CHAPTER 4

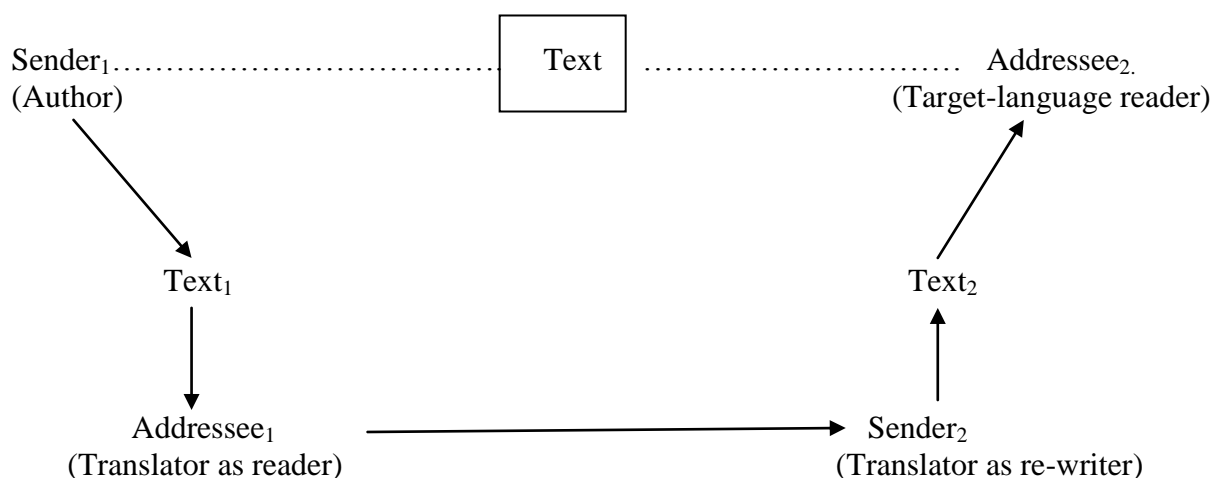# COHESION AND COHERENCE IN TRANSLATED TEXTS

4.1   Introduction

There are two key elements to this research, namely translated argumentative texts, and the shifts of cohesion and coherence. It is the intention of this thesis to articulate the relation between one and the other in this chapter by first, briefly exploring the nature of the translation process, and the decisions involved as demonstrated by the dual-role of a translator; and second, zooming in onto the nature of cohesion and coherence and the factors that contributed to the shifts of coherence in a text.

4.2   Translators, Translation and Translated Texts

Newmark defines translation as 'rendering the meaning of a text into another language in the way that the author intended the text' (1988:5). However, before the translator can start to 'render the meaning' of a text into the target language, he has to read it. The diagram taken from Feng Zonglin (2003:46) is given to illustrate the two roles of a translator:

Diagram 4: The Double Role of a Translator

Sender$_1$……………………………… | Text | ………………………… Addressee$_2$
(Author)   (Target-language reader)

Text$_1$ Text$_2$

Addressee$_1$ ⟶ Sender$_2$
(Translator as reader)   (Translator as re-writer)

(Source: Feng Zonglin 2003:47)

As shown here, translation is a dynamic process of communication. Right at the centre of this process, a translator is first a reader. But unlike general readers, a translator reads with the purpose of rendering the original text into another language; and hence, introducing it to another culture. According to Feng (2003:45), from a discourse perspective, an author is Sender 1 who, by means of the text, sends a message through a translator as a reader (Addressee 1). This special reader will read, interpret, decode and then encode the meaning of the ST, and render it in the target language. This way, the translator's work has extended the life and reach of the source text by bringing it to the target language readers. It can be said that a translator is essentially a 'message conveyer' (Houbert 1998:1), conveying the meaning expressed by the original writer into the target language text (Text 2) for a group of target language readers (Addressee 2).

Feng (2003:48) states that functionally, Text 1 rather than Text 2 is 'the text', for that is the author's rather the translator's. According to Feng (ibid:48) Text 2 is but 'one of many possible texts'. This is because different readers may respond differently to the same text - a translator's reading is only one of the possible readings of the ST.

In most cases, a translator decodes a text according to his understanding, conditioned by his ideology and world knowledge (Feng 2003:47). The process of decoding a text and encoding it in a target language involves both lexico-grammatical and pragmatic analysis. Appropriate linguistic choices will have to be selected from a number of alternatives contextually, and the appropriateness of any choice will to a large extent, according to Feng, depend on the translator's 'sociolinguistic, sociopragmatic, and grammatical competence in both languages and on the successful combination of the double role of the translators – as Addressee 1 (source language reader) and Sender 2 (target language writer) – in relation to the Addressee 2 (the target language readership) (ibid: 45)'.

A successful process of translation necessitates a complex text and discourse processing (Blum-Kulka 1986:19). As a reader and a rewriter, a translator is constantly making choices on various linguistic levels, namely words, collocations, fixed expressions, clauses and structures. This is confirmed by Darwish:

> Translation is basically a decision-making process under constraints such as space, time, quality of information, problem-solving aptitude and so on. These constraints affect the quality of performance and the quality of the translation product and always circumvent the realization of an optimal translation.

(Darwish 1999:19)

The decision making process is indeed complex. To a large extent, an array of factors such as space, time, quality of information, problem-solving aptitude of a specific translator and so on will inevitably affect the quality of any translation. The translator, as a mediator between the writer and the target language readers for whom mutual communication might otherwise be problematic (Hatim & Mason 1990:223), must make sure that he/she understands 'how the lower levels, the individual words, phrases, and grammatical structures, control and shape the overall meaning of the text' (Baker 1992: 6) and produce a text which is cohesive and coherent.

The above brief discussion on the dual role of translators puts into focus the translation process. What happens during the process is that a translator reads and then reproduces the text in the target language, within his personal, social and cultural parameters. As such, the translated text, as stated earlier, is but 'one of many possible texts' and shall be seen as evidence of a communicative transaction rather than a final product (Hatim and Mason 1990).

4.3   Textual Connectivity

Tracing the translation process, one will notice the decisions a translator has to make – both at the reading and the rewriting stage – to ensure successful textual rendition. Each correctly made decision contributes to the integrity of textuality. Like any other texts, a translated text exhibits certain linguistic features which allow target language readers to identify it as a text.

First, like the ST, readers of the TT identify a stretch of language in a translated text as a text partly because it is presented to them as a text, and they will do their utmost to

make sense of it as a unit (Baker 1992:113). Second, like the ST readers, TT readers perceive connections within and among sentences in a text which makes it a unit rather than a random collection of unrelated sentences.

Textual connectivity is as important in the translated text as in the source text. According to Baker (1992:113), textual connectivity manifests three characteristics. First, a text should display a distinct pattern of thematization where connections are established 'through the arrangement of information within each clause and the way this relates to the arrangement of information in preceding and following clauses and sentences which contribute to topic development' (ibid). Second, it must be cohesive. There are surface connections which establish interrelationship between persons and events, thus allowing readers to trace participants and to interpret the way in which different parts of the text relate to each other. Third, there must be 'underlying semantic connections which allow readers to 'make sense' of a text as a unit of meaning and draw proper inference from it (inference will be discussed in detail in Section 4.4.2.3.1, p.124).

Another important feature of textual organization is the compositional plan or the text structure of a text. It reflects the way 'textual material is packaged by the writer along patterns familiar to the readers' (Baker 1992:114). Indeed, text structure is an important feature in a text because different text types have different text structures. The compositional plan of a text provides patterns which facilitate retrieval of rhetorical purposes (Hatim & Mason 1990, Hatim 2001) and contribute to the 'overall coherence' of a text (Celcia Murcia & Olsthain 2006:8).

4.4   Text Binders: Cohesion and Coherence

According to Bell, cohesion and coherence are 'distinct from each other but share one crucial characteristic; they both have the function of binding the text together by creating sequences of meanings' (1991:164).   In the case of cohesion, stretches of language are connected to each other by virtue of 'lexical and grammatical dependencies'; whereas coherence is attained by virtue of 'conceptual or meaning dependencies as perceived by language users' (Baker 1992:218).

4.4.1   Cohesion

Cohesion is considered as an overt relationship holding between parts of the text, expressed by language specific markers. The best known and most detailed model of cohesion available is the one outlined by Halliday & Hasan in their work *Cohesion in English* (2001). The book has become a standard text in discussing the principles of connectivity which binds a text together. It is worth noting, however, other models have been proposed by other linguists (such as   Gutwinski (1976), de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981), Hoey (1988, 1991)).

For Halliday & Hasan(2001), whether a set of sentences do or do not constitute a text depends on the cohesive relationships within and between the sentences, which create texture**.** According to them (ibid: 2): 'a text has texture and this is what distinguishes it from something that is not a text…The texture is provided by the cohesive RELATION' and cohesive relationships within a text are set up 'where the INTERPRETATION of some elements in the discourse is dependent on that of another. The one PRESUPPOSES the other in the sense that it cannot be effectively decoded except by

discourse to it' (ibid:4). To illustrate such a cohesive relationship, a simple example is given below (ibid:2):

Wash and core six apples. Put *them* into a fire proof dish.

According to the two researchers, it is clear that in this text, '*them* in the second sentence refers back to (or, is ANAPHORIC to) the *six cooking apples* in the first sentence'. It is the anaphoric function of '*them*' (ibid) that gives cohesion to the two sentences, enabling the readers to interpret them as a whole. As such, these two sentences together constitute a text (ibid).

4.4.1.1   Taxonomy of Cohesive Devices

Halliday & Hasan (1976, 1989) have provided us with a comprehensive working description of five main cohesive devices using English as the language of illustration, namely reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion. These five devices are said to provide cohesive 'ties' which bind a text together. Figure 4.1 gives an example of each of these categories.

Figure 4.1: Examples of Five Main Cohesive Devices

1.	Reference	"Gloria Arroyo has the advantage of incumbency. **She** knows the issues and understands the political terrain."
2.	Substitution	"I want a plate of spaghetti. Do you want **one**?"
3.	Ellipsis	"Which shirt will you wear? The most colorful one."(elliptic item: shirt)
4.	Conjunction	I have accepted a job as a lecturer in the University of Malaya; **therefore** I shall be leaving Young Achiever Child Care Centre at the end of the month.

