] items rarely have "the same meaning" in a linguistic sense; but they can function in the same situation'. Pragmatics is concerned with the use of language and how language functions in context. Theoretical concepts in the field of pragmatics have been introduced into Translation Studies in the form of speech act theory, cooperative principles, and relevance theory.

2.3.1 Text Linguistics

In the 70s, the study of linguistic beyond the sentence starts to gain momentum when the study of 'text' became current among a group of German linguists working at Munster, Cologne, and Bielefeld (Bulow-Moller 1989:9). Throughout the 1970s and 1980s, many linguists felt that traditional morphological and syntactic tools were not adequate to explain texts; new discourse tools needed to be developed. The resulting new field has been given a variety of names: text linguistics, discourse analysis, and discourse linguistics. These terms are used almost interchangeably in the literature.

Nonetheless, in this study, text linguistics is used interchangeably with discourse analysis.

The distinction between 'text' and 'discourse' is not always clear-cut. In many cases, discourse and text are two terms which are used in free variation. Discourse analysis can be said to date back to Harris. According to Harris, 'Language does not occur in stray words or sentences, but in connected discourse' (Harris 1952:3). Brown and Yule's *Discourse Analysis* (1983) uses 'discourse' in a narrow sense, referring only to conversation studies. Michael Stubbs, in his book *Discourse Analysis* (1983), applies the term 'discourse' to both conversational exchanges and written texts with an attempt to study larger linguistic units such as the sentence.

Hatim sees text analysis as essentially concerned with the organization and mapping of texts, whereas discourse analysis emphasizes on social relationships and interaction through texts (2004:262). In fact, text linguistics is often spoken of synonymously with text analysis and written analysis, an analysis of texts that goes beyond the sentence level. However, a different distinction is sometimes made between discourse analysis as the study of spoken interaction and text linguistics as the study of written interaction.

Some linguists maintain a distinction between 'text' as a discourse without context and 'discourse' as a text and its situational context. For instance, Verdonk (2002:18) defines discourse as 'the process of activation of a text by relating it to a context of use'. In other words, a text does not come into being until it is actively employed in a context of use. The contextualization of a written text is actually 'the reader's reconstruction of the writer's intended message, that is, the writer's communicative act or discourse' (ibid:18). As such, according to Verdonk a text can be defined as 'the observable

product of the writer's or speaker's discourse, which in turn must be seen as the process that has created it' (ibid:18).

In short, a reader who reads and tries to understand the meaning of a text is in fact engaged in a process of reconstruction. In the process, he/she will search for signals that may help to reconstruct the writer's discourse. Inference of discourse meaning is in reality a matter of negotiation between the reader and the writer in a contextualized social interaction (Hatim & Mason 1990, Hatim 2001, Verndock 2002). Verndock goes on to suggest that a 'text can be realized by any piece of language as long as it is found to record a meaningful discourse when it is related to a suitable context of use'.

In present-day literature, the term *text linguistics* or *discourse analysis* refers to practically any analysis of text, as long as the primary interest is in relationships beyond the sentence. As pointed out by Celce-Murcia & Olsthia (2006:4), 'Formal definitions typically characterize discourse as a unit of coherent language consisting of more than one sentence', however, the notion of 'sentence' is not always relevant. The meaningfulness of a text or discourse does not depend on its linguistic size. A piece of text or discourse in context can consist of as little as one word. Shouted in a hostel corridor, the single word 'fire' will function as a complete text. A public notice like 'DANGER' is a small scale but complete text because it fulfils the basic requirement of forming a meaningful whole in its own right (Halliday & Hasan 2001, Hatim & Mason 1990, Baker 1992). It is a meaningful whole from the perspective of looking at text as a communicative occurrence because people who hear the word 'fire!' will immediately catch the meaning of the word as an act of informing that 'a fire has broken out'. In short, people who see the word 'DANGER' will interpret it as a warning – we recognize a piece of language as a text because of its location in a particular context (Verdonk 2002:17). For instance, the road sign 'RAMP AHEAD' will be interpreted by

motorists as ‘a warning that there will be a small hump on the road ahead and it is therefore wise to slow down when you drive over it’ (ibid:17). Provided that we are familiar with the text in the context we know what the intended message is. In other words, the intended meaning of a text depends on its use in an appropriate context.

2.3.2 Text Linguistics and Translation Studies

According to Li Yunxing (2003:61), text linguistics and discourse analysis have provided the most comprehensive theoretical model for Translation Studies that may serve as research tools not only in the linguistic dimensions concerning cohesion, coherence, and thematic structure, but also in the contextual dimension including genre, register and cultural constraints in text-production. Li Yunxing (ibid:61) further suggests that the communication-oriented framework of text linguistic will become ‘the leading donor discipline for the linguistic school of Translation Studies in the new century’ (ibid: 6).

Mason (2004:29) states that the term communicative and functional ‘broadly represent a view which refuses to divorce the act of translating from its context, insisting upon the real-world situational factors which are prime determinants of meaning and interpretation of meaning’. Among others, the functionalist views of the British tradition in linguistics, stemming from Malinowski, J.R. Firth and continuing in the work of J. Catford, Michael Gregory and Michael Halliday have provided translation studies with an alternative view which approach language as a text.

Malinowski (1923) invokes the notion of context to account for the way language is used among the Trobriand islanders in the Western Pacific. In such non-literate communities, he observed that language functions as ‘a mode of action’ but it could

only function in that manner if what is said is made meaningful by being linked to a particular 'context of situation' familiar to the participants concerned. He goes on to suggest that this also applies to 'a modern civilized language'.

Malinowski introduced the term 'utterance' to refer to the contextually-dependent statement which has no meaning except in the context of situation. In other words, language cannot be seen in isolation from its social context and that the meaning of an utterance is found essentially in the use to which it is put. In order to understand the meaning of an utterance, it is necessary to have some knowledge of the total cultural background and the cultural history of the participant and the practices they are engaging in. Apparently, Labov's description of the domain of discourse analysis closely corresponds to what Malinowski has said about context:

> Commands and refusals are actions, declaratives, interrogatives, imperatives are linguistic categories-things that are said, rather than things that are done. The rules we need will show how things are done with words and how one interprets these utterances as actions: in other words, relating what is done to what is said and what is said to what is done. This area of linguistics can be called 'discourse analysis' but it is not well known or developed. Linguistic theory is not yet rich enough to write such rules, for one must take into account such sociological non-linguistic categories as roles, rights and obligations.
>
> (Labov 1969: 54-55)

Another linguist, J.R Firth, a colleague of Malinowski, has built on Malinowski's notion of **'**context of situation'. He sees meaning in terms of function in context and rejects those approaches to the study of language which seek to exclude the study of meaning. He takes up the notion of 'context of situation' and turns it into a key concept in his linguistic theory by incorporating language into it. This is how he formulates it:

> My view was, and still is, that 'context of situation' is best used as a suitable schematic construct to apply to language events, and that it

> is a group of related categories at a different level from grammatical categories but rather of the same abstract nature. A context of situation for linguistic work brings into relation the following categories:
>
> A. The relevant features of participants: persons, personalities
> (i) The verbal action of the participants.
> (ii) The non-verbal action of the participants.
> B. The relevant objects
> C. The effect of the verbal action
>
> Contexts of situation and types of language function can then be grouped and classified**.**
>
> (Firth 1957: 182)

Firth(1957) maintains that the study of meaning in linguistics should be viewed in terms of **'**function' in 'context'. Firth is interested in language that appears in a text and the study of texts in relation to their situation. Context of situation now includes participants in speech events, the action taking place, other relevant features of the situation and the effects of verbal actions. These variables are amenable to linguistic analysis and are therefore useful in making statements about meaning. In short, context of situation is to be interpreted as an abstract representation of the environment in terms of certain general categories relevant to the text.

Working within the parameters set by Firthian linguistics, Halliday defines language in terms of the basic distinction between context of culture and context of situation. A constant feature of Halliday an linguistics is the claim that the relationship between text and context is a systematic one. Gregory(1967), in defining situation and context, has described it as follows:

> By situation is meant the study of those extra-textual features, linguistic and non-linguistic, which have high potential relevance to statements of meanings about the text of language events. By **CONTEXT** is understood the correlations of formally described

> linguistic features, grouping of such features within texts and abstracted from them, with those situational features themselves constantly recurrent and relevant to the understanding of language events. (*emphasis original*)
>
> (Gregory, 1967:177-8)

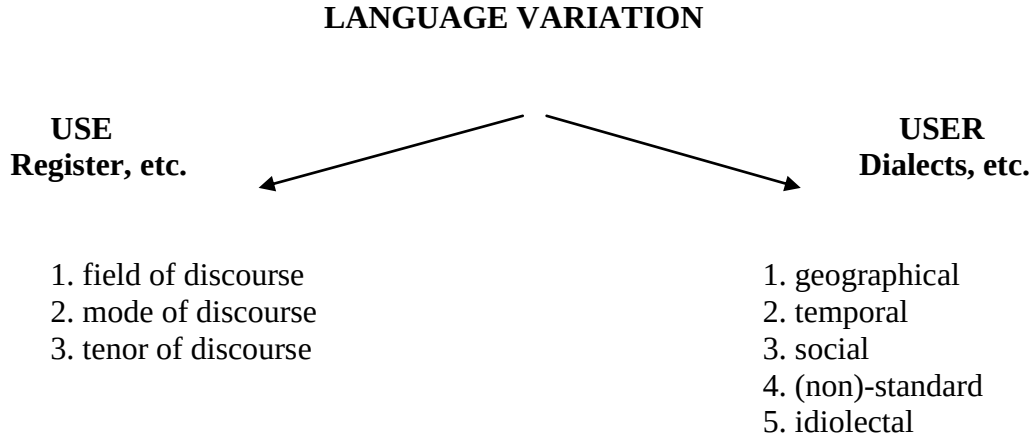
Halliday (Halliday, McIntosh & Stevens 1964:139) has also made it clear that he is not interested simply in language for itself but in what linguistic theory can offer to the applied study of texts. Within the context of culture, language is envisaged by Halliday (1973:48) as 'a form of behavior potential, an open-ended set of options in behavior that are available to the individual'. On the other hand, Halliday sees context of situation (ibid: 71) as '…the environment of any particular selection that is made from the total set of options accounted for in the context of culture'.

