

## 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.

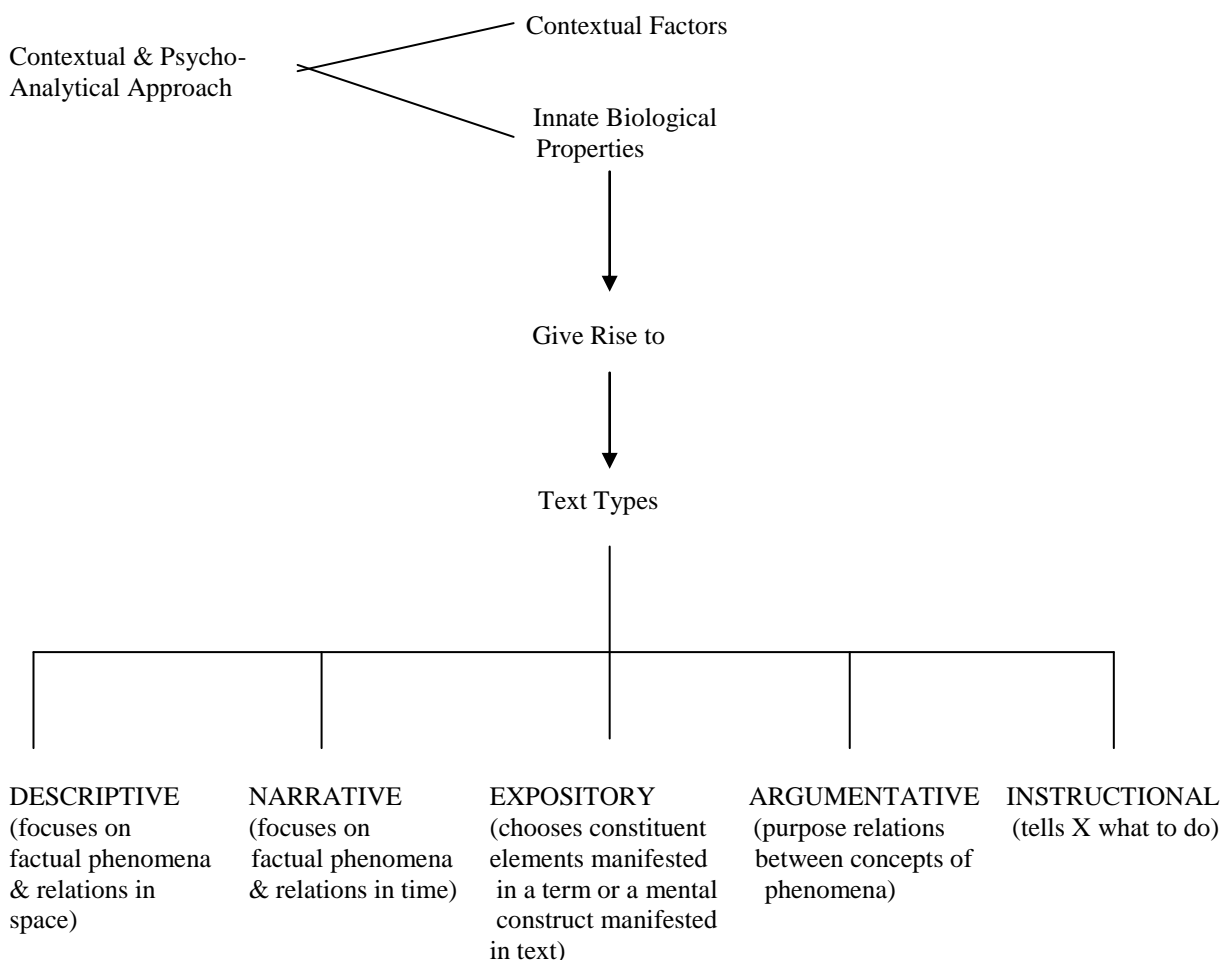
Text type and the problems pertaining to it have drawn the attention of many linguists and rhetoricians, among them Werlich (1976), Newmark (1988), de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981), Hatim (1987, 1997) and Hatim & Mason (1990) among others. The linguists mentioned have proposed different definitions 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)**