5.   Lexical cohesion

(i) reiteration   There is a girl climbing that wall. The **child** is going to fall if she doesn't take care.

(ii) collocation   The **rain** had been **pouring** down the whole morning.

(see Chapter 4, Section 4.4.2.4.1.2, p.134 for a more detailed discussion of collocation)

Although the above are devices identified by Halliday & Hasan for establishing cohesive links in English, they are common to a large number of languages. For instance, the use of all the five devices mentioned above have been seriously studied in the Chinese language in the last two decades by Chinese linguists such as Huang Guowen (1987), Hu Zhuanglin (1994), and Li Yunxing (2000; 2003).

Understandably, the preferences for using specific devices more frequently than others vary from language to language. In English, for instance, pronominalization is used frequently; but it is rarely used in Chinese (Li & Thompson 1979, Baker 1992, Xu Jiujiu 2003, Siguo 2008). Meanwhile, lexical repetition is far more frequent in Hebrew than it is in English (Blum-Kulka, 1986:19).

4.4.1.2   Cohesive Devices and Semantic Relations

Cohesion is pivotal in the interpretation of a text because it expresses the continuity between one part of the text and another. Nonetheless, cohesive markers have to reflect conceptual relations which make sense. The mere presence of cohesive markers cannot create a coherent text. A widely quoted example from Enkvist serves as an example of a superficially cohesive text that makes no sense and is therefore not coherent:

I bought a Ford. The car in which President Wilson rode down Champs Elysees was black. Black English has been widely discussed. The discussions between the presidents ended last week. A week has seven days. Everyday I feed my cat. Cats have four legs. The cat is on the mat. Mat has three letters.

(1978b:110-11)

In this text, the overt, linguistically signalled relationships between propositions are made evident, yet the propositions are not logically connected in terms of how we perceive the world. In other words, despite the presence of a number of cohesive markers, the text is not supported by underlying semantic relations. This suggests that what establishes continuity of sense is the readers' ability to recognize underlying semantic relations between various parts of a stretch of language. As pointed out by Baker, the main value of cohesive markers 'seems to be that they can be used to facilitate and possibly control the interpretation of underlying semantic relations' (1992:219).

4.4.1.3   Cohesion in the Source and Target Texts

The five cohesive devices discussed in Section 4.4.1.1 (p.96-97) help readers comprehend and interpret a source text as well as a translated text. They convey the interrelationships of persons and events, which highlight, at the sentence and paragraph level, the sense of relation of one textual unit to those preceding or following it.

In other words, cohesive devices in the ST have a guiding function for the source language readers. They guide the readers in interpreting ideas in the text, in connecting ideas with other ideas, and in connecting ideas to higher level global units for example, the relationship between a thesis and a substantiation in an argumentative text. In short,

cohesive devices 'support and speed up the cognitive processes by which a reader constructs the overall meaning of linearly incoming textual information' (Uwe Multhaup 2003:2)

As for the TT, according to Callow (1974:30), the topic of cohesion is '… the most useful constituent of discourse analysis or text linguistics applicable to translation'. Cohesion must be handled carefully by the translator because 'deficiencies in this area may cause the reader to miss important cohesive links' (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain 2006:126) and as a result, cause the target language readers to have difficulties in the interpretation process. For instance, to follow the writer's line of thought and understand what is written, it is of utmost importance that the referential chain involving people and events be correctly preserved in the TT.

Nonetheless, according to Hatim (2004), cohesion has to be examined in terms of underlying coherence if it is to yield any useful insights. An example given by Hatim (ibid:265) is the analysis of ellipsis. Hatim notes that the analysis of ellipsis as deletion can be helpful when supplemented by various added meanings, such as intimacy or intensity, that the use of such a cohesive device takes on in context (ibid). This is because the use of ellipsis is not favoured in certain languages. The more important question of looking at the dispreferred use of deletion, according to Hatim, is to examine whether this means that the expression of intensity and intimacy is also not preferred in the language being analyzed (ibid).

A translator must bear in mind that in every language, there are unique devices for establishing cohesive links; as such, in dealing with cohesion, 'language and text type preferences must be given serious consideration' (Baker 1992:190). According to Hatim, it is the search for the underlying coherence of a text, and 'not the surface

manifestations of this or that cohesive tie, that has proven to be most relevant to the work of the translator' (ibid:265).

4.4.1.4 Shifts in Cohesion

Although it is a fact that each language has its own patterns to convey the interrelationships of persons and events in the text, these interrelationships in the ST needs to be recaptured in the TT if the translation is to be understood by its target language readers (Callow 1974). In this respect, cohesion deserves attention in contrastive textual analysis because according to Blum-Kulka (1986:18), on the level of cohesion, shifts in types of cohesive markers used in translation seem to affect translations in one or both of two directions, namely the shift in the levels of explicitness, and the shift in textual meanings.

The general level of explicitness in the target text could be higher or lower than that of the source text. Since every language has its own devices for establishing cohesive links, the overt cohesive relationships between parts of the texts are necessarily linked to a language's grammatical system (Halliday & Hasan, 2001). Thus, grammatical differences between languages will be manifested by changes in the types of ties used to mark cohesion in the source and target texts. Such transformations might carry with them a shift in the text's overall level of explicitness (Blum-Kulka 1986).

Blum-Kulka (ibid:19) argues that a target text is more redundant than the source text, where the redundancy can be expressed by a rise in the level of cohesive explicitness in the target text. This argument is stated by her as 'the explicitation hypothesis' which 'postulates an observed cohesive explicitness from ST to TT regardless of the increase

traceable to differences between the two linguistic and textual systems involved' (ibid:19). Explicitation as viewed by Blum-Kulka is 'inherent in the process of translation'. By analyzing works done by non-professional translators as well as professional translators, Blum-Kulka (ibid:21) claims that explicitation might be 'a universal strategy inherent in the language of mediation, practiced by language learners, non-professional translators and professional translators alike'. Nonetheless, Blum-Kulka has also argued for a need to examine the effects of the use of cohesive features in translation, on both the TT level of explicitness and on the TT's overt meanings, as compared to the ST (ibid:33).

As pointed out by Halliday & Hasan (2001), cohesive ties do much more than provide a sense of continuity in a text. The choice involved in 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 (2001:297). In this study, two key cohesive devices, reference and conjunction will be explored in depth. Shifts in explicitness and in text meaning caused by these two devices will be analyzed in Chapter 6.

4.4.1.5   Cohesive Devices in Focus: Reference

As highlighted in Section 4.4.1.1, reference is one of the major cohesive devices. It occurs whenever the identity of what is being talked about can be retrieved from the immediate context. According to Baker, the traditional semantic view of reference is a relationship between the expressions in a text and entities in the real world (1992:181). As such the reference of a *table* is referring to a particular table that is being identified in a particular occasion (ibid:181). In Halliday & Hasan's (2001) model of cohesion, reference is used to refer to the relationship of identity which holds between two linguistic expressions. For example:

In a speech in Prague last spring, Obama noted that "in a strange turn of history, the threat of global war has gone down, but the risk of a nuclear attack has gone up." *He* warned that with more nations acquiring nuclear weapons, or wishing to, the scary but oddly stable reign of "mutual assured destruction" was giving way to a new disorder.

(Newsweek April 12, 2010, p31)

In the above example, the pronoun *he* points to Obama within the textual world itself. The cohesion here 'lies in the continuity of reference, whereby the same thing enters into the discourse a second time' (Halliday & Hasan, 2001:31). There are basically two types of reference that are important in constructing cohesion: endophoric reference, which relates to anaphoric (backward) and cataphoric (forward) reference within the text, and there is also exophoric reference, which relates to context outside the text.

4.4.1.5.1 Pronouns

According to Pinkham, the following three types of pronouns are generally used to replace nouns:

Personal pronouns	I, you, he, she, it, we, they (plus their objective and possessive forms - me/my/mine, him/his, etc.)
Relative pronouns	which, that, who/whom/whose, etc.
Demonstrative pronouns	this, that, these, those

(Pinkham 1998:202)

Pronouns are the most common reference in English. **Personal pronouns** are frequently used to refer back and occasionally forward, to an entity which has already

been introduced in the discourse. In other words, the function of pronouns is that they stand in for nouns. For example:

> In a speech in Prague last spring, Obama noted that "in a strange turn of history, the threat of global war has gone down, but the risk of a nuclear attack has gone up." He warned that with more nations acquiring nuclear weapons, or wishing to, the scary but oddly stable reign of "mutual assured destruction" was giving way to a new disorder. "As more people and nations break the rules, we could reach the point where the centre cannot hold." Obama stated "clearly and with conviction America's commitment to seek the peace and security of a world without nuclear weapons." But, he added, "I'm not naïve. *This* goal will not be reached quickly—perhaps not in my lifetime."

> (Newsweek April 12, 2010, p31)

Instead of using Obama again, the pronoun *he* is preferred. The pronoun has no identity in and of itself. Instead, it takes meaning from the context in which it is found. This meaning usually comes from the word for which the pronoun stands, or its antecedent. In the above example, *Obama* is the antecedent of the pronoun *he*. Apart from personal reference, items such as *the*, *this*, and *those* are used in the English language to express similar links between expressions in a text. With reference to the previous text, the reader has to go back to the previous stretch of discourse to establish what *This* (last line) refers to.

Relative Pronouns *who*, *which*, *whom* and *that* commonly refer to persons, animals, or things. This class of pronouns do not have Chinese equivalents (Pinkham 1998:203). Here are two examples quoted from Stubbs et al (2006:355):

1. Infants *that* walk need constant tending.
2. Dorothy is the girl *who* visits Oz.

In example 1, *that* refers to infants when they are collective and anonymous whereas *who* in the second example refers to the girl, Dorothy.

Demonstrative pronouns this, that, these and those can substitute nouns when the nouns they replace can be understood from the context. Demonstrative pronouns help to 'identify the referent by directly pointing to it in the verbal form and thus conveying a strong sense of information continuance' (Li Ji'an 1998:384). Below are two examples which illustrate the anaphoric reference by using demonstrative pronouns:

- Don't tell me we'll have hamburgers, sandwiches or hot dogs for lunch. I like none of *these*.

- They finally arrived at an agreement to stop fire. *That* agreement saved the country from war.