Context of culture defines the 'potential'; context of situation accounts for the 'actual'. As Halliday (1973) puts it, 'can do' is not a linguistic notion, and for it to be related to 'can say', an intermediary concept has to be brought in 'can mean'. Meaning potential is seen as a set of options available to the speaker and hearer (Halliday 1973).

2.4 Register Analysis and Translation Studies

The notion of *register* proposes a very intimate relationship of text to context, so intimate that it is asserted that one can only be interpreted by reference to the other (Martin 1989:vii). This term is first used in the sense of text variety, by the linguist Thomas Bertram Reid (1956). Reid's initial use of this term was brought into general currency in the 1960s by a group of linguists who wanted to distinguish between variations in language according to the *user* which is defined by variables such as social background, geography, sex and age, and variations according to *use*, 'in the sense that

each speaker has a range of varieties and chooses between them at different times' (Halliday et.al., 1964:77). The use-related framework for the description of language variation aims to 'uncover the general principles which govern [the variation in situation types], so that we can begin to understand what situational factors determine what linguistic features' (Halliday, 1978:32). The use-user variety can be represented in Figure 2.4:



(Source: Hatim & Mason 1990:46)

Figure 2.4: Use-related Variation

Following the functional-semantic tradition pursued by Firth and Halliday, the concept of *register* is seen by Gregory & Carroll (1978:64) as 'a useful abstraction linking variations of language to variations of social context'. According to Halliday (1978: 125), *register* is determined by three categories: field, tenor and mode. Originally, Halliday, McIntosh & Strevens (1964, see also Halliday 1978:125), propose that the three general concepts of 'field', 'mode', and 'tenor' correlate with variation in language form with variation in 'contexts of the situation'. Field is taken to refer to 'type of social action'; tenor as 'role relationship' and mode as 'symbolic organization' (ibid:35). In proposing that the situation types are analysed according to values of the field, tenor and mode variables, Halliday attempts to show how the context of situation

influences the selection of meanings for the construction of a text. His hypothesis is that these three situational variables**:** field, tenor and mode are related respectively to 'the ideational, interpersonal and textual components of the semantic system' (1978:125). Ideational, interpersonal and textual are three major text functions. The ideational macro-function conveys ideas, the interpersonal expresses relationship between author, text and reader; and the textual expresses discoursal meaning which ensures that propositional content and the utterances connect with each other to constitute a linguistically-linked text.

The relationship between field, tenor and mode and the particular linguistic features found are as follows (Halliday 1978:64):

(i) The field tends to determine the transitivity patterns-the types of process, for instance, relational clauses, possessive and circumstantial and the content aspect of vocabulary. The field is expressed through the ideational component of the semantic system;

(ii) The tenor involves choice of person, speech function such as request, permission, imperative and modality. The tenor is expressed through the interpersonal function in semantics;

(iii) The mode tends to determine the forms of cohesion, the patterns of voice and theme; the forms of deixis and the lexical continuity. All these are expressed through the textual function in the semantics.

Each of the three situational variables: field, tenor and mode may be thought of as a variable that functions as a point of entry to any situation. Halliday calls each set of option a CC (contextual configuration). In Halliday & Hasan's definition, a CC 'is a specific set of values that realizes field, tenor and mode'. In short, it can be said that these three elements, namely field, tenor and mode make it possible for the

writer/speaker ‘to orient himself in the context of situation’ (BBC World Service 2009: 4).

2.4.1 Expanding the Notion of Register Variation

The register’s approach to text analysis has not gone unchallenged, however. To equate a given register with a given situation can lead to overgeneralizations to grouping of so-called special languages such as ‘the language of journalism’, ‘the language of advertising’, ‘the language of politics’ and thus overlooks the multifunctional nature of texts (Hatim & Mason 1990: 5; this issue will be discussed in detail in section 3.3 in the following chapter). For as far back as the early 1960s, Halliday and his colleagues (1964: 94) have asserted that ‘[a speaker] speaks …in many registers’, as such, there will be shifts of register within texts. According to Hatim and Mason (1990), the fluctuation of different registers within the same text is of crucial importance to the translator.

Therefore, Hatim & Mason (1990:51) insist that a successful translation will seek to reflect the different domains of use in a text. In fact, the category of situation type is only a helpful classificatory device. In actual analysis, correspondence between situation and language remains vague. Nonetheless, both linguists agree that the concept of register is a fairly adequate device for predicting language use in restricted domains such as ‘diplomatic protocol’ and ‘weather forecasts’ (ibid:51). The relationship of a given register to its situation is expressed by Gregory and Carroll (1978:68) in the following terms: ‘The more typical or stereotyped the situation, the more restricted will be the range of options from which choices in the field, mode, and tenor can be made…’**.**

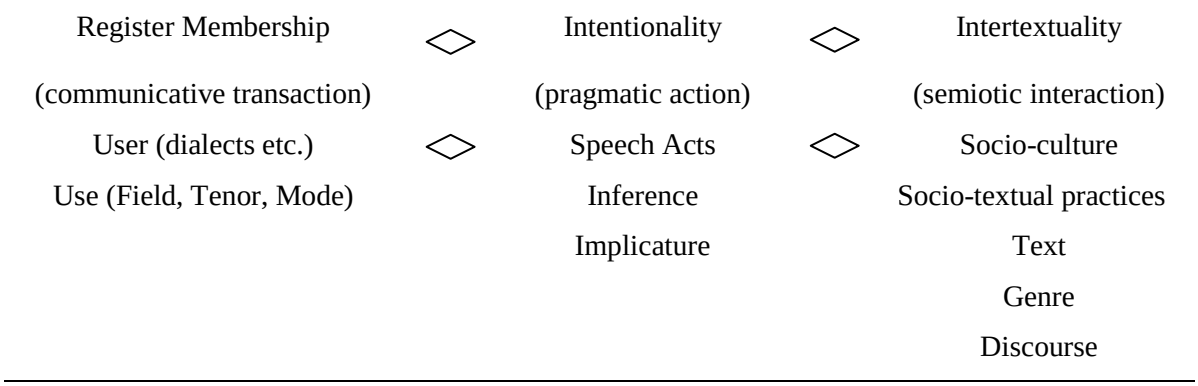
If the register restriction is viewed as a continuum, at one end is the maximally-restricted registers such as ‘diplomatic protocol’ and at the other end, an open ended

registers such as ‘the language of journalism’, registers such as ‘insurance contracts’ can be located in between. As such, Hatim & Mason conclude that ‘the concept of register is a fairly adequate device for predicting language use in restricted domains, it becomes less powerful in unrestricted areas’ (1990:54).

2.4.2 The Three Dimensions of Context

In view of the inadequacies of register analysis in providing insights into the communicative dimension of context, Hatim & Mason (1990:57-8) have suggested an alternative view of the ways in which language users and translators react to texts. In attempting to expand the notion of register variation and to account for the multi-functionality of texts, these two linguists have developed a more comprehensive model of context which brings together communicative, pragmatic and semiotic values and demonstrates their importance to the development of text and the way in which communication takes place. In this model, context is taken both ‘as a point of departure and a destination for text users in their attempt to communicate or appreciate the meaning of a message’ (ibid:25).

According to Hatim & Mason, the message of a text is constituted by the interplay of three contextual components which may be represented diagrammatically as in Figure 2.5, as shown below (see also Hatim and Mason 1990:237; Hatim 2001:22):



Text, genre and discourse typologies

STRUCTURE

TEXTURE

(Source: Hatim & Munday 2004:78)

Figure 2.5: The Three Dimensions of Context

Hatim (2001:34) admits that the model of context shown in Figure 2.5 owes a great deal to the view of language as social semiotic put forward by Halliday and his colleagues as well as to contributions made to the science of texts by text linguists such as de Beaugrande and Dressler. In this model of context (see also Hatim 1997, Hatim & Munday 2004), the use-user dimension is presented as making up the institutional-communicative aspect of context. Together with two other domains of contextual activity, one catering for intentionality (pragmatics), the other for intertextuality (semiotics), register envelops texts and causally determines text type, structure and texture.

In fact, Hatim (1987) argued that this comprehensive model of discourse processing, which takes in pragmatic context, text-typological focus, text structure, and texture, is a

framework capable of accounting for the phenomena which should be the focus of a contrastive textology.

2.4.2.1 The Communicative Dimension

The communicative aspect subsumes *user-related* variables such as dialects, temporal language variations, idiosyncrasies of personal language use and so on, on the one hand; and the *use-related* variables such as field of discourse (the social function of utterances, for instance 'political speech'), mode of discourse (medium of utterances, for example commentary in the newspaper) and tenor of discourse (relationship between addresser and addressee, expressed by degree of formality), on the other.

Nonetheless, according to Hatim & Mason (1990:57), insights provided by register analysis into the communicative dimension are not in themselves sufficient without the pragmatic dimension which 'builds into the analysis values relating to the ability to 'do things with words' (ibid:57) and the third dimension which they have labeled semiotic where a communicative item, including its pragmatic value, is treated as 'a sign within a system of signs' (ibid:57).

2.4.2.2 The Pragmatic Dimension

Pragmatics is defined by Baker as 'the area of language which concerns with the way utterances are used in communicative situations and the way we interpret them in context' (1992:217). This domain of context covers elements of intentionality of a text and deals with factors such as speech acts, interpretation, inference and implicatures,

and relevance. Both implicature and relevance will be discussed in depth in section 4.4.2.3.1 in Chapter 4.