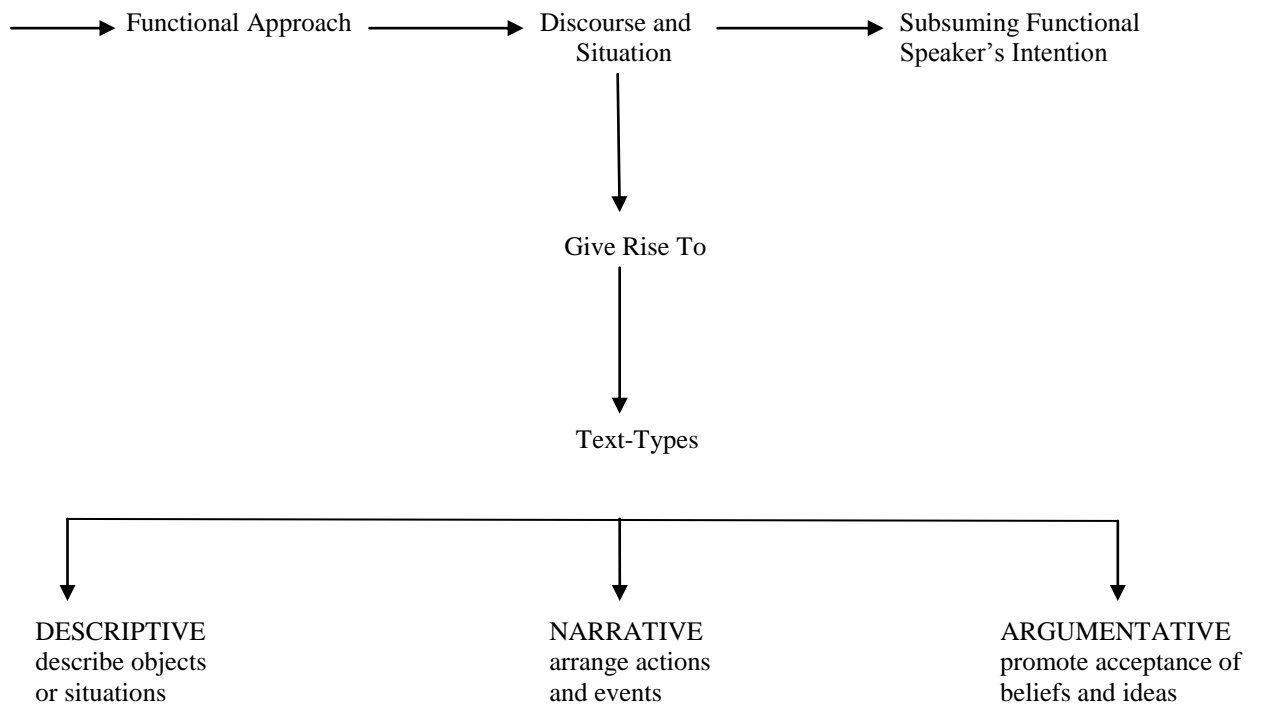
(Source: Shiyab Said M., 2006:72)

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)**



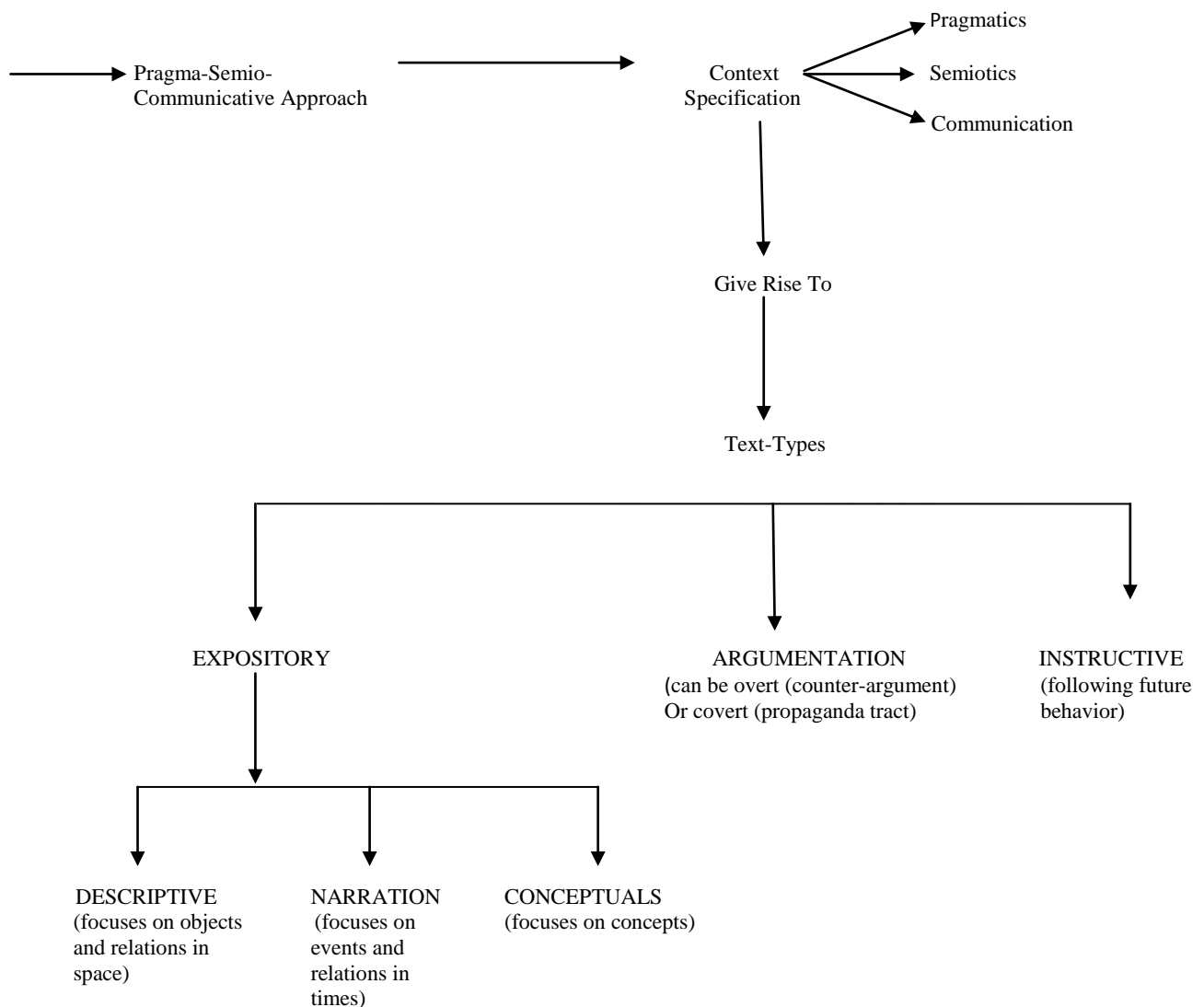
(Source: Shiyab Said M., 2006:71)