(Li Ji'an 1998:384)

The cataphoric reference of the demonstrative pronoun especially the use of *this* is by no means uncommon:

- When my grandfather was asked to tell us a story, he would began like *this*: a long, long time ago…

(Li Ji'an 1998:384)

4.4.1.5.2   Pronominal Reference in the Source Text (English) and Target Text (Chinese)

Pronominal reference, as demonstrated in Section 4.4.1.5.1 is a device which allows readers to trace participants, entities and events. According to Baker, one of the most common patterns to establish chains of reference in English and a number of other languages 'is to mention a participant explicitly in the first instance, for example by name or title, and then use a pronoun to refer back to the same participant in the immediate context' (1992:181). The following example, from the article *Vanessa-Mae: the beautiful young violinist*, illustrates networks of personal reference in a short paragraph:

> **Vanessa-Mae** was just in **her** mid-teens when she broke the pattern of the classical musicians with the release of **her** first fusion album *The Violin*, forming   a new style that has made **her** a multi-million-selling worldwide phenomenon. At the age of 25, **she** has been a superstar for a decade. Now **she** makes **her** Sony Classical debut and marks a new musical direction with the release of *Choreography*, a highly original album that celebrates dance rhythms from around the world.

(Yang Huilan, 2005:221)

Nonetheless, pronoun as a cohesive device of discourse does not function in the same way from language to language. English differs substantially from Chinese in terms of their pronominal reference pattern. Unlike the English language, with which one tends to rely heavily on pronominal reference in tracing participants, the Chinese language seems to have a totally different pattern. Baker states that pronouns are hardly use in Chinese writings, and 'once a participant is introduced, continuity of reference is signalled by omitting the subjects of the following clauses' (ibid:185). The following example is a case in point:

> 杨志取路，不数日，(0-1)来到东京；(0-2)入得城来，寻个客店，安歇下，庄客交还(0-3)担儿，(0-4)与了些银两，(0-5)自回去了。

（许余龙 2001：222）

> Yang Zhi thus journeyed on for many days and <u>he</u> went toward the eastern capital and <u>he</u> came into the city and found an inn and there settled <u>himself</u> to rest. The farmer gave <u>him</u> the bundle and received some silver and went back alone.

> (All Men Are Brothers, New York: The John Day Company, 1993, p. 197 quoted from Xu Yulong 2001:231)

In the Chinese text, there are two participants, one is '杨志' (Yang Zhi), the other is '庄客' (the farmer). '杨志' (Yang Zhi) is the main participant and is mentioned only once, that is at the beginning of the text. Zero pronouns are preferred when it can be inferred from logic or context. Either the proper name '杨志' (Yang Zhi) or the third

person pronoun 他 is deliberately left out in four places (0-1 to 0-4) and the person '庄客' (the farmer) is left out in slot 0-5. However, in the English back-translated version, the third person pronouns, namely <u>he</u>, <u>he</u>, <u>himself</u> and <u>him</u> are used in four places where they are not required in Chinese.

There is a sort of default mechanism telling readers that the participant last mentioned or, alternatively, the one in focus or the one that can be inferred on grounds of logic or context, is the subject of the following clause(s) unless otherwise indicated (Baker 1992:185). Li and Thompson (1979, 1981) have made an attempt to answer the question: if either a pronoun or a zero can occur, how does a speaker decide which is appropriate? Their tentative answer is that the use of pronouns has to do with highlighting the reference. In the above example, we know that the person addressed is '杨志' (Yang Zhi). The reader has to supply all the missing subjects and create his own chain of reference.

Apart from the frequent use of pronominal reference, the relative pronouns in English for example: which, that, whom, who, etc, do not even have Chinese equivalents. Another point to bear in mind is that most pronouns in English have more forms to choose from than do their corresponding pronouns in Chinese.

Due to the elliptical nature of the Chinese language, pronoun is less frequently used compared to, say, the English language. Readers are expected to 'grasp ideas that are not actually spelled out' (Pinkham 1998:210). As pointed out by Cheng Zhenqiu (1981: 68), 'the grammatical subject is often left out if it can be inferred from the context' as far as the Chinese language is concerned.

If readers are to understand what one has written, they need to be certain what noun the pronoun is replacing. Every pronoun in English as well as in Chinese must have a logical antecedent. In other words, a pronoun must refer unmistakably to its antecedent in order for the meaning to be clear. Otherwise, readers will be either confused or worse, misled.

To avoid unclear pronoun reference, the common sense rules given by Pinkham (1998: 204) and Fowler & Aaron (2007:351) states that a pronoun reference must be:

(1) explicitly stated, not merely implied; referring to a specific antecedent.

(2) unambiguous; not having more than one possible antecedent.

(3) close to the antecedents; not so far apart that the connection between the two words is hard to perceive.

Another type of reference relation which is not strictly textual is that of co-reference. An example of a chain of co-referential items is Mrs Thatcher → The Prime Minister → The Iron Lady → Maggie (Baker 1992:182). Baker argues that although recognizing a link between *Mrs Thatcher* and *The Iron Lady* depends on the knowledge of the world rather than on textual competence, for the purpose of translation, it is generally futile to draw a line between what is linguistic and what is textual (ibid).

4.4.1.6   Cohesive Device in Focus: Conjunction

In the literature, conjunction is discussed under many names: links, connectors (Werth 1984, Bulow-Moller 1989), conjunctions (Halliday & Hasan 2001, Baker 1992, Smith & Frawley 1983), discourse markers (Morenberg 2002) and logical connectives (Pinkham 1998). The term 'conjunction' and 'logical connective' are used interchangeably throughout this study.

According to Werth (1984:69) 'The logical connectors *&(and), Or, If...Then* have been extensively studied for about a century now…', but, as noted by Smith & Frawley, despite the fact that conjunction has been studied in some detail in the past, most of the work 'has been done on conjunction in narrative' (1983:349).

There is some uncertainty in the literature as to whether conjunctions within sentences can be considered as cohesive, since cohesion is considered by some linguists to be a relation between sentences rather than within sentences (see Halliday & Hasan 2001: 232). This means that subordinators are not, strictly speaking, considered a type of conjunction. For example, Halliday & Hasan (ibid:228) do not consider *after* a conjunction in the following example.

> *After* they had fought the battle, it snowed.

This is because it subordinates one part of the sentence to another but does not directly establish a link with another sentence. In the following example, by contrast, *afterwards* is considered a conjunction because it establishes a link between two sentences (ibid).

> They fought a battle. *Afterwards*, it snowed.

For Smith & Frawley (1983:355), however, the definition of conjunctive cohesion proposed by Halliday & Hasan (2001:226-73) is very narrow. According to Halliday & Hasan, conjunctive cohesion occurs extra- or cross-sententially and apparently only in sentence-initial position. All other uses, especially phrasal use, are termed structural.

> All grammatical units – sentences, clauses, groups, words – are internally 'cohesive' simply because they are structured…Structure is one means of expressing texture…so cohesion within a text-texture depends on something other than structure…Our use of the term COHESION refers specifically to these non-structural text-forming relations. (emphasis original)
>
> (Halliday & Hasan 2001:7)

Halliday & Hasan argue that the effect of cohesion across sentence boundaries is more striking, and the meaning is more obvious because 'they are the ONLY source of texture, whereas within the sentence there are the structural relations as well' (ibid:9). As such, Halliday & Hasan suggest that while cohesive ties do exist within a sentence, 'it is the inter-sentence cohesion that is significant, because that represents the variable aspect of cohesion, distinguishing one text from another' (ibid).

Nonetheless, as pointed out by Baker (1992:215), the definition of 'sentence' is problematic even in English, with its highly developed punctuation system. For example, when one uses conjunctions to link sentences, there are several punctuation options. You may put a comma before the conjunction. For example:

> The French love Charlie Chaplin's subtle clowning, *but* they revere Jerry Lewis' brash antics.

Or, you may put a semicolon before the conjunction:

> The French love Charlie Chaplin's subtle clowning; *but* they revere Jerry Lewis' brash antics.

Or, you may end the first sentence with a period and begin the next with a capital letter:

> The French love Charlie Chaplin's subtle clowning. *But* they revere
> Jerry Lewis' brash antics.

<div align="right">(Morenberg, 2002:132)</div>

In some languages, the notion of sentence is even more elusive. For instance, full stops in Arabic often occur only at the end of paragraphs, so that a whole paragraph will often consist of one very long 'sentence' (Baker 1992:215). Even Halliday & Hasan, who argue that the notion of sentence is essentially valid, admit that the punctuation system in general is very flexible and that 'the sentence itself is a very indeterminate category' (2001:232).

After weighing Halliday & Hasan's and Baker's views on conjunctions, it is obvious that Baker's view is more relevant to this study because Baker takes into consideration the punctuation system of English. Punctuation is used at random by some writers. As clearly shown by the examples given by Morenberg (2002) cited above, there is variety in the usage of punctuation with conjunction. Even Halliday & Hasan admit that the punctuation system in general is very flexible. As such, this study agrees with Frawley & Smith's point of view that Halliday & Hasan's definition of conjunctive cohesion is too restrictive for this study. This study also agrees with Baker that 'it makes more sense to take a broader view of cohesion, and to consider any element cohesive as long as it signals a conjunctive-type relation between parts of a text, whether these parts are sentences, dependent or independent clauses or paragraphs' (1992:192).

Conjunctions involve the use of formal markers to relate sentences, clauses and paragraphs to each other. Pinkham (1998:377) notes that 'the frequent appearance of conjunctions in any piece of prose demonstrates that, like the modest but indispensable

prepositions, they are among the most valuable words in the language'. Conjunctions are words and phrases that serve to join clauses and sentences together in a meaningful way. They include some of the shortest and simplest words in English, for instance, 'and', 'but' , 'if', 'also', 'too', 'since', 'then', and so on. They are seen as 'the glue' (Pinkham 1998:377) that holds English discourses together.

According to Baker (1992:190), the use of the conjunction 'does not instruct readers to supply missing information either by looking for it elsewhere in the text or by filling structural slots', but rather, it signals 'the way the writer wants the readers to relate what is about to be said to what has been said before' (ibid:191). They are the function words that are used to 'signal how the following word, phrase or clause is to be taken in context' (Bulow-Moller 1989:142). In other words, conjunctions are in some sense 'the writer's or speaker's comments about how she wants her text read or understood'. As such, conjunctions 'mark the discourse' (Morenberg 2002:134). It is as if the writer is saying, "now I'm going to sum up"; or "now I want you to understand what is happening in the meantime" (ibid).