2.4.2.2.1 Intentionality

Intentionality is the third standard of textuality (de Beaugrande and Dressler 1981). It concerns:

> The text producer's attitude that the set of the occurrences should constitute a cohesive and coherent text instrumental in fulfilling the producer's intentions, e.g. to distribute knowledge or to attain a GOAL specified in a PLAN' (*emphasis original*)
>
> (de Beaugrande and Dressler 1981:7)

As claimed by Hatim (2001:32), the success of the level of interaction involving the speaker or hearer with utterances produced or received 'primarily relies on intentionality – the ability to "do things with words", the capacity to deploy one's utterance for a "purpose" (ibid:32). Whatever the purpose – informing, persuading, and criticizing and so on – the text must be produced in a cohesive and coherent way so that it serves the text producer's intention. In an argumentative text, for instance, the text producer would have achieved his goal if the argument put forward is supported by reason and is convincing.

2.4.2.3 The Semiotic Dimension

The semiotic domain of context has an interactive character (Hatim & Mason 1990:101). There are two basic levels of semiotic interactions. The first involves the text producer with a text receiver; and the second refers to the interaction of utterance with utterance (ibid:101). According to Hatim, for rhetorical goals such as 'persuading', 'informing' or

'convincing', among others, to be properly pursued, and for role relationships to stabilize, language users must 'negotiate meanings in texts and thus deal with context more interactively' (2001:27). As Hatim & Mason point out from the perspective of discourse and the translator:

> Seeing the meaning of texts as something which is negotiated between producer and receiver and not as a static entity, independent of human processing activity once it has been encoded, is, we believe, the key to an understanding of translating and judging translations.
>
> (1990: 64-65)

This negotiation between the writer and the reader forms the basis of one level of 'semiotic 'interaction. This involves 'the exchange of meanings as signs between a writer and a reader' (Hatim 2001:27). The semiotic domain of context, then, transforms institutional-communicative transactions into more meaningful interaction. The way in which levels of basic communicativeness (field, mode and tenor) acquire a semiotic specification may be represented diagrammatically as in Figure 2.6:

Field	Ideational	INTERTEXTUALITY	Social processes Social institutions
Mode	Textual		Addresser-Addressee Physical Distance
Tenor	Interpersonal		Power Solidarity

(Source: Hatim 2001:29)

Figure 2.6: The Semiotics of Field, Mode and Tenor

In Hatim's view, a given text or textual element is the product of all three semiotic categories:

> The ideational component captures cultural experience and expresses what goes on in the environment. The textual component provides texture devices which make ideational expression both cohesive and coherent in a given textual environment. Finally, the interpersonal component helps co-communicants to express attitudes and assess what is happening around them.
>
> (Hatim 2001:29)

2.4.2.3.1 Intertextuality

Intertextuality, according to de Beaugrande and Dressler, is 'responsible for the evolution of TEXT TYPES (*emphasis original*) as classes of texts with typical patterns of characteristics' (1981:10). In fact, the term intertextuality is introduced to subsume the ways in which the production and reception of a given text depends upon the participants' knowledge of other texts (ibid:182). In other words, in tandem with the interaction between a writer (and utterances produced) and a reader (and utterances received), another level of semiotic activity emerges to facilitate the interaction of sign with sign. According to Hatim, the principle which regulates this activity is 'intertextuality' through which 'textual occurrences are seen in terms of their dependence on other prior, relevant occurrences' (2001:30). An example given by Hatim (ibid:30) is the language of the exhorter, which is almost a universal code recognized as such. As suggested by Hatim (2001), within this type of linguistic manipulation, 'devices such as emotive repetition and other forms of repetition would be token of a type of occurrence that carries within it traces of its origins wherever and whenever these happen to be' (ibid:30). Hatim suggests that it is 'the ability to perceive and interact with this type of meaning-dependence on context which is a prerequisite for appropriate and efficient communication' (ibid).

In the semiotic domain of context, the complex web of relations moves communication to a slightly higher level than that of writer or reader. Interaction now focuses on how the writer interacts not only with the reader but also with the utterance produced. Similarly, the reader would interact, not only with the writer, but also with the utterance received. In this way, utterances become signs in the semiotic sense of 'meaning something to somebody in some respect or capacity', and 'ultimately embodying the assumptions, presuppositions and conventions that reflect the way a given culture constructs and partitions reality' (Hatim & Munday 2004:84).

As shown in Figure 2.5 (p.33), these three dimensions of context are expressed in a given text by means of *texture*, the combination of lexical and syntactic elements serving a particular rhetorical purpose, such as persuading or informing. Together with the domains of pragmatics which caters for intentionality and semiotic which caters for intertextuality, register 'envelops text and almost causally determines text type, structure and texture' (Hatim 2001:22).

2.4.3 Relevance of Register Analysis to Translation Studies

The approach to language by acknowledging language as text and language as social action embedded in communicative situations by Halliday and his colleagues has provided translation studies with an alternative view. This social theory of language, with its three fold division in field, tenor and mode, and known as the systemic functional model has come to be seen not only as a powerful tool in the classification and analysis of texts but has contributed greatly to the field of translation. Gregory (1980), House (1981, 1997), Blum-Kulka (1986), Hatim & Mason (1990), Baker (1992)

and Nord (2001), have all been influenced by the systemic functional model in their approach to translation studies.

The register membership of a text is seen as an essential part of discourse processing; it involves the reader in a reconstruction of context through an analysis of what has taken place (field), who has participated (tenor), and what medium has been selected for relaying the message (mode). Together with intentionality (covering such pragmatic factors as the force of an utterance), and intertextuality (or how texts as 'signs' conjure up images of other virtual or actual texts), register mediates between language and situations.

Producers and receivers of texts operate within constraints imposed by the particular 'use' to which they put their language (Hatim 2004:25). Studies in register analysis are thus of relevance to translators of all kinds. As aptly pointed out by Gregory (1980: 466), the establishment of register equivalence is 'the major factor in the process of translation' and ' a crucial test of the limits of translatability'**.**

Defining the register membership of a text has come to be considered a prerequisite to successful translation. Consistency of register together with what has been referred to as internal cohesion is what makes a text hang together. According to this view, Mason argues that (2004:30) 'a given language utterance is seen as appropriate to a certain use within a certain cultural context; in a different linguistic and cultural setting, adjustments have to be made'. The translator must try to maintain the situational context by finding the corresponding three components in the target language (BBC World Service 2009:4):

Field: the translator will have to make decisions about what terminology to use, to what extent the writer's context is familiar to the target language reader, and the type of grammatical structures to adopt (active/passive);

Tenor: this variable allows the translator to frame the right choice of register (formal/informal, modern/archaic, technical/non-technical);

Mode: is the way the text is organized (where the information focus lies, what is given and what new information is provided, etc.).

One of the earliest applications of the concept of register to translation is provided by House (1981, 1997), who has shown how the two major text functions (namely ideational: conveying ideas, and interpersonal: relating author, text and reader) are supported by register parameters such as medium and social role relationship, and how on this basis a translation can be judged not just on a semantic match but by the degree of register match or mismatch. For House, a textual profile of the source text, involving register analysis and enhanced by pragmatic theories of language use, is 'the norm against which the quality of the translation text is to be measured' (1997:50).

2.5 Contrastive Text Linguistics and Translation Studies

Contrastive text linguistics is defined by Hatim as:

> An extension on the basic methods of linguistic analysis which show the similarities and differences between two or more languages. Approaching the idea of comparison and contrast from a text perspective entails that the primary object of the analysis becomes stretches of language longer than the sentence. Sequences or utterances are thus seen in terms of certain **Contextual** requirements

> and of the way these are implemented in text **Structure** and **Texture**, across both linguistic and cultural boundaries. (*emphases original*)
>
> (Hatim 2001:215)

Hatim in his book *Communication Across Cultures* (2001) which ventures into meaningfully fusing the literature of translation theory, contrastive linguistics and discourse analysis mentions that according to Reinhard Hartmann, doing discourse analysis without a contrastive base is as incomplete as doing contrastive analysis without a discourse base, and that translation is an optimally appropriate framework within which the entire enterprise of languages in contrast may be usefully dealt with (Hatim, 2001, xiii). The combination of the two perspectives, the contrastive and the textual, for which R.R.K. Hartmann suggests the term 'contrastive textology' (Hatim, 2001: preface) and its application to translation studies, has been carried out by Hatim. He has explored the relevance of contrastive discourse analysis to English and Arabic translation and demonstrated it in his practical teaching.

Hatim points out that in the process of translating, the 'entire system of mother-tongue linguistics as well as rhetorical conventions would bear on the act of textual transfer' (2001: xiii). This is because 'it is not only the mechanical, lower-level vagaries of the linguistic system that concern the translator, but also higher-order considerations of language in use and text in context' (ibid:xiii). As such, Hatim concludes that translation 'can add depth and breadth both to contrastive linguistics and discourse analysis' (ibid:xiii).

Hinds (1983), cited as in Pery-Woodley (1990:150) uses translation to throw light on cross-cultural or linguistic contrast. His data (in Pery-Woodley:150) are the translations

of Japanese newspaper articles into English by the editorial board for the English language version of the newspaper. The articles conform to a very specific Japanese organization framework which requires the intrusion of an unexpected element in the progression of ideas. The Japanese and English versions of the articles are given out to readers of both languages. They are asked to evaluate the articles for unity, focus and coherence. Unity has been glossed as 'logical development and flow of thought', focus as 'staying on the topic without wandering', and coherence as "sticking together" the major part of the writing and the use of transitions' (cited as in Pery-Woodley (1990:150). Hinds(in Pery-Woodley 1990:150) reports a significant difference at the 0.05 level for each dimension, with English-language readers rating the texts low, and Japanese readers high. According to Pery-Woodley, Hinds' effort of looking at linguistic contrast 'at the level of focus and coherence at the same level of generality may be unlikely to yield interesting results with texts emanating from cultures less far apart than the English and the Japanese' (1990:150).

Pery-Woodley's (1990:150) concern is to 'precisely identify features which have a textual function and relate them to micro-and macro-levels of analysis'. In this text-linguistic perspective, Pery-Woodley notes that contrastive research seems to hold especially rich potential :

> Text-linguistic contrastive research-homing in on precise textual elements within a non-simplistic concept of textual communication should sharpen the general understanding of how texts are perceived to 'hang together', as well as increase the knowledge of devices used by different linguistic/cultural groups as signals or markers of textual coherence.
>
> (1990: 150)

Regent (1985) sets out to compare French and English tokens of a heavily constrained specialized discourse type, namely medical research articles. She looks at iconic

characteristics, discursive sequences which include descriptive, interpretative and evaluative and specific types of speech acts. She finds that there are considerable differences between the French and English texts, with English articles taking a more argumentative line than the French texts, which seem more data-oriented.