### 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).

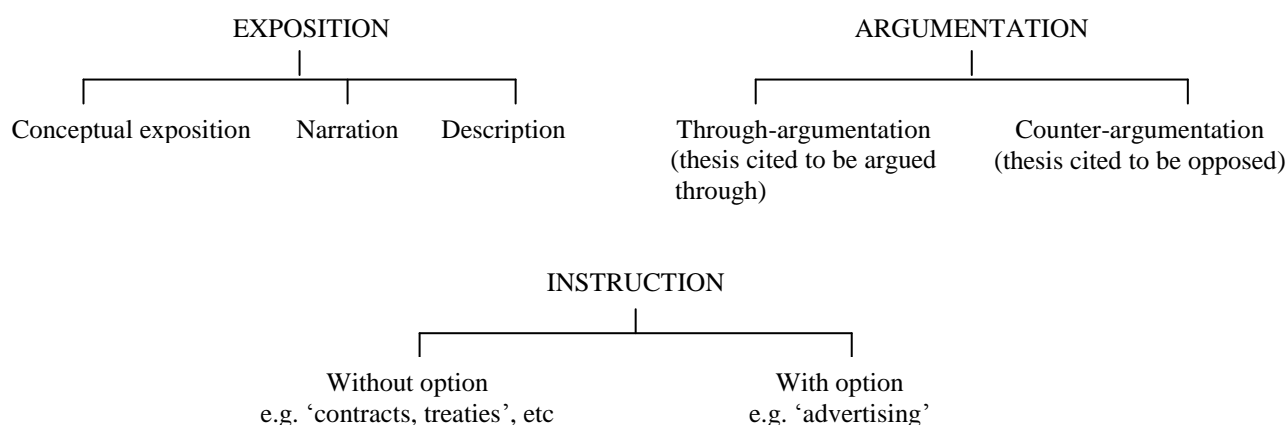
In the process where various domains of context interact with one another, a text type focus or the predominantly rhetorical purpose slowly emerges: either to ‘monitor’ or

‘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).

Stubbs (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 territories 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).

### (i) Facts

Facts, according to Fowler and Aaron (2007:184) are ‘statements whose truth can be verified or inferred’. They may or may not involve numbers; facts employing numbers are statistics. Stubbs et al note that statistics is another vital form of evidence which is especially useful in arguments concerning social issues(2006:81) . Two examples taken from Fowler and Aaron (2007:184) are reproduced here:

*Of those polled, 62 percent stated a preference for a decrease in fuel price.*

Other facts involve no numbers at all. For example:

*The President vetoed the bill.*

### (ii) Examples

Examples are specific instances of the point being made; these include historical precedents and personal experiences (ibid:184). The passage given below has been used by Fowler and Aaron (2007) to illustrate how a personal narrative is used as partial support for the claim in the first sentence (highlighted in bold):

**Besides broadening students’ knowledge, required courses can also introduce students to possible careers that they otherwise would have known nothing about.** Somewhat reluctantly, I enrolled in a psychology course to satisfy the requirement for work in social science. But what I learned in the course about human behaviour has led me to consider becoming a clinical psychologist instead of an engineer (*emphasis mine*).