To sum up, logical connectives indicate 'the direction the writer's thought is about to take, making it easy for the readers to follow' (Pinkham 1998:376). They offer 'one of the principle means of achieving continuity, coherence, and clarity in writings of any kind' (ibid:377). Therefore, in the ST as well as in the TT, logical connectives are 'signposts, signals, or cues inserted along the way which help to prevent our listener or reader from going astray' (Li Ji'an 1998:392).

4.4.1.6.1 The Five Main Conjunctive Relations

Conjunctions can be classified according to the different relations they express. There are many ways of classifying the types of conjunctive relations; different classification

highlight different aspect of the facts (see also Pinkham 1998:381). In this study, a scheme of five categories proposed by Halliday & Hasan (2001:238) has been adopted. The first four categories are-additives, adversatives, causals, and temporal. Apparently they do not follow the traditional classification of coordinating and subordinating because such a classification is syntactically motivated and Halliday and Hasan's research is centred on semantics. This also explain why sentence initial conjunction is their principal focus. The fifth category is termed *continuatives*. The five categories are summarized below, with examples of conjunctions which typically realize each relation:

(a) Additive: and, or, also, in addition, furthermore, besides, similarly, likewise, by contrast, for instance;

(b) Adversative: but, yet, however, instead, on the other hand, nevertheless, at any rate, as a matter of fact;

(c) Causal: so, consequently, it follows, for , because, under the circumstances, for this reason;

(d) Temporal: then, next, after that, on another occasion, in conclusion, an hour later, finally, at last;

(e) Continuative: now, of course, well, anyway, surely, after all.

(Baker 1992:191)

An additive is used when a statement or an utterance in a stretch of language is followed by another statement or utterance that adds something to the first: more information on the subject, supporting evidence for an argument, further development of the idea, and so on (Pinkham 1988:382).

The basic meaning of an adversative is 'contrast and opposition'. In terms of sequence of ideas, the second opposes and qualifies the first. In terms of content, the two successive clauses or utterances 'is not cumulative but contradictory' (Pinkham

1988:384). The use of adversative is vital in a piece of writing because it signals to the readers that the writer is changing direction.

The causal connective is used when a clause or utterance shows the consequence of another. According to Pinkham, the causal connectives are more important to readers' understanding than those which express contrast because if the readers fail to perceive the relation of cause and effect 'where the writer intended it, they will miss a crucial element of meaning' (ibid:387). The following example is given by Pinkham (ibid:388) to illustrate this point (numbers are inserted for ease of reference):

> (1)Private schools are in difficulty now because they can no longer rely on warlords and bureaucrat-capitalists for financial resources as they used to. (2)Their school farmland was distributed to peasants during the agrarian reform. (3)The government should show concern for these difficulties.

According to Pinkham, three ideas in this passage are simply "laid side by side" as three independent and seemingly unrelated statements. After revising the first sentence where "in difficulty" was changed to "having difficulties' to provide an antecedent for "these difficulties" in the last sentence and after the causal connective *and because* was inserted between the first and the second sentence as shown in the revised version below, the missing link between the first and second which is supposed to show the relation of cause and effect is established. Thus, now the third sentence seem to flow as a natural conclusion.

> (1)Private schools are having difficulties now, because they can no longer rely on warlords and bureaucrat-capitalists for financial support, (2)*and because* their school farmland was distributed to peasants during the agrarian reform. (3)The government should concern itself with these difficulties.

(Pinkham 1988:388)

Halliday and Hasan (2001) suggest a functional distinction in temporal conjunctions: "external" and "internal". Theoretically, external conjunction expresses the relationship between external phenomena, while internal conjunction indicates the relationship inherent in the communication process. The following examples illustrate the distinction between "external" and "internal":

(1) a. First he switched on the light. Next he inserted the key into
        the lock.
     b. First he was unable to stand upright. Next he was incapable of
        inserting the key into the lock.

<div align="right">(Halliday and Hasan, 2001:239)</div>

The 'nextness' in (1)a, according to Halliday and Hasan (ibid:239) is a 'relation between events' whereas in (1)b, the time sequence is in the 'speaker's organization of his discourse'. Thus, the relation is "internal" to the communication process. In reality, however, Halliday and Hasan themselves admit that the distinction is not always clearcut.

The fifth type of conjunction, the *continuatives* bring together a number of individual items that do not express any particular one of the conjunctive relations identified in the previous four types but are however 'used with a cohesive force in the text' (ibid:267). Under this category, six items, namely *now, of course, well, anyway, surely, after all* are discussed by Halliday and Hasan (ibid :268).

According to Baker (1992:191), in discussing and analyzing the use of conjunctions in any texts, four points need to be borne in mind. First, depending on the context, the same conjunction may be used to signal different relations. Second, there are other means of expressing the above conjunctive relations. For instance, in English, a causal relation may be expressed by a causal conjunction such as *consequently* and *because*.

However, the causal relation is also inherent in the meanings of verbs such as 'cause' and 'leads to'. Third, other than to reflect relations between external phenomena, conjunctive relations may also be set up to reflect relations which are internal to the text or communicative situation. The example provided by Baker (ibid) is the use of temporal relations. Apart from referring to sequences in real time, temporal relations may reflect stages in the unfolding text. An example is the use of *first*, *second* and *third* in this paragraph.

4.4.1.6.2   Conjunctions in the Source Text (English) and Target Text (Chinese)

Like the English language, conjunctions are used in Chinese writings as a means of achieving logical connectedness. However, in discussing the use of conjunctions in English-Chinese translation, Xu Jianping (2003: 54) points out that:

> Chinese is considered an analytic language and many conjunctions that are indispensable in English may seem redundant in Chinese. Therefore, omission of the conjunction is a common practice in English-Chinese translation.

Pinkham in her book *The Translator's Guide to Chinglish* (1988:376) states that in the domain of logical connectives, Chinese translators working with English source texts do not always use conjunctions correctly because equivalent expressions are often lacking. Some logical connectives in English are omitted freely in Chinese translation because Chinese readers understand a text without these clues (ibid:376, see also Liu Miqing 1998: 385-401).

According to Pinkham again, more often than not, when relations between ideas have only to be suggested in Chinese discourses, they must be plainly stated in English. She has substantiated this proposition with many examples where various types of

connectives are missing from the English texts translated from Chinese (1998:382-427).

An example taken from a draft translation of an account of "the War of Resistance against Japanese Aggression" is reproduced here as illustration:

> As for the Chinese, in the stage of strategic defensive, the Kuomintang troops staged one retreat after another in front-line battlefields. Although the people's anti-Japanese forces had expanded, they were far from being able to carry out a strategic counter-offensive; before they were ready to do that they would still have a long, hard struggle to go through.

> (Pinkham, 1998:382-383)

According to Pinkham, the first sentence in the above example states that the Kuomintang forces were continually retreating and the second sentence conveys the information that the revolutionary forces were not yet ready to mount an offensive. Since the second sentence adds information that reinforces the first, readers should be made aware of that before they come to it, a simple 'and' should be inserted to serve the purpose :

> As for the Chinese, in the stage of strategic defensive, the Kuomintang troops staged one retreat after another in front-line battlefields. *And* although the people's anti-Japanese forces had expanded, they were far from being able to carry out a strategic counter-offensive; before they were ready to do that they would still have a long, hard struggle to go through.

> (Pinkham, 1998:383)

However, unlike English, the relation of addition or amplification is often left implicit in Chinese, as shown by the example given below (Liu Miqing 1998:388):

> Every one was excited. *And* we were anxious to dive for a firsthand look at the creatures we had discovered.

> 大家都激动起来，迫切地想潜到海底亲眼看看我们发现的生物。
> （省 去"而"、"而且"等）

> *(BT: Every one was excited, eager to dive into the sea for a look at the creature we had discovered.)*

In this example, the conjunction *And* was not substituted with its equivalent Chinese conjunction '而' or '而且'; in fact, the two sentences were joined as one in the Chinese rendition (ibid).

Below is an English text and its Chinese translated version cites by Xu Yulong (2001: 354-355) from Yuan Jinxiang (1994) to illustrate the fact that the conjunction is less frequently used in Chinese and different types of conjunctions are preferred in the Chinese text compared to its English original.

English	Chinese
A second aspect of technology transfer concentrates on US high technology exports. China has correctly complained in the past that the US was unnecessarily restrictive in limiting technology sales to China. Recently some liberalization has taken place *and*[1] major increases in technology transfers have taken place as the result. *However*[2], some items continue to be subject to restrictions and unnecessary delay, in part *because*[3] the US Government submits many items to COCOM for approval. There is significant room for improvement with the US bureaucracy and COCOM. *But*[4] there is also reason to believe that the flow of technology will continue to grow *and*[5] that much of the major new technological innovation likely to occur in the US in coming years will be available to China. *Also*[6], *as*[7] new technology is developed in the US and other industrialized countries, older technologies will become available at a lower price *and*[8] export restrictions on them will ease. (Robert D. Hormats: "New Opportunities in China's Economic Cooperation with Other Countries")	技术转让的第二个方面集中在美国的高技术出口方面。 过去中国曾抱怨说，美国不必要地限制对中国出售技术，这种抱怨是情有可原的。 由于近来限制有所放宽， 技术转让大大增加。但是，还有些项目限制出口或受到不必要的延误，其中部分原因是： 美国政府要把许多项目提交巴黎统筹委员会批准。 美国的官僚主义 和巴黎统筹委员会的做法都大有改进的余地。 我们同样也有理由相信技术交流会继续发展； 在今后几年里， 美国可能出现的重大技术革新项目， 有许多会转让给中国。 随着新技术在美国和其他工业化国家发展， 老一些的技术将以较低的价格出售， 对它们的限制也会放宽。 （李正中、王恩冕、余去媚编著 : <新编英汉翻译> 中国国际广播出版社，1992 年, 355-366 页）

According to Yuan (Xu Yulong, 2001:355), there are 8 conjunctions used in the English text: *and*[1], *However*[2], *because*[3], *But*[14], *and*[5], *Also*[6], *as*[7], *and*[8]. In the Chinese

target text however, three of the conjunctions: But[4], *and*[5], *Also*[6] are left out. Another four, namely *and*[1] is substituted with '由于' (because) which indicates a causal relation; *because*[3] is rendered as one with a subject predicate "其中(部分)原因是" (the reason (part of them) is); *as*[7] was substituted with "随着" (followed by); *and*[8] is rendered as "也"(also). All in all, only the adversative conjunction *However*[2] in the English ST is substituted with its Chinese equivalent 但是 (however) in the TT (Ibid).