Enkvist (1984) as cited in Pery-Woodley (1990:149) attempts to define a general framework for contrastive discourse analysis. He reviewed four major types of text models from text and discourse: linguistics-sentence based, predication based, cognitive, and interactional. At the end of his study, he proposes an integrative approach to the studies of contrastive word-order, 'an avenue towards resolving the tensions between canonical forms such as those of language typologies, and the variation that we actually find in texts' (in Pery-Woodley 1990:149). According to Enkvist (in Pery-Woodley 1990:149), the ultimate syntactic form of a sentence is seen as 'the outcome of a process which is a resultant of different, often opposing forces', and where a text's job is 'to trigger off a successful interpretive process'. Enkvist (in Pery-Woodley 1990:149) while analyzing the resumptive particles in Swedish and Finnish, emphasized 'the receptor- orientated strategies of the person producing the text'. Pery-Wodley, in reviewing Enkvist's study of these 'processing signals', has this to say, 'a contrastive study of these processing signals strikes me as having considerable potential for helping non-native speakers become more resourceful and efficient language users' (1990:149).

Wong Fook Koon (1990) adopted the text analysis approach in her contrastive study on English and Malay to find out the extent Malay and English differ in terms of the formal cohesive devices deployed and manipulated by contextual factors to bring about a flow of information through a linguistic sequence. By using translation as a tool for contrastive analysis, she provided interesting insights into the language systems

analyzed at two levels: first, at the level of examining the constituent parts that make up the sentences and the text; second, at the actual level of translation by putting together of the units analyzed by reformulating the text in the target language.

2.5.1 Contrastive Textual Analysis and Translations

Soshana Blum-Kulka introduced the phrase 'explicitation hypothesis' in her paper *Shifts of Cohesion and Coherence in Translation* (1986). By contrastive textual analysis of non-fictional and fictional English-French and English-French and English-Hebrew translations, two types of shifts namely shifts in cohesion and shifts in coherence are exemplified.

In her paper, Blum-Kulka outlines a theoretical and empirical framework for the study of translation within the traditions of discourse analysis and communication studies. The approach used is developed theoretically by postulating a distinction between two types of meaning relationships on the discoursal level, namely cohesion and coherence. Cohesion is viewed as 'an overt textual relationship holding between parts of a text', while coherence is defined as 'text's covert meaning potential, made overt by the process of interpretation' (Blum-Kulka 1986:17).

Blum-Kulka claims that the process of translation often leads to shifts of both cohesion and coherence. On the level of cohesion, shifts in types of cohesive markers used in translation seem to affect translations in one or both of the following directions:

a. Shifts in levels of explicitness; i.e. the general level of the target texts' textual explicitness is higher or lower than that of the source text.

b. Shifts in text meaning(s);i.e. the explicit and implicit meaning potential of the source text changes through translations.

(Blum-Kulka 1986:18)

Blum-Kulka (ibid:18) cites Halliday and Hasan (2001) that 'the overt cohesive relationships between parts of the text are necessarily linked to a language's grammatical system'. For instance, in English-French translation, gender specification may make the French text more explicit then the English. Other shifts of cohesive markers are attributed to different stylistic preferences for certain types of cohesive markers in different languages. For example, in English-Hebrew translation, preference for lexical repetition rather than pronominalization may make the Hebrew text more explicit (1986:19). However, Blum-Kulka notes that it is the process of translation itself, rather than any specific differences between particular languages, which bears the major part of the responsibility for explicitation:

> The process of interpretation performed by the translator on the source text might lead to a TL text which is more redundant than the SL text. This redundancy can be expressed by a rise in the level of cohesive explicitness in the TL text. This argument may be stated as "*the explicitation hypothesis*", which postulates an observed cohesive explicitness from SL to TL texts regardless of the increase traceable to differences between the two linguistic and textual systems involved. It follows that explicitation is viewed here as inherent in the process of translation**.**
>
> (Blum-Kulka 1986:19)

Apart from shifts in levels of explicitness, Blum-Kulka (ibid:21) cites Halliday and Hasan (2001) that cohesion ties do much more than provide continuity and create the semantic unity of the text. The types of cohesive markers used in a particular text can

'affect the texture (as being "loose" or "dense") as well as the style and meaning of the text' (ibid:21).

Shifts in coherence, on the other hand, are viewed as either reader-based or text-based. As far as the first category is concerned, Blum-Kulka (ibid:24) cites Fillmore (1981) that during the process of reading, a kind of environment of the text occurs in the reader's mind. This 'envisionment of the text' vary with individual readers and with different types of audiences. When it comes to translation, these shifts are essentially unavoidable, as different cultural background and reference network are involved (ibid:26).

Text-based shifts, claims Blum-Kulka,

> …often occur as a result of particular choices made by a specific translator, a choice that indicate a lack of awareness on the translator's part to the SL text meaning potential. In part, text-based shifts of coherence are linked to well-known differences between linguistic systems…the most serious shift occur not due to the differences as such, but because the translator failed to realize the functions a particular linguistic system, or a particular form plays in conveying indirect meanings in a text
>
> (1986:28)

The paper concludes with a plea for a change in orientation in the study of translation, arguing for an empirical psycholinguistic approach to investigating translation processes and effects.

Consistent with Blum-Kulka's observations, Vanderauwera's (1985) detailed review of translation issues based on a number of Dutch novels published in English during the mid-twentieth century points to numerous instances where a translator applies

explicitation techniques. For example, expansion of condensed passages, addition of modifiers, qualifiers and conjunctions to achieve greater transparency, insertion of explanations, repetition of previously mentioned details for the purpose of clarity and the disambiguation of pronouns with precise forms of identification (1985).

Seguinot, however, argues that the definition for 'explicitation hypothesis' given by Blum-Kulka is too narrow because 'explicitness does not necessarily mean redundancy' (1988:108). She points out that 'the greater number of words in French translation, for example, can be explained by well-documented differences in the stylistics of English and French' (ibid). Seguinot is of the view that 'explicitation' should be reserved for additions which cannot be explained by structural, stylistic or rhetorical differences between the two languages. In addition, it is not the only device for explicitation. Seguinot notes that explicitation takes place not only when 'something is expressed in the translation, which was not in the original' (ibid), but also in cases where 'something which was implied or understood through presupposition in the source text is overtly expressed in the translation, or an element in the source text is given a greater importance in the translation through focus, emphasis, or lexical choice' (ibid).

In examining translations from English into French and from French into English, Seguinot finds greater explicitness in non-obligatory connectives, resulting from improved topic-comment links and the raising of subordinate information into coordinate or principal structures (ibid:109). In both her articles (1988, 1989), Seguinot suggests that the increase in explicitness in both cases can be explained not by structural or stylistic differences between the two languages, but by the editing strategies: 'somewhere in the translation process a form of editing is taking place'. The term 'editing' is used to show 'the similarity of the filtering process that goes on as

information is being understood and adjustments are made for the audience of the target text, and changes made in the revision of writing' (1989:30).

Support for a version of the explicitation hypothesis may be found in Vehmas-Letho's study (quoted as in Klaudy, 2004), which compares the frequency of connective elements in Finnish journalistic texts translated from Russian with their frequency in texts in the same genre, originally written in Finnish. Vehmas-Letho (Klaudy, 2004:82) finds that the Finnish translations are more explicit than the texts originally written in Finnish. Therefore, it is possible that the 'explicitation strategies inherent in the translation process cause translated texts in a given genre to be more explicit than texts of that genre originally composed in the source language' (ibid).

Kinga Klaudy (1993) came up with a typology of the different kinds of additions found in the translations from Russian and English into Hungarian and vice versa. She has also evaluated some issues of the explicitation hypothesis introduced by Blum-Kulka (1986). Three types of additions are discussed, namely obligatory additions, optional additions and pragmatic additions. In another article (Klaudy, 2004), four types of explicitation have been discussed: obligatory explicitation, optional explicitation, pragmatic explicitation and translation inherent explicitation.

According to Klaudy, obligatory addition or obligatory explicitation is dictated by the structural differences between languages and the analytic or synthetic character of languages. For example, as there is no definite article in Russian, translation from Russian into English, which uses definite articles prolifically, will involve numerous additions, as will translation from the preposition-free Hungarian into languages such as Russian and English, which use prepositions (ibid:83). As pointed out by Klaudy,

‘syntactic and semantic explicitations are obligatory because without them target-language sentences would be ungrammatical’ (ibid).

Optional additions, on the other hand, notes Blum-Kulka, are necessary not for the correct sentence but for the correct text. Optional additions are for example addition of connective elements for the improvement of the cohesion links at the beginning of sentences or clauses, or the addition of emphasizers for improving topic-comment relations in the middle of the sentences. According to Klaudy, they are optional in the sense that grammatically correct sentences can be constructed without their application in the target language, although the text as a whole will be clumsy and unnatural.

In her three language corpuses, Klaudy (1993) conclude that the only type of addition which is really derived from the translation process is pragmatic additions. Klaudy (2004:83) cites Pym(1993) that pragmatic explicitations are dictated by differences between cultures: ‘members of the target language cultural community may not share aspects of what is considered general knowledge within the source language culture and, in such cases, translators often need to include explanations in translations’. Examples cited by Klaudy are names of villages and rivers, or of items of food and drink which are well known to the source language community but totally unknown to the target language audience. One particular example mentioned by Klaudy is this: instead of *Maros* and *Ferto,* the translator chose to use ‘the river Maros’ and ‘Lake Ferto’ (ibid).

Though some scholars consider obligatory additions as not a very interesting part of the explicitation hypothesis, Klaudy argues that they are still worth mentioning because independent of their obligatory character, a translated text will indeed become more explicit than the original. According to Klaudy, analytic noun and verb phrases, beside

their inherent explicitness, will influence also the general explicitness of the text (1993:75).