(Fowler and Aaron 2007:184)

### (iii) Expert’s opinions

According to Fowler and Aaron, ‘expert’s opinion, or the citation of authorities are the judgements formed by authorities on the basis of their own examination of the facts’

(2007:184). The obvious reason for citing an expert's opinion is that since people are aware that the person is recognized as an expert in the field or the topic at hand, his opinion, his comments, or judgements carry weight and help to convince readers.

#### **(iv) Appeals to Beliefs or Needs**

According to Fowler and Aaron, 'an appeal to beliefs or needs asks readers to accept an assertion in part because they already accept it as true without evidence' (2007:185). The following example which combines such an appeal (second sentence) with a summary of factual evidence (first evidence) is given by Fowler and Aaron to illustrate this:

Thus the chemistry laboratory is outdated in its equipment. In addition, its shabby, antiquated appearance shames the school, making it seem a second-rate institution.

(2007:185)

Fowler and Aaron (ibid:185) note that the example 'appeals to the readers' belief that their school is, or should be, first-rate'.

#### **3.4.3.7 Opposing Views**

In an argumentative text, a writer will have to show awareness of opposing viewpoints, apart from giving evidence to substantiate the claim. Taking into consideration the neutral or skeptical readers, as pointed out by Fowler & Aaron (2007:210), the writer will have to 'take the opposing views on, refute those he can and be ready to concede those views he can't and demonstrate why, despite their validity, the opposing views are less compelling than his own'. By revealing an awareness of opposing viewpoints,

the writer shows that he is familiar with arguments other than his own, as such, he is able to strengthen his/her ethical appeal, and hence, the entire argument (ibid: 210).

#### **3.4.3.8 Conclusion**

When the text producer feels that he/she has achieved his/her goal or the text's overall rhetorical goal, the conclusion will be introduced.

### **3.5 The Hierarchic Organization of Texts**

In the previous section, the classification of texts by different linguists with special emphasis on the text typology proposed by Hatim & Mason (1990) was dealt with. For the interest of this research, various dimensions of the argumentative text have been explored in detail. The discussion will now move on to the hierarchic organization of texts, or their compositional plan and their relevance to translation, especially the translation of argumentative texts.

The text's compositional plan is one aspect of context (see Chapter 2, Figure 2.5. p33), as it provides patterns which facilitate retrieval of the rhetorical purposes of the text concerned (Hatim and Mason 1990:181). A recognizable organizational pattern for the propositions and ideas in the text contributes to the unity and relatedness of a piece of discourse (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain 2006:8).

In the past decade, several top-level discourse structure theories have been advanced. Examples are Van Dijk's 'macrostructures' (1980), Meyer's 'rhetorical predicates' of expository prose (1975b), Hoey's 'problem-solution' text patterns (1983,1986), and Tirkkonen-Condit's 'superstructure' of argument (1985).

Theories of superstructures have been developed for different types of texts such as exposition, argumentation, and narration. It has been applied to the field of translation and cross-cultural studies. For example, the superstructure analysis for argumentative texts developed by the Finnish text linguist and translation theorist, Sonja Tirkkonen-Condit (1985; 1986) which includes a four-unit structure consisting of situation, problem, solution, and evaluation was applied by Connor (1987:59) in a cross-cultural study, which compares argumentative essays written by 16-year-old American, Finnish, and German students. According to Tirkkonen-Condit, a full comprehension of the argumentative text and its equivalence in translation cannot be achieved without access to the full range of structural features (1986: 95).

‘Text’ is taken by Hatim & Mason as ‘the uppermost level of structure’ (1990:178). For the two translators and linguists, the term ‘text’ is not used to refer to the entire stretches of discourse of the whole article but rather to subdivisions made within the undifferentiated whole (ibid:178). For a subdivision to attain the status of text, it must be ‘a coherent and cohesive unit, realized by one or more than one sequence of mutually relevant elements, and serving some overall rhetorical purpose’ (ibid:178).

According to Hatim (2001:58), from the perspective of contrastive textology in general and that of translation in particular, in order to arrive at the true intentions of the author of the ST and the considerations of how they develop their texts, the identification of boundaries marked by indentations is no longer a concern for the translator. What is more important, argued Hatim, is the recognition of the ‘structural paragraphs’ which contributes most to our perception of a text’s hierarchical organization (ibid:54).