Another researcher, Wu (quoted as in Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2006:54), using contrastive analysis as well as making use of parallel written texts in English and Chinese, shows that although both the English and Chinese languages have equally large inventories of logical connectors or conjunctives; in written discourse, 'English makes significantly more frequent use of its stock of conjunction-marking words and phrases than does Chinese'. Other Chinese researchers such as Xu Yuloong (2001:354) also reports that compared to English, logical connectives are less used in Chinese (cf. 刘宓庆 1992, 连淑能 1993).

4.4.2 Coherence

Apart from cohesion, an effective argumentative discourse also requires coherence. Coherence contributes to the unity of a piece of discourse such that 'the individual sentences or utterances hang together and relate to each other' (Celce-Murcia & Olsthia 2006:8). In this study, coherence is looked upon as a general notion for the overall connectedness in a text. Nonetheless, the devices for achieving coherence rarely appear in isolation in effective texts. Writers usually combine sensible organization, parallelism, repetition, pronouns, consistency, and transitional expressions to help readers follow the development of ideas (Fowler & Aaron, 2007). All these devices must be handled by

the translator tactfully so that not superficial coherence, but underlying clarity of relationships, could be achieved in the target text.

4.4.2.1 Defining Coherence

According to de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981), coherence is the procedure which ensures conceptual connectivity, including (1) logical relations, (2) organization of events, objects or situations; and (3) connectivity in human experience. It concerns "the ways in which the components of the TEXTUAL WORLD, the configuration of CONCEPTS and RELATIONS which underlie the surface text, are *mutually accessible and relevant*" (1981:4; *capital letters and italics original*).

Unlike cohesion, coherence may or may not be indicated by formal markers of cohesion. The following examples taken from Balkrishan Kachroo (1984:128), are reproduced here to illustrate this point.

- (A) 1. John likes Helen.
       2. She, however, hates him.

- (B) 1. Do you have coffee to go?
       2. Cream and sugar?

Both texts (A) and (B) are coherent. In (A), the link between (1) and (2) is provided by pronominalization, that is, the use of third person pronoun *she* to refer back to *Helen* and *he* to refer back to *John*. It is a 'purely linguistic link' (ibid:128). In (B) however, the 'semantic link' depends on 'knowledge of the real world' (ibid:128). Though there is no overt cohesive device in the text, it is perfectly coherent because the ideas presented make logical connections with reality.

In short, coherence can be seen as how meanings and sequences of ideas relate to each other. For instance, how substantiations are logically related to a claim in an argumentative text. When sentences, ideas and details fit together and readers can follow the development of the argument easily, the writing is coherent. Coherence can thus be seen as the text 'making sense' as a whole at the level of ideas.

Nonetheless, linguists have their own views as to the meaning and nature of coherence. Some linguists view coherence as a property of text. For instance, Blum-Kulka (1986:17) defines coherence as 'a covert potential meaning relationship among parts of a text, made overt by the reader or listener through processes of interpretation'. Baker (1992:221) comments that Blum-Kulka's definition implies that meaning, or coherence, is 'a property of a text which is accessible through processes of interpretation'. Hoey sums up coherence as ' a facet of the reader's evaluation of a text', and as such it is 'subjective and judgements concerning it may vary from reader to reader' (1991:12). This again suggests that coherence is a property of text and its meaning depends on readers' evaluation of the text.

de Beaugrande & Dressler (1981) also view coherence as a property of text. According to them: 'Some times, though not always, the relations are not made EXPLICIT in the text, that is, they are not ACTIVATED directly by expressions of the surface. People will supply as many relations as are needed to make sense out of the text as it stands' (ibid:4). This again suggests that coherence is a property of text but at times it is obtained through the process of interpretation by a reader.

However, there are other linguists who do not accept that meaning is in the text. Firth (1964:111) asserts that "'meaning' is a property of the mutually relevant people, things, and events in the situation". According to Charolles, 'no text is inherently coherent or incoherent', the ability to make sense of a text depends on the readers' expectation and

experience of the world because a reader understands a text '… in a way which seems coherent to him - in a way which corresponds with his idea of what it is that makes a series of actions into an integrated whole' (1983:95).

Baker (1992:222) also holds the view that coherence is not a feature of text because in the final analysis, a reader can only make sense of a text by analyzing the linguistic elements which constitutes it against the backdrop of his own knowledge and experience. To Baker, it is reasonable to suggest that whether meaning is a property of text or situation, coherence is 'the judgement made by a reader on a text' (ibid).

Hatim & Mason (1990:194) however, hold a different view on this matter. They note that readers usually assume that the utterances presented to them are 'intended to be coherent'. However, the two linguists argue that this kind of presumption would undervalue the importance of the textual evidence, that is, the lexico-grammatical choice which, 'apart from paralinguistic features, is the only evidence we can ultimately rely on' (ibid).

Though it is undeniable that coherence can only be achieved through interaction between the text and the readers, and texts are intended to be coherent and every reader understands a text in a way which seems coherent to him, this study concurs with Hatim & Mason (1990) that textual evidence – the lexico-grammatical choice – is the only evidence we can ultimately rely on. In Brown & Yule's (1983:25) term: 'what the textual record means is determined by our interpretation of what the producer intended it to mean'. As suggested by Hatim & Mason, 'text producers intend meaning and receivers perceive and interpret intended meaning and underlying coherence on the basis of the textual evidence or by virtue of the textual record' (1990:194).

In defining coherence, it is clear that the text cannot be separated from the readers, and the text should be approached from a reader's point of view (Blum-Kulka 1986). Nonetheless, it is on the basis of textual evidence provided by the text (Hatim & Mason 1990, Fowler 2007) that readers interpret and try to perceive the intended meaning of a text.

4.4.2.2   Coherence in the Source and Target Texts

As pointed out by Ka Xiaoyun (2003:1), coherence 'should be detected and rendered by referring to the interplay of syntactic, semantic, pragmatic and stylistic devices of a text'. Syntactically and pragmatically, coherence concerns all individual information units – lexical units including words, collocations and fixed expressions or idioms, and sentential units including clauses, phrases and sentences. In short, coherence at a higher level builds on coherence at the lower level, which involves the entire text.

Coherence needs to be maintained if communication is to be successful, as pointed out by Neubert and Shreve (1992:93): 'Text-based translation is to establish in the target text a coherence functionally parallel to that of the source text' and 'the maintenance of coherence should be established as a criterion for adequate translation' (ibid:99).

Generally speaking, a source text which exists on its own is coherent both within the text, and between the text and the real world (Ka Xiaoyun 2003:1). To translate means to render a target text from a source text; as such, it is important to re-establish coherence at different levels in the target text so that upon completion, the target text reads naturally and smoothly; no information in the source text is distorted; and every part of the text holds together. It will then spare readers the extra effort to go back and

forth in reading when they are trying to decipher the underlying relationship between sentences and parts of the text. In terms of an argumentative text, re-establishing coherence in the TT enables the target language readers to understand and to be convinced, or at least to appreciate that the argument put forward by a writer is reasonable and well-structured.

4.4.2.3   Interpretability of Texts

This study adopts a discoursal and communicative approach to the study of translation outlined by Blum-Kulka in her significant and widely quoted paper *Shifts of Cohesion and Coherence in Translation* (1986). And coherence is looked upon as the text's 'interpretability'.

In discussing the interpretability of a text and discourse as a given sequence of sentences which form a connected whole, Werth notes that:

> …among the speakers of any language there exists a "drive to interpret": there is, that is to say, a strong presumption on the part of the listener/reader that any sequence of sentences of his language he encounters will in fact "make sense". If the individual sentences make sense, he will act on the assumption that they are also connected sensibly, until he is forced to accept otherwise.

(1984:21)

What is noted by Werth holds true for any piece of discourse or text including of course, translated texts. It is reasonable to assume that the TT readers will, like the ST readers, go all their way to interpret the discourse they encounter as something which 'makes sense' to them (Baker 1992). In trying to 'make sense' of a text, readers are inevitably involved in interpreting and interpreting necessitates making inferences (Hatim 2001, Baker 1992). This is because in the process of reading, readers would like to know not

only what the author actually says or shows, but also what the author does not say or show but has built into the work either intentionally or unintentionally (Fowler & Aaron 2007).

4.4.2.3.1 Inference and Implicature

Readers seek an explanation of meaning or work out the meaning or significance of certain elements through interpretation. Interpretation usually requires the readers to 'infer the author's assumptions, opinions or beliefs about what is or what could or should be' (Fowler & Aaron 2007:159).

The terms *implicature* and *inference* represent one of the most important notions emerging from text studies after the 'textual turn' which gained momentum throughout the 1970s (de Beaugrande 1978). These two terms describe the same event, but from different points of views. If a speaker or writer implies (hence, the term implicature) something, he suggests it without saying it directly. If a hearer or reader infers (hence, the term inference) something from a speaker or writer's implicature, he comes to the conclusion that this is what he/she understands.

Implicature and inference is essential in maintaining the coherence of a discourse because as suggested by Hatim & Mason, in addition to textual cohesion, implicature is 'an essential property of the communication process' (1990:197); and, for inference to be reasonable, readers must be able to make interpretive inferences based on the implicit information communicated to them in a translation.

Like ST readers, to appreciate what is going on in a text, TT readers are inevitably engaged in some form of inferencing. A translator has to bear in mind that a satisfactory translation must guide the TT readers properly towards making appropriate inferences; the same manner ST readers are able to do (Hatim 1997, Hatim & Munday 2004, Baker 1992). As pointed out by Hatim & Munday: 'this kind of inferential input is to be used as a basis for the decision-making involved what to say and how to say it in the translation' (2004:58).