Optional explicitation or additions are not only dictated by the structural but also by the textual and rhetorical differences between two languages. They are excluded from the explicitation devices by Seguinot (1988) but accepted by Blum-Kulka (1986). Seguinot draws a distinction between 'choices that can be accounted for in the language system, and choices that come about because of the nature of the translation process' (1988:18). Klaudy (1993:75) is of the view that some of those textually-based optional additions can be explained by text linguistics where some of them are regarded as part of the editing strategy with the aim of helping the reader understand the translated text. Like Blum-Kulka, Klaudy is convinced that textually-based optional additions are very important for the explicitation hypothesis. By excluding them, we will lose a very fruitful area of research.

If translation-inherent explicitation can be attributed to the nature of the translation process, what Klaudy terms as pragmatic addition or explicitation may well be explained by the nature of the translation process. Klaudy (1993:76) is of the view that since pragmatic additions do not really influence the number of words in translation in a statistically significant way, and as they reflect the endless variety of differences between contrasted worlds (and not languages), they are not very apt for systematic description. Klaudy (ibid) concludes that obligatory, optional and pragmatic additions are equally interesting for the explicitation hypothesis, because they all influence the general explicitness of the target text.

Klaudy (2004:84) argues that though explicitations and implicitations, or additions and omissions are intertwined in the process of translation, the tendency towards explicitation is always stronger than the tendency towards implicitation. The explicitation hypothesis can be tested by large-scale empirical studies of inter-languages produced by various groups, from language learners to non-professional and professional translators (Blum-Kulka 1986: 19, Klaudy 2004:84). Crucial quantitative evidence can be expected from the use of computerized corpora, especially parallel and comparable corpora (Baker 1993, 1997).

Baker (1992) has put together the linguistic and communicative approach in exploring the notion of 'equivalence' (a term she claimed was used for the 'sake of convenience') at different levels to the translation process. Apart from equivalence that appears at word level and above word level and grammatical equivalence which refers to the diversity of grammatical categories across languages, Baker also discusses 'textual equivalence' which involve information flow in the ST and TT, and the cohesive roles ST and TT devices play in their respective texts.

In terms of cohesion, Baker emphasizes that every language has its own devices for establishing cohesive links and in the process of translation, language and text-type preferences must both be taken into consideration (ibid:190). Baker stresses that the overall level of cohesion vary from language to language. For instance, in terms of the use of reference, there is more frequent use of third person pronoun in English compared to that of Japanese and Chinese. Baker notes that in both Japanese and Chinese, pronouns are hardly used; and once a participant is introduced, 'continuity of reference is signaled by omitting the subject in the following clauses' (ibid:185). In discussing the use of conjunctions, Baker notes that there is a relatively small number of

conjunctions used in Arabic, and in many cases, readers will have to infer relationships which are only vaguely alluded to by the writer because every conjunction has a wide range of meanings; the correct interpretation depends very much on the context involved (ibid:193).

Baker also examines coherence and implicature, both of which she collectively calls 'pragmatic equivalence'. Baker explored Grice's Co-operative Principle, in particular his theory of implicature and its general relevance to translation. Grice (1975) uses the term implicature to refer to what the speaker means or implies rather than what he literally says. According to Baker, like the spoken exchanges, in written text they are aspects of meaning which are 'over and above the literal and conventional meaning of an utterance'. An interpretation of an implicature depends 'on recognition of the Cooperative Principle and its maxim' (Baker 1992: 227). Apart from the Co-operative Principles and its maxim, Baker has also shown how mistranslation of words and misinterpretation of the structures in the source text has seriously affected the calculability of implicatures in the target text and caused the lost of a whole layer of meaning, resulting in what Blum-Kulka (1986) refers to as a 'shift in coherence' (1992: 253).

2.6 Conclusion

The above review attempts to provide a brief discussion on the richness of the field of translation and its interdisciplinary nature. Attempt by Hatim & Mason to include the domains of pragmatics and semiotics into their model of context to account for the multi-functional nature of text has also been revised. Finally, the literature on contrastive text linguistics and Translation Studies, especially the 'explicitation

hypothesis' introduced by Blum-Kulka (1986) and later explored and studied by various other linguists has been reviewed. In the following chapter, the theoretical aspect of text type, text-structure and its relevance to translation especially the translation of argumentative texts will be presented.

CHAPTER 3

TEXT TYPE, TEXT STRUCTURE AND TRANSLATION

3.1 Introduction

Discussion on the significance of a text's macro structure in the process, and towards the resulting translation has been gaining momentum, giving rise to an increasing number of researchers in this field. In effect, this reflects not just the attention among those involved or interested in translation, but also points to the changing, and ever-changing scenario of text classification which has led to prolific discussion over time. As such, it is essential to first explore major approaches in text classification, text hierarchic organization and its relevance to translation, before zooming in onto the argumentative text, which is the selected text type for this research. From this point on, the focus will be on the instinctive conceptual and linguistic characteristics of the argumentative texts using notions and insights from Hatim and Mason's model (1990; see also Hatim 2001).

3.2 Text Classification

As the German theorist Nord (2001:38) observes: 'Text type classifications sharpen the translator's awareness of linguistic markers of communicative function and functional translation units'. However, it has long been the subject of debate in Translation Studies if classifying texts is at all feasible or indeed useful for 'practical' translators.

In fact, the issue of text types poses 'a severe challenge to LINGUISTIC TYPOLOGY, i.e. systemization and classification of language samples' (de Beaugrande & Dressler

1981:182). Two problems are identified with the kind of text typologies currently available. First, the notion of text type is of such a wide scope that it can subsume a huge array of text-form variants. In one study, for example, the text type 'instruction' is shown to include 'genres' as varied as Acts of Parliament, technical instructions, political speeches, sermons and advertisements (Zydatiss 1983). Second, the hybridization nature of text presents itself with a problem. Understandably, texts are expected to have certain traits for certain purposes. The major difficulty in this new domain, however, is that '*many actualized instances do not manifest complete or exact characteristics of an ideal type'* (de Beaugrande & Dressler 1981:183; italics original). For example, an instruction manual may include conceptual exposition and description as well as instruction.

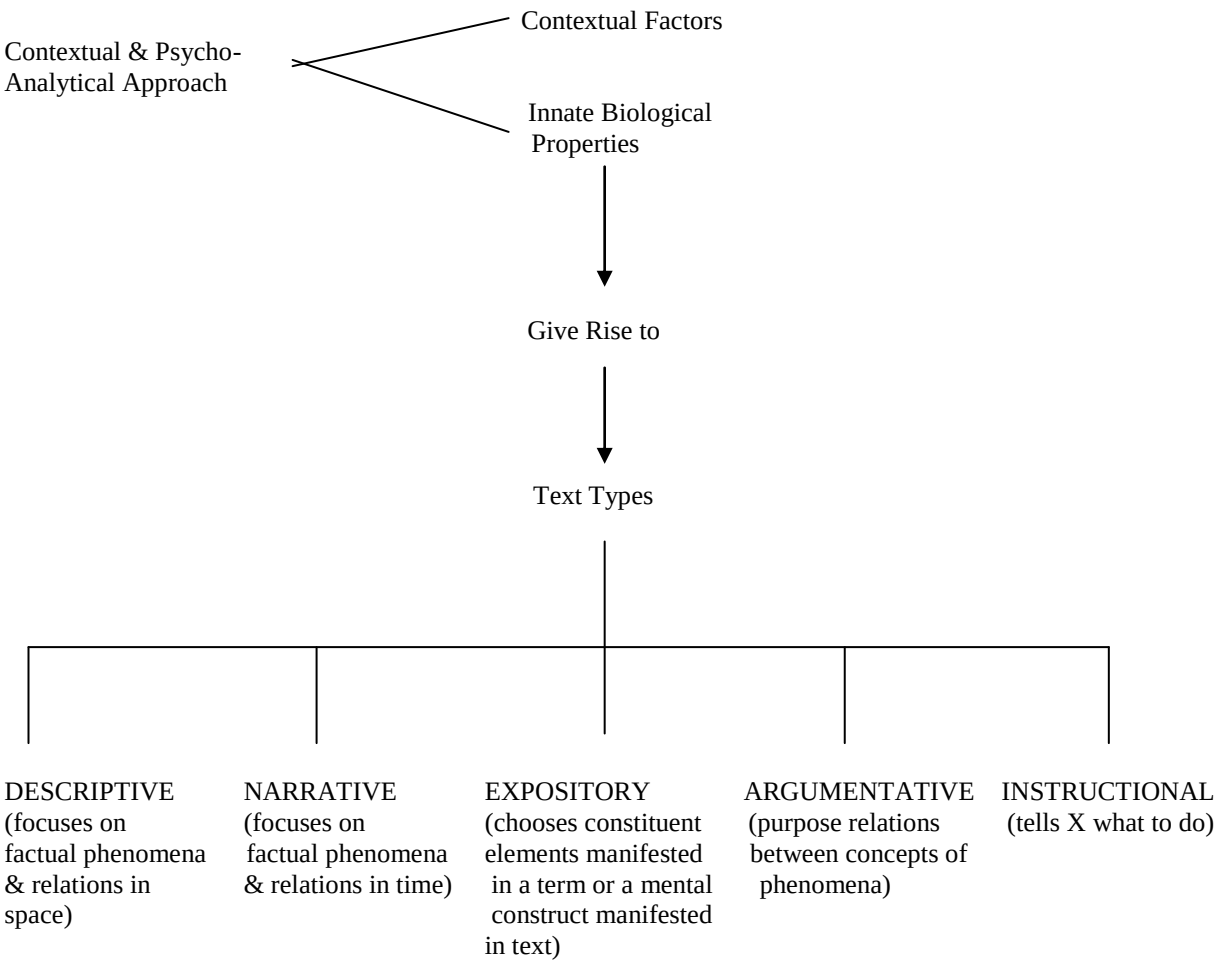
Text type and the problems pertaining to it have drawn the attention of many linguists and rhetoricians, among them Werlich (1976), Newmark (1988), de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981), Hatim (1987, 1997) and Hatim & Mason (1990) among others. The linguists mentioned have proposed different definitions to the notion of text type, because they have worked on different aspects of the subject matter, and hence, are varied in terms of how they focus on a particular text. However, their approaches have not been developed in a relatively independent manner.