Hatim notes that the structural organization of a text or its compositional plan ‘is related to contextual categories such as text type focus and degree of text evaluativeness and



surface manifestations of cohesion as contextual clues for underlying coherence' (ibid:54). Unlike Tirkkonen-Condit who perceives a whole article as being equal to a text and thus a unit of analysis, Hatim & Mason (1990; Hatim 2001) propose that the 'structural paragraph' be taken as 'text' and be considered a unit of analysis. Structural paragraphs extend beyond the sentence level and emphasize on the arrangement of organization.

A structural paragraph as proposed by Hatim & Mason is different from the orthographic paragraph which is treated largely as a self-contained unit, independent of its function in a larger operation (Pitkin 1969:140). Longacre (1976:116) observes that orthographic paragraphs may be motivated purely by mechanical aspects of the writing process or printing conventions, with little or no regard for the meanings being exchanged through texts.

Pitkin (1969) cites Needleman (1968) whose views reflect the traditional conception of the paragraph as a unit typically complete unto itself :

A single sentence, occurring as an introduction or for special emphasis, or a single word, as in conversation or in narrative, may form a paragraph. Most frequently, however, a paragraph is defined as a group of related sentences expressing and developing a basic idea, or a series of related sentences so arranged as to explicate a single topic, a dominant idea, or particular **phase of thought** (*emphasis mine*). In essence, a paragraph is an expanded sentence, a unit of thought...

(Pitkin 1969:140)

Here, the paragraph is defined as a unit, a complete thought. However, Pitkin (1969:140) aptly points out that, though 'the expression "phase of thought" suggests that the paragraph can be a sub-unit, there is no suggestion of hierarchy: the "phases"

are implicitly all at the same level, that is, x (number) of phases add up to one complete thought (ibid:140). Pitkin (1969) argues for the need for a discourse unit to replace or at least to redefine the sentence and paragraph. This is because, according to Pitkin: ‘all languages are hierarchically organized, not only in the construction of the sentence but also in the construction of connected discourse’ (ibid:138).

Therefore, for Pitkin (ibid:139), the structure of a given discourse is about ‘stages and sub-stages, junctures and sub-junctures, not of its static parts and joints’. What we have to analyze is ‘discourse in operation’. As stated by Pitkin:

Discourse is an operation, its units are units because of what they do, not merely what they look like. Discourse is segmented not merely by spatial joints (periods, semicolons, indentations) but by junctures, by those moments in the meaningful continuum where we can say, “To this point we have been doing X; now we begin to do Y”

(1969:139)

Obviously for Pitkin, a discourse unit in operation is taken as a unit by virtue of what it is doing. To analyze a discourse in operation would inevitably raise the notion of purpose and we have determined that a unit is to be taken as a unit by virtue of its functions toward that purpose. Pitkin states unambiguously that the hierarchy of a discourse is a premise:

*The structure of written discourse - like the structure of the complex word, the phrase, the clause - is hierarchical, units embedded within or added to still larger units embedded within or added to still larger units; and at any level of the continuum the units are to be discovered not by their shape on a page, not by how long they are or how they are punctuated, but by what function they are serving in the discourse. And as they are no structural gaps in what we recognize as well-formed words or sentences, so they are no structural gaps in what we recognize as well formed discourse. (italics original)*

(1969:141)

Thus, for Pitkin, discourse comprises of blocs, not sentences and paragraphs. Each bloc is **hierarchically organized** (emphasis mine). The structure of a discourse bloc has stages and sub-stages, junctures and subjunctures, not static parts and joints because ‘contemporary writers do not set out to write sentences, they set out to write discourse’ (ibid:139).

In essence, the term ‘discourse bloc’ coined by Pitkin is comparable to Hatim & Mason’s view of perceiving text as ‘a unit of structure’. Readers searching for meaning should be guided by the structural paragraph because the structural paragraph contributes the most to our perception of a text’s hierarchical organization (Hatim & Mason 1990; Hatim 2001). When a translator first approaches a text, a series of elements, such as words, phrases, or clauses, are identified. However, the progression of the sequence of the various elements is not solely linear (Hatim 2001:55), it is essentially hierarchic (Hatim 2001; Pitkin 1969).

### **3.5.1 Criteria for Identifying Text Boundaries**

According to Hatim (2001), in identifying the unit ‘text’ or the structural paragraph, it is important for a translator to perceive where one sequence ends and another begins. Two criteria, namely cohesion and topic-shift, can be used to identify text boundaries.

#### **(a) Cohesion**

Halliday & Hasan (2001:295) note that since the writer uses cohesion to signal texture, and the translator reacts to it in his interpretation of texture, it is reasonable to make use of cohesion as a criterion in identifying text boundaries. When a sentence shows no cohesion with those preceding it, it could be considered as the beginning of a new text.

