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ATINER is an Athens-based World Association of Academics and Researchers based in Athens. ATINER is an independent and non-profit **Association** with a **Mission** to become a forum where Academics and Researchers from all over the world can meet in Athens, exchange ideas on their research and discuss future developments in their disciplines, **as well as engage with professionals from other fields**. Athens was chosen because of its long history of academic gatherings, which go back thousands of years to *Plato's Academy* and *Aristotle's Lyceum*. Both these historic places are within walking distance from ATINER's downtown offices. Since antiquity, Athens was an open city. In the words of Pericles, *Athens "... is open to the world, we never expel a foreigner from learning or seeing"*. ("Pericles' Funeral Oration", in Thucydides, *The History of the Peloponnesian War*). It is ATINER's **mission** to revive the glory of Ancient Athens by inviting the World Academic Community to the city, to learn from each other in an environment of freedom and respect for other people's opinions and beliefs. After all, the free expression of one's opinion formed the basis for the development of democracy, and Athens was its cradle. As it turned out, the Golden Age of Athens was in fact, the Golden Age of the Western Civilization. *Education* and *(Re)searching* for the 'truth' are the pillars of any free (democratic) society. This is the reason why *Education* and *Research* are the two core words in ATINER's name.

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The current issue is the fourth of the seventh volume of the *Athens Journal of Philology (AJP)*, published by the published by the [Languages & Linguistics Unit](#) and the [Literature Unit](#) of ATINER

Gregory T. Papanikos
President
ATINER



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14th Annual International Conference on Languages & Linguistics 5-8 July 2021, Athens, Greece

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- Submission of Paper: **7 June 2021**

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After Babel Revisited: On language and Translation. In Memoriam George Steiner (1929–2020)

*By Hans-Harry Dröβiger**

*On February 3, 2020, one of the most interesting scholars in humanities, especially in literary research and translation studies, died: George Steiner. Sometimes labelled as a genius, sometimes as someone who was always outside the mainstream and acting as an inconvenient thinker, he did his part in the humanities in a fresh and in a provocative way. The following article wants to shed some light on his basic writing entitled *After Babel*, originally published in 1975 and reviewed by himself in 1992. In doing so, this article is about to honour him for his challenging statements, insights and discussion on language and translation to be not forgotten by recent and future generations of researchers.*

Keywords: George Steiner, language, translation, theory of translation, contiguity.

We are able to say so fantastically much more than we would need to for purposes of physical survival. We mean endlessly more than we say (Steiner 1998: 296).

Introduction

First published in 1975, this volume by George Steiner gained appreciation and interest amongst scholars in the world because of its fresh, lively and competent description of translation problems and issues, not only for his time. Thus, this book requires our full attention because of its fascinating range of thoughts on language, translation and translation theory. Excerpts from the contemporary press in the scholarly world from the back cover of that edition I own, may highlight the value the book deserves even today. M. Cranston from the *Sunday Times* wrote: ‘Translation...has long needed a champion, and at last in George Steiner it has found a scholar who is a match for the task.’ Or, Donald Davie from *Times Literary Supplement* pointed out: ‘He is saying things we cannot afford not to take note of...I greatly admire the intellectual venture which the book represents.’

Facing the situation in theory of translation studies and of linguistics in our present days of the 21st century, there is still a need for ‘a champion’ of our subjects. Maybe, George Steiner can lead us to more scholarship for mastering the challenges of the present and the future. Thus, hopefully, in this essaylike article the reader will find arguments to handle language and translation in a manner they deserve.

*Professor and Senior Researcher, Vilnius University, Lithuania.

After Babel opens a wide-scaled interpretation of the essence of language, literature and translation of the past, the present and the future of at least the entire human mankind. Of course, a reader's expectations may aim at language and what is related to it, for example literature and other forms of arts, cognition and communication, society and community, language research and translation as process and result including the scholars' and practitioners' activities, behaviour and attitudes. All that is clear, yet there is more to *After Babel*. It encompasses phenomena like universals and cultural boundness experienced as commons and diversities amongst and between the people in the world. It enlightens us to be able to more deeply think of and reflect on our recent activities to get prepared for the future by comprehending our past.