4.4.2.3.2   The Cooperative Principle

Werth (1984:60) looks at implicature as 'the pragmatic connectivity between one utterance and another in discourse'. The term *implicature* was originally used by Grice (1975), on the basis of the Cooperative Principle, to refer to what a speaker means or implies rather than what he literally says. Although Grice's work is concerned with spoken exchanges, and a very small sub-set of question/answer sequences, his view has been applied to translation studies (Hatim & Mason 1990, Baker 1992).

Grice (1975) suggests that discourse is connected and has a purpose.   It is a co-operative effort that gives rise to a general principle of communication – the Cooperative Principle – which every participant is expected to observe:

> "Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged".

(Grice, 1975:45)

Grice (1975) goes on to distinguish four categories from which he derives a number of specific maxims:

1.   The maxim of Quantity

   (a) Make your contribution as informative as is required (for the current purposes of the exchange); and,

   (b) Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

2.   The maxim of Quality

   (a) Try to make your contribution one that is true, specifically:

      (i) Do not say what you believe to be false; and,

      (ii) Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.

3.   The maxim of Relation

   (a) Make your contributions relevant to the current exchange.

4.   The maxim of Manner

   (a) Avoid obscurity of expression;

   (b) Avoid ambiguity;

   (c) Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity); and,

   (d) Be orderly.

Celce-Murcia & Olshtain (2006) note that these maxims can be considered basic assumptions which people follow in their communicative interactions. Generally speaking, in any communication situation, 'people will provide just the appropriate amount of information for the other party to be able to interpret the intention' (ibid:23) and it is generally assumed that 'people tell the truth, that their contributions are relevant to the discussion at hand (or the truth as best known to them), and that they try to be as clear as they can' (ibid).

Celce-Murcia & Olsthain further elaborate that in relation to the maxim of Quantity, communicators are, in most cases, aware of the need to cooperate in terms of quantity of information in order to allow the other party to 'make the proper inferences and to get to

the intention of the language user' (ibid). In this regard, Celce-Murcia & Olsthain gave an example: "someone at the information counter may simply provide supplementary information upon seeing the confused look on the hearer's face" (ibid). This is to ensure that the hearer gets sufficient information and manage to get the intention of the speaker.

In relation to the maxim of Quality, Celce-Murcia & Olsthain note that various hedges, for instance, the qualifying openers such as: '*As far as I know*'; '*I'm not quite sure but I believe that…*'; '*I think that …*' may be used if one is not completely sure that one has proper evidence for the statements one makes (ibid). The use of such openers, according to them, releases speakers 'from the need to adhere fully to the maxim of quality and allows them to state beliefs or opinions rather than facts' (ibid).

As for the maxim of Relation or relevance, Celce-Murcia & Olsthain point out that this maxim plays a significant role in maintaining the topic of conversation. For instance, if one wants to change the topic, he can do so by using some introductory or opening phrase such as 'On another matter altogether…,' or by producing 'an utterance that is no longer relevant and thus move the conversation towards a new topic' (ibid). In terms of maxim of Manner, utterances should be constructed in an optimal style or manner. They should be brief, clear, and orderly.

4.4.2.3.3   The Cooperative Principle and Translation

To Baker, Grice's Cooperative Principles provide 'points of orientation' (1992:225) to be followed by language users. She has further explored its application to the general relevance of translation, especially *conversational implicature* that can 'explain how a speaker may mean more than what he/she says'. The difference between what a speaker says and what he means necessitates readers to make a distinction between the nature of

a sentence and of an utterance. A sentence is 'abstract and context-free' (Bell 1991:107). It is always taken as a unit of grammatical analysis, whereas, an utterance 'can be typified as being concrete and context-sensitive' and 'it is judged in terms of appropriateness rather than grammatically' (ibid).

Since communication has a purpose and is a cooperative effort, it is assumed that participants in a conversation will observe the maxims outlined by Grice in the above section. However, in some situations, a participant in a conversation may try to avoid adhering to one or more of the maxims in order to evade a topic or question. In other words, participants in a conversation may flout any of the maxims in order to convey an intended meaning. Conversational maxims and the implicature that result from observing or flouting the four principles may be adapted to serve the purpose of the participants in a conversation, for instance, to convey information, thus influencing the opinions and emotions and convincing the hearers (Baker 1992).

According to Baker (1992), conversational implicature, also known as pragmatic inference (Grice 1975), or pragmatic connectivity (Werth 1984) allows us to achieve and maintain the coherence of a discourse (see also Hatim & Munday 2004) because in conversation as well as in written texts, readers are bound to encounter 'aspects of meaning which are over and above the literal and conventional meaning of an utterance and they depend for their interpretation on a recognition of the Cooperative Principle and its maxims' (Baker 1992:227).

Baker has further explored the role of conversational implicature in terms of interpretability; key to textual coherence. According to her:

> …we assume that both addressor and addressee are operating the Co-operative Principle, and in particular the maxim of Relevance. We will

therefore go out of our way to find an interpretation that will connect it to the previous utterance. We attribute relevance to what we hear and read even when it appears, on the surface, to be unrelated to the preceding discourse and regardless of whether a relation is explicitly signalled.

(1992: 226)

Baker (ibid) goes on to illustrate the importance of conversational implicature in maintaining the coherence of discourse by giving the following example:

Elizabeth is putting on a lot of weight. She smokes very heavily.

According to Baker, readers will naturally strive to relate the two propositions. A few inferences can be made: (1) the speaker implies that Elizabeth is putting on a lot of weight because she is smoking too heavily; (2) Elizabeth is smoking too heavily because she is putting on a lot of weight, perhaps as a way of controlling her appetite; or, (3) Elizabeth is putting on a lot of weight in spite of the fact she is smoking too heavily (ibid). Which inference to draw will depend on a variety of factors such as the readers' knowledge of the world, for instance, the relationship between smoking, appetite, weight gain and the reader's knowledge about the participants in the discourse and so on (ibid).

In order to guide the TT readers into making appropriate inferences as can be made by the ST readers, the translator may want to consider the 'Minimax Principle' proposed by Levy (1967) as part of the decision making process characteristic of any translation. For maximum effect with minimal effort, the translator should think through the following when pondering whether to omit or preserve a certain element in the TT: "Would preserving a certain linguistic element, for example a proverb or a fixed expression be worth the TT readers' effort?" "If the linguistic element is omitted from

the text, will it hamper the effort of the TT readers to 'make sense' out of the stretch of language?" According to Hatim & Munday (2004:60), it is precisely the consideration about 'a solution which promises maximum effect for minimal effort' that a translator must bear in mind when he/she decides to omit whatever element or feature in a ST.

4.4.2.3.4   Calculability of Original Implicature and Making Inference

In general, readers will go by the Cooperative Principle discussed above, and try to make sense out of a text. With any wrong decision made in the process of translation, however, calculability of the original implicature (Baker 1992:229) and hence, appropriate inference, will be seriously undermined. Baker (1992) has provided an example on how mistranslating a collocation has made understanding of the original implicature impossible in the TT, and thus affecting the coherence of the entire stretch of language involved:

> All this represents only a part of all that Forbes magazine reported on Fayed in the March issue mentioned before. In 1983, he had approached the industrialist Robert O. Anderson under the cover of a commission agent. The industrialist had been struck by his appearance as someone with *modest means*. Mr Anderson was therefore astonished by his sudden acquisition of a considerable fortune.

> (A Hero from Zero p.5, quoted as in Baker 1992:229)

According to Baker (ibid), taking into consideration the co-text and context of the above extract and the relevant background knowledge, most readers of the ST will infer that Fayed has come to wealth suddenly, and quite possibly, by dishonest means. However, *modest means* in the above text was translated as 'his appearance suggests modesty and simplicity' in the Arabic text. Like ST readers, TT readers try to interpret the discourse they encounter by providing necessary links to render the discourse coherent (ibid:226).

Baker aptly points out that like the ST readers, TT readers believe that "the writer cannot be disregarding the maxims of Relevance and Quantity unless the Cooperative Principle is not being adhered to, and there is no reason to suspect that it is not" (ibid:229). Nonetheless, the mistranslation has left the Arab readers feeling 'somewhat unsure of how to interpret the favourable description of Fayed as simple and modest in a context which otherwise seems to suggest that he is anything but a "nice person"' (ibid).

Though finding Grice's Cooperative Principle and its maxims to be relevant and 'provide points of orientation' for language users, Baker does admit that inference 'is a difficult topic which remains largely unresolved' (ibid:228). She maintains that conversational implicature is often indeterminate and, in most cases, an utterance is not confined to one interpretation but several possible ones. In either case, Baker argues, it complicates the task of a translator because he may 'knowingly or unknowingly eliminate certain possible interpretations of the original from the target text' or 'inadvertently give rise to other interpretations which are not derivable from the original text' (ibid).

Indeterminacy aside, Grice (quoted in Baker 1992:228) has cited a few factors which contribute to the readers' success, or failure, in working out implicatures:

1. The conventional meaning of the words and structures used (i.e. a translator's mastery of the language system), and the identity of references involved;

2. The Cooperative Principle and its maxims;

3. The context, linguistic or otherwise, of an utterance;

4. Other items of background knowledge;

5. The fact (or supposed fact) that all relevant items falling under the previous headings are available to both participants and both participants know and assume this to be the case.

4.4.2.4   Shifts in Coherence

As shown by the example from Baker quoted in the above section (p.130), mistranslation could divert readers' attention from the original implicature in the TT, and as a result, seriously undermine the coherence of the text. This research, adopting Newmark's definition (1993:128), looks upon mistranslation as 'a case when a back translation or a segment of the translator's version would indisputably produce a segment of text differing from the original segment'. Newmark further suggests that if the error 'is due to the translator's ignorance or incompetence, the result would be a poor translation' (ibid).

There are a number of factors that lead to a translator producing segments of text differing from the original segments (Baker 1992, Newmark 1988). Among these are:

1. the handling of lexicals (that is, words, collocations, fixed expressions and idioms);

2. the handling and correct usage of punctuation;

3. the rendering of ST parallelism in the TT; and,

4. the omission of ST lexical items without justifiable reasons.

5. the wilful or faulty rechunking.