Halliday & Hasan further suggest that at times there may be isolated sentences and other structural units which do not cohere with those around them, even though they form part of the connected passage (ibid:295). Nonetheless, according to them, most of the time when a sentence shows no cohesion with what has gone before, it indicates a transition, say between different stages in a complex transaction. Such instances can be regarded as discontinuities, signaling the beginning of a new text (ibid:295).

### **(b) Topic-shift and Text-type Focus**

Hatim and Mason (1990:178) cite Trimble (1985) that ‘paragraphs (orthographic or conceptual) are useful indicators of the limits of a text’. They agreed that it is true that ‘there is often a reasonable degree of correspondence between the paragraphs, the topic of the text and its rhetorical purpose’ (1990:178) and the existence of perceptible change of topic between adjacent portions of discourse and the use of certain lexical or syntactic partitioning signals can be used to determine the boundary of the unit text. However, Hatim suggests that for the category ‘topic’ to be useful in determining the way a text is organized structurally, it has to ‘incorporate more precise pragmatic and semiotic specifications of the way arguments are structured’(2001:62).

Such a combination of semiotic-pragmatic specification of context gives rise to text-type focus (ibid:62). Here text-type focus refers to the three basic text types proposed by Hatim & Mason, namely exposition, argumentation and instruction (see Section 3.3.1, p.76). For instance, in the example *Israel and the Palestinian Exhaustion* given by Hatim (the full text of this example is in Section 3.5.2.1, p.99-100), it is the counter-argumentative thrust which determines the structure of the text. Competent readers and translators would be quick to realize that the text type counter-argument is involved;

they will thus search for a logically convincing argumentation structure: a claim, a counter claim, substantiation of the counter claim and a conclusion (Hatim 2001).

Hatim (2001) notes that a text is deemed complete at the point where the rhetorical purpose, that is, the overall intention of an author, for example to counter-argue is considered to have been achieved. In other words, a boundary will come to a point where a sequence no longer commits the author to elaborate further in pursuit of the overall rhetorical purpose.

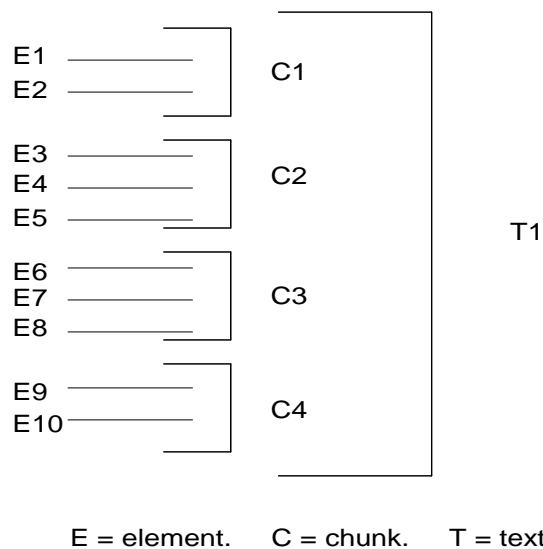
### **3.5.2 Hierarchic Organization of Argumentative Texts**

Hatim, in proposing the structural paragraph as a unit of text structure, has suggested that the discourse context is defined in terms of language users' intentionality (pragmatics), the status of the utterance as a sign (semiotics) and a number of communicative factors such as subject matters and level of formality (2001:54). For such contextual values to be realized in actual texts, Hatim has invoked another category, namely text-type focus or the predominant rhetorical purpose. Hatim argues that text types are global frameworks utilized in the processing of rhetorical purposes in discourse (ibid:55). He has developed this argument by proposing that, as the ultimate contextual specification, 'text type almost casually determines text structure and lays down the principles which regulate the way texts are organized as cohesive and coherent whole' (ibid).

#### **3.5.2.1 Element, Chunk and the Unit 'Text'**

According to Hatim & Mason (1990; Hatim 2001), the overall discourse of an argumentative text involves three levels of text organization, namely element, chunk

and text. The elements of an argumentative text are called steps (Hatim 2001). The structural paragraph and the unit ‘text’ proposed by Hatim (2001) shows that each *element* enters into a discourse relation with other *elements* and is active in performing a particular rhetorical purpose. The discourse relation enables one to identify sequences of elements. In turn, sequences are grouped to realize a *chunk*<sub>2</sub>, and finally a number of *chunks* are combined to serve an overall rhetorical purpose, ultimately realized by the unit *text*. Diagrammatically, this process of negotiation may be represented as in Figure 3.4.



(Source: Hatim 2001:55)

**Figure 3.4: The Negotiation of Text Structure**

The term *element* is used to refer to one of the constituents of text structure. Hatim & Mason prefer to see it as ‘the smallest lexico-grammatical unit which can fulfill some rhetorical function, significantly contributes to the overall rhetorical purpose of the text’ (1990:166). Each element marks a stage in the progression of a text. The example

below has been used by Hatim (2001:57) to illustrate the grouping of elements into sequences or chunks:

Israel and the Palestinians  
EXHAUSTION

Palestinians in the Israeli-occupied Gaza Strip are facing a new deprivation. 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 territories and the leadership of the Palestine Liberation Organization abroad.