In what follows, taking into consideration that text should be understood within their specific context (Hatim & Mason 1990, Hatim 1997, Hatim & Munday 2004, Shiyab 2006), an overview of the different approaches to the classification of text types proposed by Werlich (1976), de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981); and Hatim & Mason (1990) is carried out.

3.2.1 Text Categorization by Werlich (1976/1983)

Werlich (1976) identified five idealized text types based on the cognitive and rhetorical properties of a piece of text. The five types are: description, narration, exposition, argumentation and instruction. These text types have been adapted by Hatim and Mason (1990, see also Hatim 2001) for translation purposes. Shiyab (2006) sums up Werlich's text categorization in Diagram 1, as follows:

Diagram 1: The Interpretation of Text Categorization According to Werlich (1983)



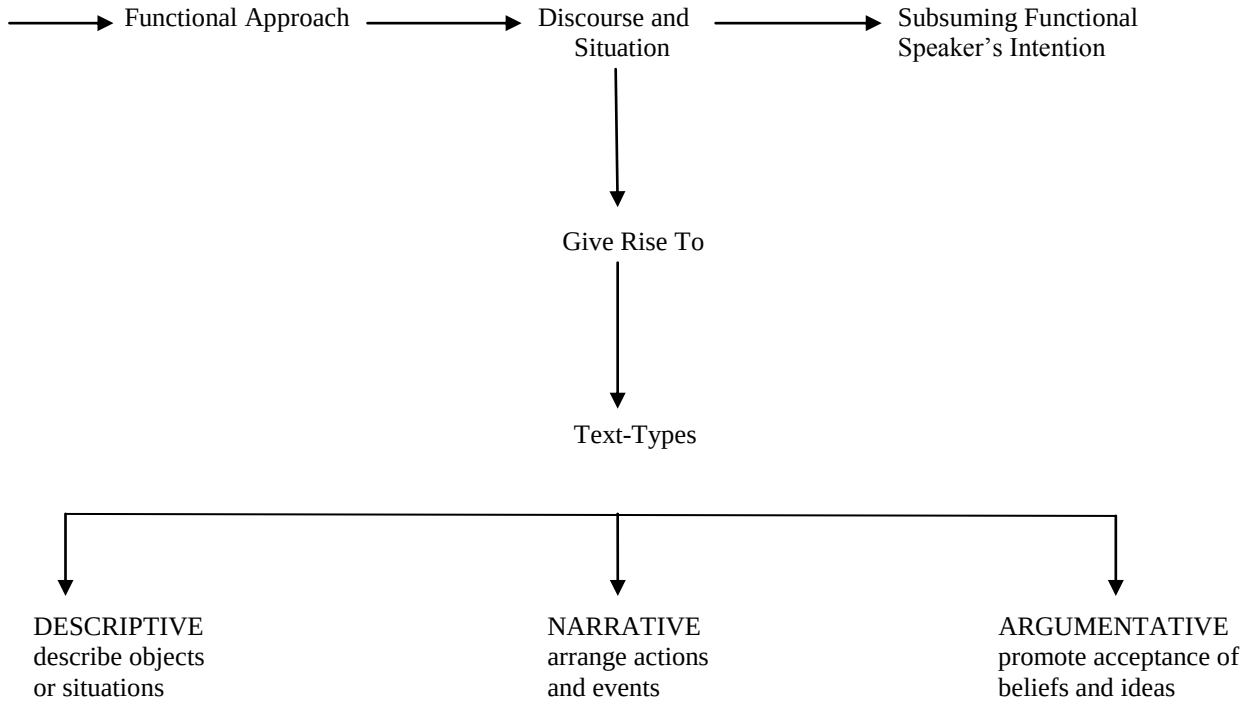
(Source: Shiyab Said M., 2006:72)

Werlich's typology is based on cognitive properties of text types: differentiation and interrelation of perceptions in space (description), differentiation and interrelation of perception in time (narration), comprehension of general concepts through differentiation by analysis and/or by synthesis (exposition), evaluation of relations between and among concepts (argumentation) and planning of future behaviour (instruction). According to Shiyab (2006:72), Werlich looks at text types as 'a linguistic process occurring in the communicant's mind – a process that includes psycho-analytic approaches such as judging, planning and comprehension'.

3.2.2 Text Categorization by Beaugrande and Dressler (1981)

Unlike Werlich, pioneers in text linguistics for instance de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) identified text types along 'functional lines', that is text, or rather, language function. They define the notion of text as 'a set of heuristics for producing, predicting, and processing textual occurrences, and hence acts as a prominent determiner of efficiency, effectiveness, and appropriateness' (ibid:186). They classified texts into three types: descriptive, narrative and argumentative. They believe that text types are supposed to perform specific and intended functions and in so doing contribute to the process of human and social communication. Shiyab (2006) sums up de Beaugrande's text categorization in Diagram 2, as follows:

Diagram 2: The Interpretation of Text Categorization According to de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981)



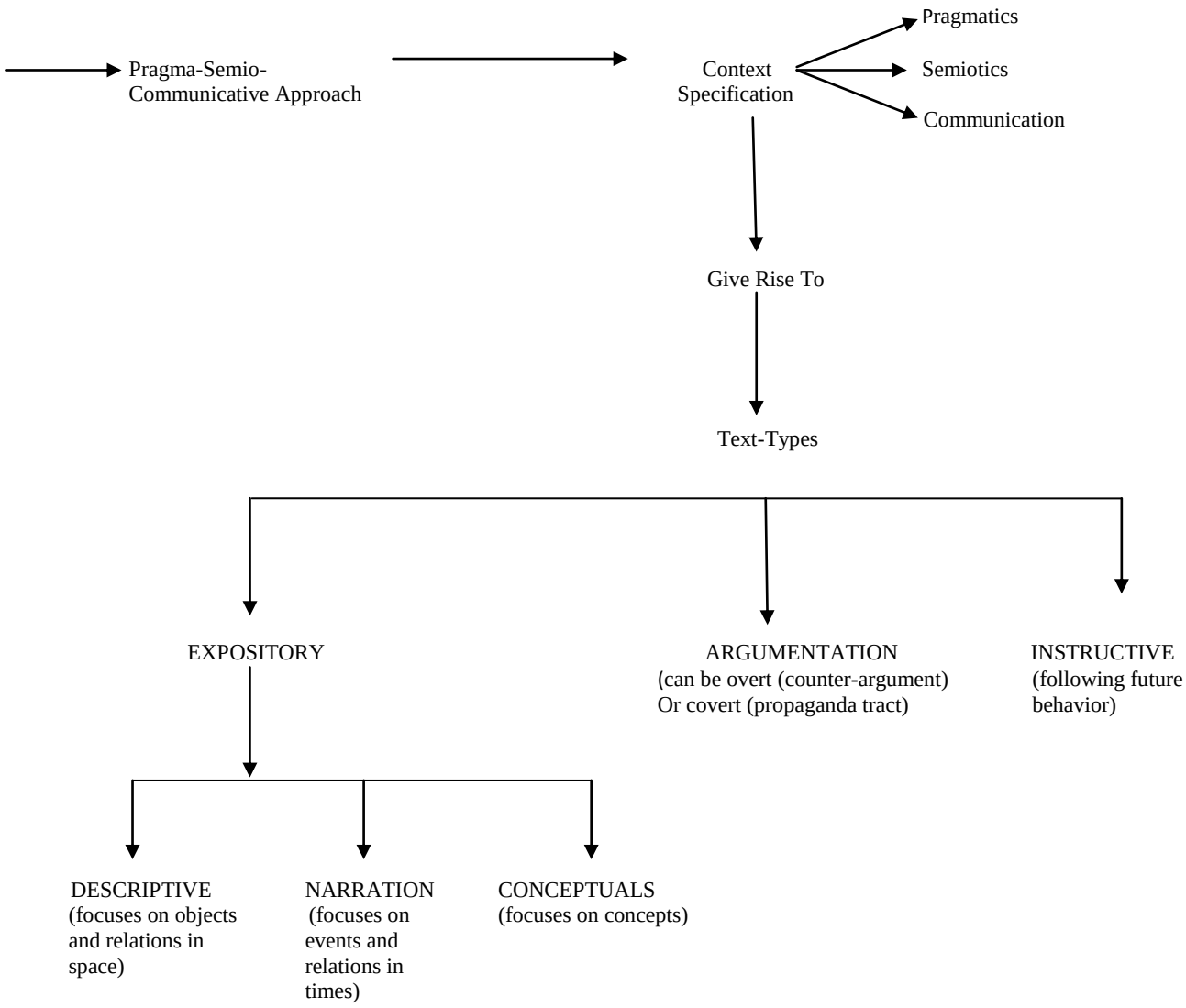
(Source: Shiyab Said M., 2006:71)

3.2.3 Text Categorization by Hatim (1984)

In the mid-1980s, Hatim & Mason (1990, see also Hatim 2001), proposed what they claimed to be a comprehensive model of translation – one grounded in the notions of text type categorized by previous linguists Werlich (1976) and Beaugrande and Dressler (1981). Text type is defined by Hatim & Mason as 'a conceptual framework which enables us to classify texts in terms of communicative intentions serving an overall rhetorical purpose' (1990:140). Rhetorical purpose is defined as 'the overall intention of a text producer, as instantiated by the function of a text, e.g. to narrate, to counter-argue' (ibid:243).