Choices made by a translator which cause errors in an argumentative text may cause shifts of coherence which, among others, include:

1. Distorting the meaning intended by the text producer;

2. Giving rise to unintended interpretation and inference;

3. Eliminating certain possible interpretations of the original from the target text;

4. Causing the lost of a whole layer of meaning in a stretch of language; and,

5. Leaving readers feeling confused and unsure about the logic and reasonableness of a text.

(Blum-Kulka 1986, Baker 1992)

4.4.2.4.1 Lexicals and Mistranslation

Newmark notes in his book *A Textbook of Translation* (1988) that the chief difficulties one would encounter in the course of translation involve lexicals, which include words, collocations, and fixed expressions and idioms (ibid:32). According to Ka Xiaoyun (2003:1), lexicals are 'micro-coherences which contribute to the overall impression that a text "hangs together".

The following discussion highlights the four identified aspects pertaining to lexicals, namely, words, collocations, fixed expressions and idioms; and the impact of mistranslation pertaining to each of this.

4.4.2.4.1.1 Words

According to Choy (2006:43), the readability and acceptability of a piece of translated text depends on the words used, and how they are strung together. Though the author is the one who determines the meanings, the translator, who acts as a second *sender* in the process of translation, bears the responsibility of choosing and deciding the right words to convey the meanings intended by the author.

Errors in translation pertaining to words may be caused by non-equivalence. On this topic, Baker (1992: 21-40) discussed 11 common types of non-equivalence at the word level and the strategies used by professional translators to deal with them. She stresses the importance to first assess a non-equivalence's bearing on the development of a text, because it is 'neither possible nor desirable to reproduce every aspect of meaning for every word in a source text'. Nonetheless, Baker notes that a translator must try his best to 'convey the meaning of key words which are focal to the understanding and development of a text' (ibid:26) because at times, 'even mistranslating a single lexical item can affect the way a text coheres' (ibid:253).

4.4.2.4.1.2 Collocations

Collocation is seen by Halliday and Hasan as 'cohesion that is achieved through the association of lexical items that regularly co-occur' (2001:284). Halliday & Hasan offer the following types of association as examples; they do admit that there are other instances where the association between lexical items cannot readily be given a name but is nevertheless felt to exist.

- All types of oppositeness: e.g. boy/girl; pretty/ugly; tall/short;

- Pairs of words drawn from the same ordered series: e.g. Tuesday/Thursday; dollar/cent; north/south;

- Pairs of words drawn from unordered lexical sets: e.g. red…green; road…rail

- Part-whole relation : car/brake; box/lid;

- Part-part relations : mouth/chin; verse/chorus;

- Co-hyponymy: chair/table (furniture); walk/drive (both hyponyms of go)

- Pairs of lexical items associated with each other in some way: laugh/joke; garden/dig; ill/doctor.

(Halliday & Hasan 2001:285)

In this study, collocation is defined as 'the tendency of certain words to co-occur regularly in a given language' (Baker 1992:47). This is the case in English as well as in Chinese. For example, the word *cheque* in English (or '支票' (cheque) in Chinese is more likely to co-occur with *bank, pay, money* and *write* than with *chair, custard, mend* or *window*.

To a certain extent, words are context-bound in their meaning (Newmark 1988, Baker 1992). Newmark (1988:193) notes that 90% of the time, the linguistic context may be limited to a collocation or in the case of an extended metaphor, a proverb, or a sentence. The meaning of a large number of words is determined by their collocations and there are restrictions on the co-occurrence of words in the source language as well as the target language.

In order to give an account of the meaning of a word, we can contextualize it in its most typical collocations (ibid:53). For example, the English verb *killed* collocates with a number of nouns, for each of which a different verb is used in the Chinese language. The Chinese 'dictionary equivalent' of *killed* is '杀'. The examples taken from Xu Yulong in the next page illustrate this significant difference in usage.

(a)	He *killed* the man	他杀了那个人。
(b)	He *killed* the dog	他杀了那条狗。
(c)	He *killed* the tree by spraying too heavily.	他给树浇了太多的水, 把树浇死了。
(d)	He *killed* time every day down at the park.	他天天在那边的公园里消磨时光。
(e)	He *killed* his chances of success.	他断送了成功的机会。
(f)	They *killed* the motion when it came from the committee	委员会提出那个提案, 他们就把它否决了。

(Source Xu Yulong 2001:139)

According to Xu Yulong (2001:139), the verb *killed* as shown by the examples given above can be used for human beings, animals or plants (a, b, and c); it can also collocate with a number of inanimate nouns as in examples (d), (e) and (f). In Chinese, the verb '杀' (killed/murdered) is generally used for human beings and animals, but not for plants. The above examples suggest that the meaning of *killed* depends largely on its pattern of collocation and is not something that the word possesses in isolation (ibid).

Newmark (1988:213) states that at times, translation is a 'continual struggle to find appropriate collocations' in the target texts. And criticism about the inaccuracy or inappropriateness of the translation of a word or a stretch of language 'may refer to the translator's inability to recognize a collocational pattern with a unique meaning different from the sum meanings of its individual elements' (Baker 1992:53).

According to Baker, statements about collocations are made 'in terms of what is typical rather than what is admissible or inadmissible'. In English as well as in Chinese, words attract new collocates all the time either through the process of analogy or because speakers or writers create unusual collocations on purpose. In any language, patterns of collocation which have a history of recurrence in the language become a part of its

standard linguistic repertoire, and readers do not stop to ponder over them when they encounter them in a text (ibid:50).

Compared to unmarked collocations or usual collocations, marked collocations usually deserve more attention from translators. Marked collocations are collocations which 'have little or no history of recurrence' (ibid:50), and are used in the ST for the purpose of creating new images. How it should be rendered in the TT is 'subjected to the constraints of the target language and to the purpose of the translation in question' (ibid:61).

Baker (1992, see also Newmark 1988, Siguo 2008) notes that it is important that a translator avoids carrying over the source-language collocational patterns atypical of the target language. For example, *keep a dog/cat* has no acceptable equivalent in the Chinese language, where the customary expression is '养了一只狗/猫' (**raise** a dog/cat). Siguo (2008) notes that there are at times when a translator is too engrossed in the ST, that he/she may carry over the collocational patterning and produce awkward collocations in the target language which native speakers could not make sense out of it. One of the examples given by Siguo (2008: 197) is: *I can't help disliking her*, translated into: '我**不能避免**不喜欢她' (literally, I can't avoid disliking her). According to Siguo, the translation sounds too foreign for native Chinese speakers to understand it. Among the suggested improvements given by Siguo are: '想喜欢她也不行' (can't seem to like her), '没有法子喜欢她' (no way to like her), '我想喜欢她, 可是办不到' (I try to like her, but to no avail).

According to Baker, confusing source and target language patterns is a pitfall in translation that can be avoided, if the translator is alerted to the potential influence collocational patterning can have on his work. Baker suggests that one way to avoid

carrying over the source language's collocational pattern atypical of the target language is to detach oneself from the source text by leaving it aside for a few hours before returning to it. This way, Baker claims, 'the translator will have a better chance of responding to its patterning as a target reader eventually would, having not been exposed to and therefore influenced by the source text patterning in the first place' (1992:55).

The use of language patterns familiar to target readers 'plays an important role in keeping the communication channels open' and 'helps to distinguish between a smooth translation, one that reads like an original, and a clumsy translation which sounds "foreign'' (Baker 1992:57, Siguo 2008).

It is understandable that a translator will try as hard as possible to produce a collocation which is typical in the target language and at the same time preserving the meaning associated with the source collocation (Baker 1992). Nonetheless, as pointed out by Baker, even the nearest acceptable collocation in the target language will often involve some change in meaning. The example below has been taken from Baker to illustrate this point (1992:58):

ST: These young pandas in Beijing Zoo are great *crowd pullers*.

TT: 北京动物园里的这些幼熊猫吸引着大量的观众。

(BT: These young pandas in Beijing Zoo **attract** a lot of **spectators.)**

According to Baker, though much of the evoked meaning of *crowd pullers* is lost in the Chinese translation, the collocation used to replace it in the Chinese TT is more natural and stylistically more acceptable. This is because, first, *crowd puller* is not an

acceptable collocation in Chinese and it is quite an informal expression. Baker notes that informal style is not favoured in written Chinese discourse (ibid). As such, the slight change in meaning is not significant enough to justify the use of atypical target language collocation.

Collocations must be given specific attention in the revision stages of translation because they are 'always linked with the concept of naturalness and usage' (Newmark 1988:214). Recognizing whether or not a collocation is natural and acceptable in a given context is one of the most important tasks of a translator in the revision stage of translation (Newmark 1988, Baker 1992, Siguo 2008).

4.4.2.4.1.3   Fixed Expressions and Idioms

Fixed expressions and idioms, as defined by Baker (1992:63), are 'frozen patterns of language which allow little or no variation in form and, in the case of idioms, often carry meanings which cannot be deduced from their individual components'. This holds true for English as well as for Chinese. For instance, under normal circumstances, English idioms such as *bury the hatchet* (to become friendly again after a disagreement or a quarrel) or *the long and the short of it* (the basic facts of the situation) and Chinese idioms such as '同舟共济' (pulling together in times of trouble) or '柔肠寸断' (be overcome with great sadness) allow no variations in form.

Fixed expressions, unlike idioms, have fairly transparent meanings. The example *as a matter of fact* is given by Baker (1992: 64)to illustrate this point. The meaning of this fixed expression can be easily deduced from the meanings of the words which constitute

it. Nonetheless, Baker notes that despite its transparency, each fixed expression has to be taken 'as one unit to establish meaning' (ibid:64).

The main problems concerning idiomatic and fixed expressions in the translation process, according to Baker, relate to two main areas: first, the translator's ability to recognize and interpret them correctly; and second, the difficulties of rendering them with a suitable target language equivalent (ibid). Baker further notes that there are two reasons how an idiom in English, as well as in other languages can be easily misinterpreted.

Firstly, a large number of idioms have both a literal and an idiomatic meaning. A translator who is unfamiliar with the idiom in question may be too ready to accept the literal interpretation, and miss the idiomatic meaning the writer is trying to convey. An example given by Baker to illustrate this point is *take someone for a ride* (deceive or cheat someone in some way). According to Baker, this idiom 'lends itself easily to manipulation by speakers and writers who will sometimes play on both their literal and idiomatic meanings' (ibid:66). A translator who is not familiar with the idiom in question may readily accept the literal interpretation and thus miss the play on idiom.