Like many of the measures adopted by Israel since Palestinians started their uprising in December 1987, the ban on faxes looks pretty easy to circumvent. Israel tried to stop international telephone calls from the occupied territories early on in the *Intifaada*, but gave up when Palestinians started making all their calls from East Jerusalem, formally part of Israel and therefore unaffected.

(The Economist 2 September 1989; Hatim 2001:57)

Below is the characterization of the possible context given by Hatim (2001: 56):

Pragmatic Action:

Defending the premise that ‘measures adopted by Israel are doing little to quash the Palestinians uprising in the West Bank’.

Semiotic Interaction:

Juxtaposing the sign ‘claim’ and the two signs ‘counter-claim’ and ‘substantiation’ (Palestinians face a new deprivation – ban on fax. However, like other Israeli measures, this one will not work. This is because ...’).

Communicative Transaction:

Locating the text within the appropriate ‘field of discourse’ (the dynamics of Middle East politics), ‘tenor’ or level of formality (semi-formal, confidence-inspiring news commentary) and ‘mode’ or channel (the quality magazine article, projecting a sense of balance and detachment).

Text Type: Counter-argumentation

(Source: Hatim, 2001:56)

**Figure 3.5: A Possible Context**

According to Hatim, the contextual values listed above can be transformed into functional elements of texture within a given configuration of structural elements:

Element 1	Thesis Cited	‘Palestinians face new deprivation’
Element 2	Enhancer	‘Israel has clamped down on the use of fax’
Element 3	Enhancer	‘Aim of ban: to stop transmission of leaflets’
Element 4	Statement of Opposition	‘Like other measures, this one is bound to fail’
Element 5	Substantiation as Evidence	‘Israelis tried same tactics with telephones’
Element 6	Further Substantiation	‘They gave up when Palestinians started making calls from East Jerusalem’

(Source: Hatim 2001:56-57)

**Figure 3.6: Negotiating a Structural Format — The Basic Level of Elements**

Hatim & Mason note that translators ‘need to see beyond the linearity of a text to discover how overall discourse relations are evolving’ (1990:174). The second level of text organization, namely chunk or sequence, serves a higher-order rhetorical function than that of the individual element. According to Hatim & Mason (ibid:174), readers perceive a link between E1, E2, and E3 which is quite different from the link between E4, E5 and E6. Taken together, elements 1, 2 and 3 realize a sequence which serves a single purpose: to specify a thesis which contains the claim that in the Israelis-occupied Gaza Strip, Palestinians are facing a new deprivation. On the other hand, element 4 which constitutes a point in an argument has become part of a different structural component. The higher-order rhetorical function here is establishing the opposition to the thesis cited. Elements 5 and 6 together fulfill the rhetorical function of substantiating



the statement contained in the Opposition. The structure of this text follows a familiar pattern in argumentative texts which is illustrated in Figure 3.7 below:

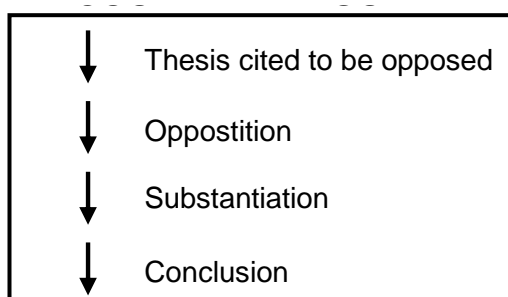
Chunk I	E1, E2 and E3	Thesis cited to be opposed
Chunk II	E4	Opposition
Chunk III	E5 and E6	Substantiation of opposition

(Source: Hatim, 2001:175)

**Figure 3.7: Negotiating a Structural Format-the Higher Level of Chunks**

In turn, these sequences enter into other discoursal relations at an even higher level, ultimately giving rise to the unit ‘text’. In the case of the above text, it is the counter-argument thrust which determines the structure and also the texture of the text. According to Hatim (2001:62), once the text-type counter-argument is seen to be involved, the search for a claim, a counter-claim, substantiation of the counter-claim and some sort of conclusion should be established.