As Hatim and Mason (1990:138) point out, classifying texts according to situational criteria such as "field of discourse" alone amounts to little more than a statement of subject matter'; texts descriptions such as 'journalistic' or 'scientific' are not of much help. Using English/Arabic/French as data, they have developed their own text-type model of the translation process (1990, Hatim, 2001). Shiyab (2006) sums up Hatim's text categorization in Diagram 3:

Diagram 3: The Interpretation of Text Categorization According to Hatim (1984)



(Source: Shiyab Said M. 2006:72)

According to Shiyab (2006:69), one obvious difference between Werlich's approach and Hatim's is the notion of 'context specification'. Hatim takes context as an alternative to the commonly adopted notion of 'register' (see Chapter 2, Section 2.4.1). According to Hatim, the explanation and analysis of the notion 'register' is very important but not sufficiently adequate for discourse processing (see also Hatim & Munday 2004:78). In his attempt to expand the notion of register analysis within a model of discourse processing using the view of language as social semiotics put forward by Halliday and his colleagues, as well as contributions made to the science of texts by text linguists such as Beaugrande and Dressler, Hatim (2001, Hatim & Mason 1990, Hatim & Munday 2004) added two other domains of contextual activity within the theory of register. These two domains are pragmatics which caters to intentionality and semiotics which caters to intertextuality (see Chapter 2, section 2.4.2). Hatim proposes that within the three domains of pragmatic, semiotic and the institutional communication dimensions of context, register 'envelops text and almost causally determines text-type, structure and texture' (2001:22).

It is evident that there is a clear resemblance between Hatim's text typology and that of de Beaugrande and Dressler. According to Shiyab, Hatim is partially concerned with the fact that 'textlinguistics involves the setting up of a text typology in which language is classified in terms of text communicative purposes' (ibid:73). Diagram 2 and Diagram 3 sum up Hatim's as well as de Beaugrande and Dressler's 'text producer and text receiver approach' to texts by reacting and interacting with different kinds of contexts through 'a process of construction which identified a number of contextual variables called context-specifications that involve pragmatics, semiotics, and communicative purpose' (ibid).

3.3 Text Hybridization and Text Type Focus

Hatim (1997, 2001; see also Hatim & Mason 1990, Hatim & Munday 2004) insists that a text can only account for its predominant tendency, that is, at any time a text can only serve one predominant rhetorical purpose. Hatim & Mason (1990) argue that any attempt to work out a text typology will have to address the phenomena of 'text hybridization' and the essentially 'fuzzy' nature of text types. For Hatim & Mason the real text will display features of more than one type. These two linguists note that since 'multifunctionality is the rule rather than the exception, any useful typology of texts will have to be able to accommodate such diversity' (1990:138). The fact that a text displays features of more than one type means there is always a shift from one typology focus to another. As such, text purposes may only be viewed in terms of 'dominances' of a given purpose or contextual focus as pointed out by de Beaugrande and Dressler:

> Some traditionally established text types could be defined along FUNCTIONAL lines, i.e. according to the contributions of texts to human interaction. We would at least be able to identify some DOMINANCES, though without obtaining a strict categorization for every conceivable example…In many texts, we would find a mixture of the descriptive, narrative, and argumentative function. (emphases original)
>
> (1981:184)

The recognition of functional criteria has shed some useful light on the classification of texts. In other words, as pointed out by Hatim (2004:264), it has 'made possible an appreciation of the fact that texts are essentially hybrids and that, ultimately, text typology can only account for predominant tendencies'.

Werlich, too, has discussed the dominant contextual focus of a text:

> Texts distinctively correlate with the contextual factors in a communication situation. They conventionally focus the addressee's attention only on specific factors and circumstances from the whole set of factors. Accordingly texts can be grouped together and generally classified on the basis of their *dominant contextual focus.* (emphasis mine)
>
> (1976:19)

The concept of *dominant contextual focus* suggested by Werlich helps to resolve some of the problems inherent in the multifunctionality of text. Though multifunctionality is recognized as an important property of texts, as aptly pointed out by Hatim & Mason (1990:146): 'only one predominant rhetorical purpose can be served at one time in a given text. This is the text's *dominant contextual focus*. Other purposes may well be present, but they are in fact subsidiary to the overall function of the text' (*emphasis mine*).

Hatim's (2001) own analysis of a variety of text types involving a sizeable sample of actual texts has clearly shown that no text can serve two equally predominant functions at one and the same time. By the same token, no text can be sustained by two subsidiary functions without one of these somehow becoming predominant. For texts to function efficiently, the duality of function together with the 'subsidiary' issue must always be borne in mind. In the words of Beaugrande and Dressler (1981:186), text type is only: 'a set of heuristics for producing, predicting and processing textual occurrences, and hence acts as a prominent determiner of efficiency, effectiveness and appropriateness'. For this heuristic to be used as an adequate determiner of the viability of texts, a number of organizing principles must be recognized , and one of these is inevitably the notion of the 'predominance' or the 'subsidiary' of a given text function.

Based on the above-mentioned 'dominant contextual focus', Hatim & Mason (1990, Hatim 1997) have gone further than de Beaugrande and Werlich to work out their own text typology. Apparently Hatim & Mason have modified Werlich's model by reducing the number of text types from five to three: 'descriptive' and 'narrative' have been put under 'expository texts' due to the fact that both exhibit similar information. A new sub-text type, the so-called 'conceptual text' which focuses on concepts has been introduced by these two linguists and is also placed under the expository category.

In the following section, a more detailed discussion will be carried out on the three basic text types proposed by Hatim & Mason and special attention will be given to argumentative texts.

3.3.1 The Three Basic Text-types According to Hatim & Mason

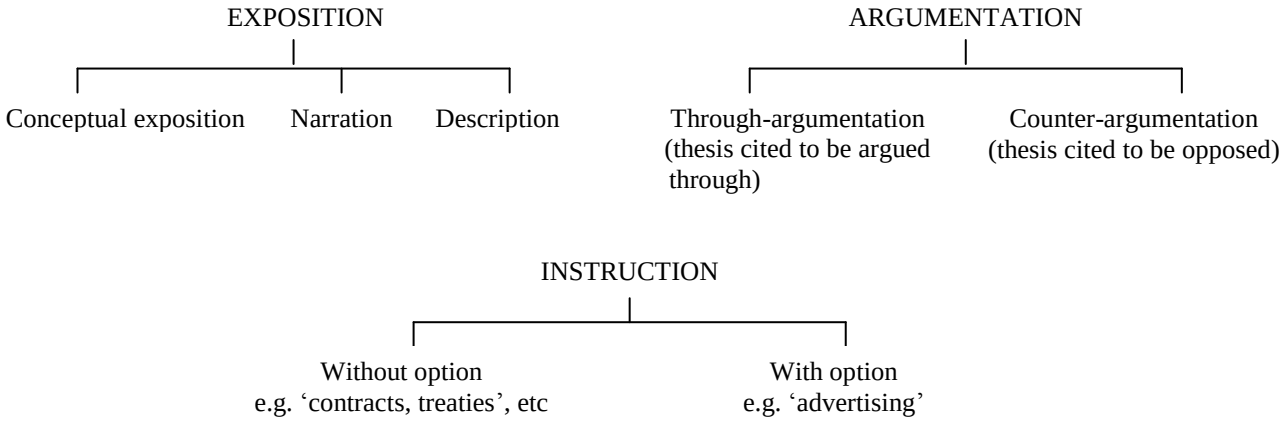
Taking into consideration the hybrid nature of text, Hatim & Mason (1990, Hatim, 2001), propose a text-type model with a view of context which is broad enough to accommodate communicative use-user distinctions, pragmatic notions such as intentionality, and semiotic categories such as genre and discourse (see Chapter 2, Figure 2.5, p.33). Intertextuality ensures that the various domains of context are in constant interaction, ultimately leading to the emergence of text types where 'an utterance within a sequence of utterances would be described as a series of semiotic "signs" pragmatically "intended" by someone to "communicate" something to someone, sometime, somewhere' (Hatim 2001:36, Hatim & Mason 1990:139).

In the process where various domains of context interact with one another, a text type focus or the predominantly rhetorical purpose slowly emerges: either to 'monitor' or

'manage' a situation. De Beaugrande & Dressler define these two terms in the following way:

> If the dominant function of a text is to provide a reasonably unmediated account of the situation model, SITUATION MONITORING is being performed. If the dominant function is to guide the situation in a manner favorable to the text producer's goals. SITUATION MANAGEMENT is being carried out. (emphases original)
>
> (1981:163)

Recognizing the broad distinction between texts which set out to 'monitor' a situation – where the focus is on providing a reasonably detached account; and texts which set out to 'manage' a situation – where the dominant function of the text is to guide the situation in a manner favorable to the text producer's goals, Hatim (2001, see also Hatim & Mason 1990) proposed three basic text types and sub-types which can be represented schematically as in Figure 3.1:



(Source: Hatim 2001:39)

Figure 3.1: The Three Basic Text Types

The three major categories shown above are arrived at by assigning to each a particular rhetorical purpose or the dominant contextual focus of the text: exposition, argumentation and instruction. Each of these major types contains two or three sub-types which results in seven text types.

3.3.1.1 The Expository Text Type

The expository text type focuses on the analysis of concepts. According to Hatim & Mason (1990:155), two important variants of conceptual exposition are descriptive and narrative texts. In place of 'concepts', descriptions handle 'objects' or 'situations', while narrative texts arrange 'actions' and 'events' in a particular order. Hatim notes that whereas descriptive and narrative texts are generally easily recognizable, delineation in other cases are more difficult to draw. What is of importance here is the delineation of the characteristics of the argumentative text, especially the 'through-argument' variant and conceptual exposition.

Hatim & Mason (1990) noted two obvious distinctions between argumentative text and conceptual exposition. Firstly, in argumentation, the focus is on what is known as 'situation managing', i.e. the dominant function of the text is 'to manage or steer the situation in a manner favorable to the text producer's goal' (Hatim & Mason 1990:155). In conceptual exposition, the focus is on providing a detached account. Secondly, in an argumentative text, the 'topic sentence' sets 'the tone' of the text and must be substantiated; whereas in a conceptual exposition, it sets 'the scene' and must be expounded. Thus, in distinguishing these two features, the tendency of tone-setters is to display features such as comparison, judgement, and other markers of evaluative texture;

whereas the scene setter exposes various aspects of the scene being introduced to be expounded (ibid:156).