Secondly, an idiom in the source language text may have a very close counter-part in the target language text which has a partially or totally different meaning but looks similar on the surface. This may tempt an unguarded translator to impose a target-language interpretation on it (Baker 1992). The inability to recognize and interpret an idiom or fixed expression may render the meaning of a stretch of language inaccurate or worst, convey the wrong meaning unintended by the writer.

4.4.2.4.2 Punctuations

Punctuation marks are conventional signs or symbols that indicate the structure and organization of written language, as well as intonation patterns and pauses to be observed when reading aloud. Standard punctuation marks and conventions in English include the full stop, commas, colon, semicolon, exclamation mark, dash, hyphen, parentheses, brackets, apostrophe, quotation marks, question marks and ellipses.

The rules of punctuation vary from one language to another. Texts in the Chinese was left unpunctuated until the modern era. For instance in Chinese classical writings which was unpunctuated, the grammatical structure of sentences is inferred from its context. Most punctuation marks in modern Chinese have similar functions as to their English counterparts.

Punctuation is an important aspect in writing. In English as well as in modern Chinese, punctuation is employed to organize written language in order to make it readable, clear, and logical. The correct use of punctuation marks can greatly enhance both the clarity and the logic of one's writing. The misuse of a punctuation mark can gravely affect the meaning of an utterance. For instance, 'woman, without her man, is nothing,' and 'woman: without her, man is nothing,' have hugely different meanings (Truss 2003:9).

4.4.2.4.3 Parallel Structures

According to Fowler & Aaron (2007), parallel structures can be used to increase coherence. Parallel structures enable one to 'combine in a single, well-ordered sentence related ideas that might otherwise have to be expressed in separate sentences' (ibid:410). It helps to drive home the impact of a message contained in a text in a far more forceful way.

As noted by Li-Jian (1998), parallelism is a special kind of reiteration or repetition. What is repeated is not a particular word or phrase but 'the structure of the preceding sentence' (ibid:395). Parallelism reflects the similarity of grammatical form between two or more elements. According to Fowler & Aaron, 'parallel structure reinforces and highlights a close relation between compound sentence elements, whether words, phrases, or clauses' (2007:405). And the principle underlying parallelism is that 'form should reflect meaning: since the parts of the compound constructions have the same function and importance, they should have the same grammatical form' (ibid:406).

For illustration purposes, below are patterns and examples of parallelism taken from Fowler & Aaron (2007:407):

1.   The use of parallel structures for elements connected by coordinating conjunctions (*and, but, or*, etc.) or correlative conjunctions (*both…and, neither…nor*, etc.) :

>   In 1988 a Greek cyclist, backed up by <u>engineers, physiologists</u> and <u>athletes,</u> broke the world's record for human flight with neither <u>a boost</u> nor <u>a motor.</u>

2.   The use of parallel structures for elements being compared or contrasted:

>   <u>Pedal power</u> rather than <u>horse power</u> propelled the plane.

3.   The use of parallel structures for lists, outlines, or headings:

>   The four-hour flight was successful because <u>the cyclist was very fit</u>, <u>he flew a straight course over water</u>, and <u>he kept the aircraft near the water's surface.</u>

According to Fowler and Aaron, parallelism can be an effective means of emphasis (ibid:389). In a parallel structure, ideas are arranged in terms of their increasing

importance, as such, it should be maintained in the TT. An example taken from Fowler & Aaron (ibid:389) is used here to illustrate this point:

> The storm knocked down many trees in town, ripped the roofs off several buildings, and killed ten people.

Any attempt to rearrange the order of the parallel ideas in the above example will hugely compromise the emphatic effect the example. According to Fowler & Aaron, by burying the most serious damage – the loss of human lives – in the middle, this sentence becomes unemphatic (ibid):

> The storm ripped the roofs off several buildings, killed ten people, and knocked down many trees in town.

The structure of parallelism where parallel elements match each other can create balanced sentences that is especially effective in 'alerting readers to a strong comparison between two ideas' (ibid). An example from Fowler & Aaron is reproduced here to illustrate this point:

> The fickleness of the women I love is equalled only by the infernal constancy of the women who love me. — George Bernard Shaw –

Parallelism is a universal rhetorical device. It is understandable that different translators have different ways of handling parallelism. Generally speaking, parallelism can be handled in one of three ways: translating parallel structure as parallel structure; opting for variation; or completely ignoring it. Nonetheless, the use of parallel structures, especially the strict recurrence of the same items in the same form is usually a sign of intentionality, and as such, it is significant (Hatim & Mason 1990). To opt for variation

could result in gross misjudgement, maybe even distortion, of the author's intention. Here is one such example cited by Hatim & Mason:

> *I am now more than glad that* I did not pass into the grammar school five years ago, although it was a disappointment at the time. I was always good at English, but not so good at the other subjects!!
>
> *I am glad that* I went to the secondary modern school, because it was only constructed the year before. Therefore, it was so much more hygienic than the grammar school…
>
> *I am also glad* that I did not go to the grammar school, because of what it does to one's habit. This may appear to be a strange remark, at first sight. It is good thing to have an education behind you….

(Muriel Spark 1958; quoted as in Hatim & Mason 1990:197)

According to Hatim & Mason (1990:199), the recurrence in the same co-text of *I am glad* is a cohesive device at play, motivated by the overall rhetorical purpose of this text, that is, the strong evaluative nature which is a pointer to the real text focus. Here, argumentation predominates, with description and narration as only secondary purposes. As such, Hatim & Mason claim that 'assuming that recurrence is a universal rhetorical device, any attempt by a translator to vary TT expression at this point in the text is sure to detract from equivalence of text focus' (1990:199-200).

4.4.2.4.4   Text Omission

Generally speaking, it does no harm for a translator to omit translating a word or expression if the word or expression in question does not affect the development of the text. Nonetheless, omission will inevitably cause some loss of meaning in the TT. Omission of words without justification or at whim may affect lexical networks of the TT. As highlighted in Section 4.4.2.2, syntactically and pragmatically, coherence concerns all individual information units, lexical and sentential. Coherence on the

higher level builds on the coherence on the lower level, which involves the entire text (Ka Xiaoyun 2003).

By itself, individual lexical item 'carries no indication whether it is functioning cohesively or not' (Halliday & Hasan 2001:288) because 'the meaning of the individual lexical items depends on the networks of relations in which they enter with other items in a text' (Baker 1992:206). As claimed by Snell-Hornby, in analyzing a text, a translator 'is not concerned with isolating phenomena or items to study them in depth, but with tracing a *web of relationships*, the importance of individual items being determined by their relevance and function in the text' (1988: 69). Thus, the omission of any lexical items in the ST may affect the *web of relationships* in the TT, it depends on how focal the item is in the development of the text.

Below is an example taken from Baker (1992) to illustrate the sort of manipulation of lexical associations that is available to writers.

> The whole of Whitehall was agreed that no story should ever begin that way again. Indoctrinated ministers were furious about it. They set up a frightfully secret committee of enquiry to find out what went wrong, hear witnesses, name names, spare no blushes, point fingers, close gaps, prevent a recurrence, appoint me chairman and draft a report. What conclusion our committee reached, if any, remains the loftiest secret of them all, particularly from those of us who sat on it. For the function of such committees, as we all well knew, is to talk earnestly until the dust has settled, and then ourselves return to dust. Which, like a disgruntled Cheshire cat, our committee duly did, leaving nothing behind us but our frightfully secret frown, a meaningless interim working paper, and a bunch of secret annexes in the Treasury archives.

(John le Carre's *The Russia House*, quoted as in Baker 1992:205)

According to Baker (1992:205), two main collocational chains are cleverly interwoven in the above passage. One has to do with high-powered official institutions and practices:

committees, enquiries, chairman, witness, Whitehall, ministers, Treasury, report and *interim working paper*; the other evokes the theme of intrigue: the word *secret* is repeated several times and expressions such as *name names* and *point fingers* are used. Nonetheless, Baker suggests that this is not genuine intrigue because the two collocational chains are overlaid with ironic descriptive expressions such as *frightfully secret committee*, *indoctrinated ministers*, *frightfully secret frown*, *meaningless interim* and *working paper* which ridicule the institutions and practices in questions and give an impression of 'mock suspense'(ibid).

If any lexical item is to be omitted from the two main collocational chains, the web of relationships embedded in the text will inevitably be affected. This will in turn affect the interpretation and the judgement made by a reader on the text because in the final analysis, a reader 'can only make sense of a text by analyzing the *linguistic elements* which constitute it against the backdrop of his/her own knowledge and experience' (ibid:222; *emphasis mine*). The 'linguistic elements' or the 'textual record' (Hatim & Mason 1990:194) is the only evidence readers can ultimately rely on. In short, any omission of lexical item in the ST without compensating it somewhere may affect the way the text 'makes sense' to the target language readers.

It would of course be ideal if the same lexical chain or lexical network be reproduced in the target text; yet, in practice this is quite impossible taking into consideration the substantial difference between two language systems. Try as one may, it is simply 'impossible to reproduce networks of lexical cohesion in a target text which are identical to those of the source text' (Baker 1992:206). Idioms, fixed expressions, phrases which lack ready equivalents require translators to resort to strategies such as the use of paraphrase or a loan word. Nonetheless, a translator may often have to settle

for a word or an idiom with a slightly different meaning or associations, and Baker stresses that 'every time this happens it introduces a subtle (or major) shift away from the lexical chains and associations of the source text…The shift may well affect the cohesiveness and coherence of the target text in varying degrees, depending on the skill and experience of the translator' (ibid:207).

Though lexical and grammatical problems are part and parcel of translation and different translators may employ different strategies to resolve them, at the end of the day, stress Baker, 'a good translator will make sure that the target text displays a sufficient level of lexical cohesion in its own right' and 'avoid the extreme case of producing what appears to be a random collection of items which do not add up to recognizable lexical chains that make sense in a given context' (ibid).

4.5   Conclusion

This chapter looks at the role of the translator and the importance of recapturing cohesion and coherence in a TT. The connectivity among utterances and parts of a text will be affected if these two standards of textuality are not handled carefully by a translator. Errors that occurred due to the mishandling of pronoun, conjunction, lexical, parallel structure and the omission of items in a ST without justifiable reason may affect the cohesion and coherence of a text to varying degrees. The effect and impact of the micro-level coherence on the macro level coherence (the compositional plan of a text) will be further discussed in Chapter 6.