The most central theme announced and alluded by the book's title is *Language*. From there, set as the core term, in this retrospective, we will discover terms and topics orbiting around this central point. According to this, the article is divided into five sections aiming at Steiner's most interesting outlines and statements to bring them once again into the focus of scholarly discussion, starting with "Language", followed by "Translation" and "Theory of translation". Phenomena of special interest from Steiner's monograph are outlined in "Palimpsests, metaphor, and contiguity: towards a new conception of translation". The paper will be closed-up with "Instead of conclusions: an outlook". Some may put another term or concept into the central position. However, logical nomenclatures and hierarchies will not always correspond to the intentions of *After Babel*. Thus, all selected quotes from this book, all commentary to them, and all other statements are in the author's full responsibility.

Technically, in this article numerous quotes pinpointing Steiner's major ideas are necessary. To keep the article focused on his opinions and outlines and to achieve a coherent text flow, quotes from other scholarly papers will mostly appear in footnotes.

Language

One of the major questions Steiner is looking for an answer is the reason for the manifoldness of human languages. In the preface of the last edition revised by himself, he points out:

Why should *homo sapiens sapiens*, genetically and physiologically uniform in almost all respects, subject to identical biological-environmental constraints and evolutionary possibilities, speak thousands of mutually incomprehensible tongues, some of which are set only a few miles apart (p. xiii)?

And there is more to this diversity of human languages, reflected not only in several religions, because

there is no mythology known to us in which the fragmentation of some initial single language (the Adamic motif) into jagged bits, into cacophony and

incomunicado, has not been felt to be a catastrophe, a divine chastisement on some opaque motion of rebellion or arrogance in fallen man (p. xiii).

Considering manifoldness and diversity of languages is one aspect, the other one is to ask what all those languages have in common that we might take as a starting point for developing a practicable and reliable perspective of translation. Steiner sees commons in the functions and functioning of languages, especially concerning the interplay of language and thought, by referring to Leibniz and Vico¹ stating

that language is not the vehicle of thought but its determining medium. Thought is language internalized, and we think and feel as our particular language impels and allows us to do ... that man enters into active possession of consciousness, into active cognizance of reality, through the ordering, shaping powers of language (p. 78).

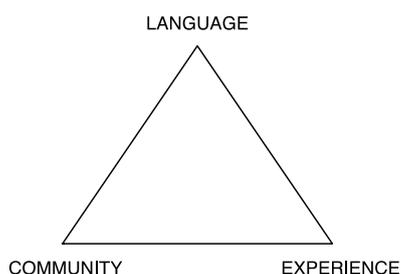
Steiner devoted himself to W.v. Humboldt's conviction 'that language is the true or the only verifiable *a priori* framework of cognition' (p. 85 – italics in original). Two interesting ideas in this brief quote shall be emphasized. First, the methodological one, namely 'verifiable', which shall lead us to an attitude after which a serious research into language and all corresponding phenomena can only be conducted by grounding on large-scale linguistic material because this is the only way to approach thought and cognition. Second, the theoretical one, namely '*a priori*', which means that language due to its materialized experience (speech, writing) and their interrelations to thoughts solely give researchers reasons for exploring the world of cognition. A reason to all of this we can see, according to Steiner, in the assumption that 'the similarities between men are finally much greater than the differences' and 'that which is in fact linguistically and culturally most remote may, at moments, strike us as most poignant and cognate to our own consciousness' (p. 372).

The power of this mutual determination of language and thought is a common ground for each language in the world, it is the reason for being able to communicate including translation because of the simple but mighty capability of any language to structure our thought as well as the world we are living in. Steiner calls this quality of language 'dynamic mentalism':

language organizes experience, but that organization is constantly acted upon by the collective behaviour of the particular group of speakers (p. 91).

All in all, a triadic model can be seen by putting the given ideas together:

¹Bibliographical information to sources Steiner is quoting or referring to see Steiner (1998).

Figure 1. Triad # 1

Source: visualized according to Steiner: 91

To make this capability of ‘ordering, shaping’ applicable for translation works will be the real task for scholars and researchers into languages and translation.

Our perception of language (and of course not only that) is what makes the essence of it. However, this perception does not always follow or not always aim at “axiomatic structures”. It is the unexpected, the newly coined form, expression and content that makes language and translation research complicated as well as challenging. Steiner sees more in this special quality of language.