3.3.1.2 The Instructional Text Type

According to Hatim & Mason (1990:157), like argumentative texts, the focus of the instructional text type is on the formation of future behavior. There are two types of identified sub-types: instruction with option, as in advertising or consumer advice; and instruction without option, for instance in contracts or treaties. Though both instructional and argumentative text types focus on 'managing' a situation, the means of achieving such an aim are different. Argumentative texts attempt to 'evaluate' through persuasion with option, for example, in advertising and propaganda; instructional texts attempt to 'regulate' through instruction without option, for instance, in contracts or treaties (Hatim 2001:38).

3.3.1.3 The Argumentative Text Type

An argumentative text is defined by de Beaugrande and Dressler as:

> Those utilized to promote the acceptance or evaluation of certain beliefs or ideas as true vs. false, or positive vs. negative. Conceptual relations such as reason, significance, volition, value and opposition should be frequent. The surface text will always show cohesive devices for emphasis and insistence, e.g. recurrence, parallelism and paraphrase…
>
> (1981:184)

Evaluativeness predominates in argumentative texts, realized by cohesive devices mentioned by de Beaugrande and Dressler, namely recurrence, parallelism and

paraphrase. The dominant function of an argumentative text is to manage or steer the situation, guiding the readers in a manner favorable to the text producer's goals (de Beaugrande & Dressler 1981, Hatim & Mason 1990, Hatim 1997). It attempts to persuade the readers that the writer's opinion is 'worth given a hearing' and 'can be held by a reasonable person' (Stubbs et. al. 2006:73).

Within the text-typology proposed by Hatim & Mason (together and separately), two variants of argumentation may be distinguished:

> (1) Through-argumentation. This is initiated by stating a viewpoint to be argued through. There is no explicit reference to an adversary. Diagrammatically, it can be represented as in Figure 3.2:

|--Thesis to be supported

|--Substantiation

|--Conclusion

(Source: Hatim 2001:39)

Figure 3.2: Through-argumentation

> (2) Counter-argumentation. According to Hatim (2001:40), counter-argumentation is initiated by a selective summary of someone else's viewpoint, followed by a counter-claim, a substantiation outlining the grounds of the opposition, and finally, a conclusion. This configuration may be diagrammatically represented as in Figure 3.3:

|--Thesis cited to be opposed

|--Opposition

|--Substantiation of counter-claim

|--Conclusion

(Source: Hatim 2001:40)

Figure 3.3: Counter-argumentation

Furthermore, Hatim (2001:40-41) distinguished two sub-types within counter-argumentation: first, the balance argument where the text producer has the option of signaling the contrastive shift between what may be viewed as a claim and counter-claim either explicitly by using an explicit adversative conjunction like 'but' or 'however', or implicitly where the counter-claim is anticipated by an explicit concessive like 'while', 'although' or 'despite' (ibid:41).

3.4 Argumentative Texts in Focus

According to Hatim & Mason (1990, Hatim 2001), comparative research in argumentation from a cross-cultural perspective is still at its early stage of development. Nonetheless, Hatim (2001: 47-53), through his personal experience and research in the field of argumentative texts, has detected a noticeable tendency in English towards the use of counter-argumentation compared to through argumentation especially the use of the implicit and explicit balance type. Arabic, however, observed Hatim, prefers the kind of argumentation in which 'the arguer either advocates or condemns a given stance without making any direct concession to a belief entertained by an adversary' (ibid:53).

The counter-argumentative text format is a well-established textual phenomenon in English (Hatim & Mason 1990, Hatim 2001) as well as in Chinese (Sun Zupei 孙 祖 培 1986). Intertextually, it is so deep-rooted that the phrase '*of course'* or 当然 (of course) serves as a reliable indicator of subsequent development of a text: a concession in argument, followed by an opposing view which is then argued through with substantiations.

The full text structure of counter-argumentation in English and Chinese is identical and consists of the following obligatory and optional elements (Hatim 2001, Hatim & Mason 1990; Sun Zupei 孙 祖 培 1986).

- (Introduction)
- Thesis cited
- Opposition
- Substantiation
- (Conclusion)

3.4.1 The Characteristics of an Argumentative Text

Argumentative texts have been widely viewed as a fairly important type of writing, given its role as a vehicle of persuasive strategy. In general terms, the argumentative text type has a contextual focus on the evaluation of relations between concepts. According to Fowler & Aaron it attempts to 'open readers' minds to an opinion, change readers' own opinions or perceptions, or move readers to action'(2007:179).

Stubbsetal (2006:72) identified two main characteristics of an argumentative essay which distinguishes it from exposition. Firstly, though both argument and exposition consist of statements, in argumentative texts some statements are offered as reasons for other statements. An argument is essentially built on the word 'because' (ibid:72). Secondly, argumentative texts assume that there may be a substantial disagreement among informed readers; whereas exposition does not assume that a reader holds a different opinion but that the reader is unfamiliar with the subject matter (ibid:72). Anna Trosborg (1997:16), on the other hand, distinguishes exposition from argumentation on the grounds of 'factuality established by means of a *scene-setter* whereas argumentation

is established through *a tone-setter* as evaluative discourse' (see also Hatim & Mason 1990, Hatim 2001)

3.4.2 The Aims of an Argumentative Text

By definition, an arguable issue has more than one side to it; other opinions are possible (Fowler and Aaron 2007: 190). An argument is always controversial, reasonable and informed people will disagree over it or be able to support it with their own reasons. As such, in an argumentative text, the writer who has taken a stand and argues on its behalf will try to set off his viewpoint as effectively as possible by gathering opinions from many sources. It is understandable that an argumentative text has a discourse that uses reasons to persuade readers to hold the writer's opinion, or at least to accept that the author's opinion is thoughtful and reasonable.

3.4.3 The Organization of an Argumentative Text

It is of utmost importance to understand the elements or components involved in an argumentative text because the writer's opinion is patterned in the text's textual structure (Hatim & Mason 1990, Hatim 1997, Sun Zhupei 孙祖培 1986). The writer of an argumentative text, be it through-argument or counter-argument, has to handle, in one sequence or another, the following matters:

3.4.3.1 Introductory Passage/The Background

There are times when the claim or the thesis is stated outright. This being the case, in both the through-argument and counter-argument, the claim or thesis is often preceded

by an introductory passage or background, a description or an exposition of the background to the problem.Tirkkonen-Condit (1986:98) named this introductory part 'the situation component'. According to Tirkkonen-Condit (ibid:98), the situation component is meant to present the background information. It is assumed that readers do not have conflicting opinions on what is presented in this component. The situation component ends at a point where, according to the anticipation of the writer, there is no more need to carry on with the background information. At that point, notes Tirkkonen-Condit, the reader is expected 'either to challenge the writer by expressing a view which conflicts with the writer's view or simply by asking "what is the point of you telling all this?" These elicit the writer's opinion' (ibid:98).

3.4.3.2 Thesis Cited to be Argued-through

According to Tirkkonen-Condit (1986:95), texts of the argumentative type are easier to discriminate than texts of other types because it contains a thesis and manifests a problem-solution structure. Of particular interest here is the thesis or problem component, in Tirkkonen's term, because that is where the argumentative text seems to differ from other text types.

Most of the time, the thesis statement of an effective argument is an opinion. It is the main idea of the text. In an argumentative text, the thesis statement contains the claim that the writer wants his readers to accept or act on. Below is an example taken from Hatim (2001:57; the whole text can be found in Section 3.5.2.1, p.84)

Palestinians in the Israeli-occupied Gaza Strip are facing new deprivation.

This claim is followed by two enhancers as shown in the following section.

3.4.3.3 Enhancer

Thesis cited is always followed by one or more enhancer to enhance the force of the thesis. This may then be followed by extensive substantiations in a through-argument or a counter-claim in a counter-argument. Below are the enhancers for the thesis cited in the above section (Hatim 2001:57):

- Israel has decided to restrict their use of facsimile machines
- In the hope of stopping the transmission of leaflets and instructions between activists in the occupied terrorists and the leadership of the Palestine Liberation Organization abroad

3.4.3.4 Thesis Cited to be Opposed

Unlike a through argumentative text, a counter-argumentative text is always initiated by a selective summary of someone else's viewpoint. Sample A given below provides an example of the citation of one's opponent (in italics):

Sample A

The Cohesion of OPEC

> Tomorrow's meeting of OPEC is a different affair. *Certainly, it is formally about prices and about Saudi Arabia's determination. To keep them down. Certainly, it will also have immediate implications for the price of petrol, especially for Britain which recently lowered its price of North Sea oil and may now have to raise it again*. **But this meeting, called at short notice, and confirmed only after the most intensive round of preliminary discussions between the parties concerned, is not primarily about selling arrangements between producer and consumer**. It is primarily about the future cohesion of the organization itself.
>
> (The Times, in Hatim 2001:50)

According to Hatim (2001:50), the citation of one's opponent shown in italics in the above sample and the opposition which follows in bold constitute 'a counter-argumentative structure favoured by arguers within the Western rhetorical tradition'.

3.4.3.5 Opposition

Unlike through-argumentative text which is characterized by extensive substantiation of an initial thesis, a counter-argumentative text contains a counter-claim or opposition. A counter-claim or an opposition is meant to set forth opposing positions or views. In Sample A in the above section, the opposition or the counter-claim is in bold.

3.4.3.6 Substantiation

According to Fowler & Aaron (2007:180), the backbone of an argument consists of specific substantiations or the 'reasons' according to Stubbs et.al. (2006) that support the thesis statement. For instance, evidence to support the claim that 'In both its space and its equipment, the college's chemistry laboratory is outdated' includes the following (Fowler & Aaron 2007:180):

> The present lab's age (number of years in use) and area (in square foot)
>
> An inventory of the equipment
>
> The testimony of chemistry professors.

The reasonableness of a writer's argument depends heavily on the evidence he marshals to support. Writers can draw on several kinds of evidence to demonstrate the validity of their claims or thesis statement (ibid:182): facts, examples, expert's opinion, and appeals to readers' beliefs or needs(Fowler and Aaron 2007:184).