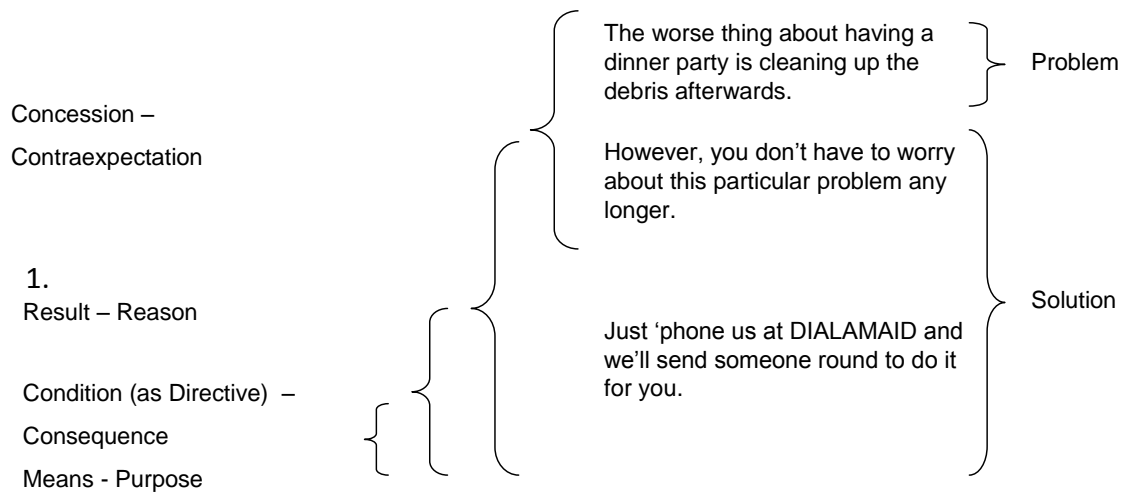
The basic structural format of counter-argumentation can be represented as in Figure 3.8:



(Source: Hatim & Mason 1990:183)

**Figure 3.8: Counter-argumentation**

Hatim & Mason have noted that the model proposed by them is comparable to the formulation suggested by Crombie (1985):



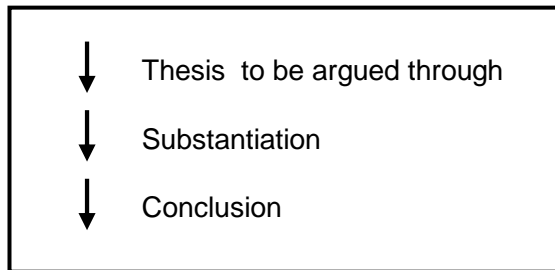
(Source: Hatim & Mason 1990:183)

**Figure 3.9: A problem → Solution Macro-pattern**

The formulation suggested by Crombie (1985) shown above enables readers to accumulate evidence of the way a text is put together, forming a macro-pattern. According to Hatim and Mason (1990:182), within such patterns, discourse functions can be discerned such as ‘making a concession and then countering it’ (concession → counter-expectation). They note that like their own model, this macro-pattern suggested by Crombie allows readers to derive evidence ‘for the way a text develops by assessing the interaction of the various elements and sequences within the text’ (ibid).

Another argumentative text form is the through argument. The Through-argument is similar to the Counter-argument format except that, instead of a thesis cited followed by an opposition, these two are conflated into a single ‘statement of a point of view’ to be

argued through (Hatim & Mason 1990:184). The basic format is illustrated in Figure 3.10:



(Source: Hatim and Mason 1990:184)

### **Figure 3.10: Through Argumentation**

Below is an example of through-argumentation taken from Hatim & Mason (2001)

The decentralizing approach has not one fundamental defect, but two. Either of them by itself would have crippled the reforms. Together, they interact powerfully and guarantee failure. First, as Karl Marx might have put it, is the question of property relations; second, the related issue of the enterprise's financial environment. In short, who owns the firm, and can it go bust?

(The Economist 28 April 1990, Hatim 2001:39-40)

This initial thesis: “The decentralizing approach has not one fundamental defect, but two” has been cited and then argued through in the rest of the text.

### **3.6 Conclusion**

In this chapter, the various models of text type have been discussed. The emphasis is on the three basic text types proposed by Hatim & Mason. The three major text types are

established by assigning to each a particular rhetorical purpose or the dominant contextual focus: exposition, argumentation and instruction. From both a theoretical and practical point of view, the ability to recognize a text as a token of a particular text type will affect the way a reader and a translator comprehend and render it in the target language.

In this study, within the text-typology proposed by Hatim and Mason, two variants of argumentation, through argumentation and counter argumentation is seen as a structured object: they are not ordered at random. The three levels of discourse organization: element, chunk and text are to be seen in hierarchical organization. Translators must take note of the hierarchical organization of a text to discover how the overall discourse relations evolve.

The next chapter will present the role of the translator and the importance to re-establish and recapture cohesion and coherence in the target text so as to enable the target language readers to follow the drift of the argument in an argumentative text in essentially the same manner as the source language readers.