But it is its great untidiness that makes human speech innovative and expressive of personal intent. It is the anomaly, as it feeds back into the general history of usage, the ambiguity, as it enriches and complicates the general standard of definition, which give coherence to the system. A coherence, if such a description is allowed, ‘in constant motion’. The vital constancy of that motion accounts for both the epistemological and psychological failure of the project of a ‘universal character’ (p. 213).

It is not only the chance to put the historical and the actual character of language together, it is also the idea of a ‘constant motion’ that deserves our highest attention. If all those characteristics of language as ‘anomaly’ and ‘ambiguity’ that construct a coherence in the system of language, then such kinds of strangeness tend to become the basic quality of language. And if a ‘vital constancy of motion’ can be assumed, then the coherence of the system of language grounds in contiguity. We can only be innovative, creative and expressive in using our language if we realize the contiguous character of language by taking chances every time and everywhere to modify our point of view, to change perspectives expressing concepts and meaning.

Yet, there is more to this ‘vital constancy of motion’ because this concept allows us to grasp into other spheres by exploring and experiencing the full power of language.

We literally carry inside us, in the organized spaces and involutions of the brain, worlds other than the world, and their fabric is preponderantly, though by no means exclusively or uniformly, verbal ... But whatever their bio-sociological origin, the uses of language for ‘alterity’, for mis-construction, for illusion and play, are the greatest of man’s tools by far (p. 234).

Such phenomenon, called by Steiner 'alterity' including its sub-phenomena, like 'mis-construction', which might be errors or mistakes, respectively, 'illusion', which can appear in all forms depicting not our 'real world', 'play', which may lead to all forms and kinds of wit and humour, ground in what Steiner above has called 'vital constancy of motion', which I will call principles of contiguity. These principles keep our language alive, open it for new development, for innovation since the infinity of thinking seeks to find a tool that can handle that boundlessness of thoughts by giving it a form that others can perceive and comprehend.

Man's sensibility endures and transcends the brevity, the haphazard ravages, the physiological programming of individual life because the semantically coded responses of the mind are constantly broader, freer, more inventive than the demands and stimulus of the material fact (p. 238).

By understanding those 'principles of contiguity' it will become clear what amount of work a translator is facing while doing his/her job.

Translation

Not in the beginning of his book, though not too late, Steiner asks that question we are all interested in:

Suppose we put the question in its strongest form: 'what ... is translation?'; 'how does the human mind move from one language to another?' What sort of answers are being called for (p. 293)?

Although before and after George Steiner's book many scholars, writers, philosophers and representatives of some more kinds of human (professional) occupation had something to say about translation, in this honouring contribution to George Steiner, we want to reactivate his view on translation. It begins already in the preface (as mentioned above) by putting translation into relations to other human phenomena, which makes this first approach to understand translation so important:

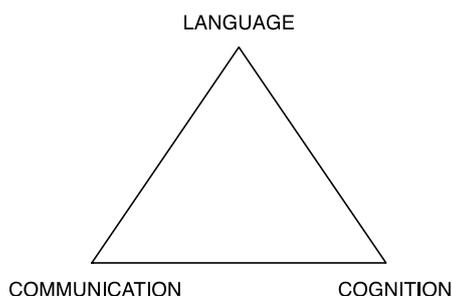
There had been no ordered or detailed attempt to locate translation at the heart of human communication or to explore the ways in which the constraints on translatability and the potentialities of transfer between languages engage, at the most immediate and charged level, the philosophic enquiry into consciousness and into the meaning of meaning (p. ix-x).²

After we got this, three terms (or concepts) can be highlighted and visualized: translation, communication, and consciousness. These three concepts interdependently interact, they create some sort of unity, which may make up

²There is more to the quote. The closing-up phrase seems to be an allusion to Charles Kay Ogden and Ivor Armstrong Richards' paper *The Meaning of Meaning* (1923), in which a first triadic model in semiotics was presented.

humans' most basic factor of existence. As a triad (see Figure 2), the model describes best what and who we are. In more modern terms and considering our freedom to interpret Steiner's outlines, we may call the components of this triad 'language', 'communication', and 'cognition'. There is good reason for renaming the given three concepts because Steiner quite clearly takes all linguistic communication, i.e. all use of languages, as a form of translation.

Figure 2. *Triad 2*



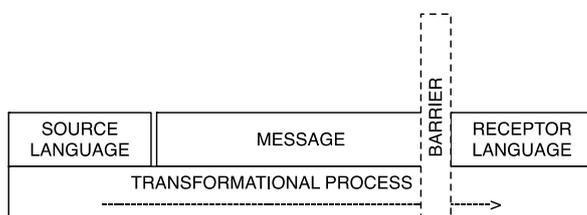
Source: Author

Although George Steiner uses this idea of a triad, in the volume several definitions or definition like outlines on 'translation' appear, each time focusing on other aspects or displaying a certain perspective to it. A first closer approach to the term 'translation' seems to be somewhat formalistic but nevertheless instructive in several ways:

The schematic model of translation is one in which a message from a source-language passes into a receptor language via a transformational process. The barrier is the obvious fact that one language differs from the other, that an interpretative transfer, sometimes, albeit misleadingly, described as encoding and decoding, must occur so that the message 'gets through'. The same model—and this is what is rarely stressed—is operative within a single language. But here the barrier or distance between source and receptor is time (p. 29).

From the given quote, a visualization is possible which covers five components of such a 'schematic model':

Figure 3. *A Five Components Model of Translation*



Source: visualized according to Steiner: 29

However, if Steiner talks about an intralingual process of translation that grounds on time (as a concept), then, logically, for an interlingual process of translation the concept time should be accompanied by the concept space.

For the scenario of an intralingual translation, George Steiner focuses on semantics as the responsible instance, or shall we now say as the ‘barrier’, that has to be considered by the ‘translator within’:

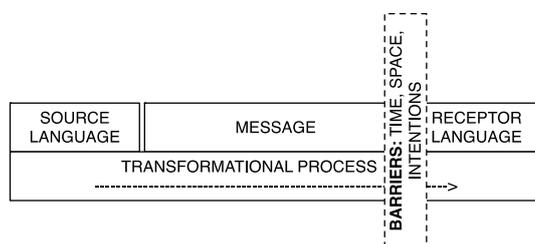
Words rarely show any outward mark of altered meaning, they body forth their history only in a fully established context (p. 29).

And there is more to meaning as a subject to semantics, which can be taken as a certain form, if not the most important one, of the already mentioned ‘barriers’: humans’ intentions. Taking politics as an example and referring to a famous scholar in politics from the past, we may understand that not only time and space set some sort of barrier before a translation might have been conducted, the human factor, namely intentions, work as such a barrier, or perhaps we may call this a filter:

Machiavelli noted that meaning could be dislocated in common speech so as to produce political confusion (p. 35).

To bring all the factors and components together, we shall modify Figure 3:

Figure 4. *Another Five Components Model of Translation*



Source: visualized according to Steiner: 29, 35

More thoroughly, Steiner again refers to the intralingual and interlingual plots concerning translation but always seeing a close interrelationship between language and translation:

I have been trying to state a rudimentary but decisive point: interlingual translation is the main concern of this book, but it is also a way in, an access to an inquiry into language itself. ‘Translation’, properly understood, is a special case of the arc of communication which every successful speech-act closes within a given language. On the inter-lingual level, translation will pose concentrated, visibly intractable problems; but these same problems abound, at a more covert or conventionally neglected level, intra-lingually ... In short: inside or between languages, human communication equals translation. A study of translation is a study of language (p. 48-9 – italics in original).

One of the crucial problems in translation is what we may call ‘tacit knowledge’, or as Steiner puts it:

There is an acute understanding, essential to any treatment of communication within and between languages, of the ways in which a text may conceal more than it conveys (p. 64).

Consequently, if we confirm the existence of this ‘tacit knowledge’ (sometimes called connotations, background knowledge, or ‘read between the lines’), we can imagine how difficult and challenging the work of a translator will be. Being aware of ‘tacit knowledge’ in both languages involved in a translation process, a translator faces multiple ways to solve translation problems, especially in those cases when linguistic items or structures ‘convey’ the untold but presupposed information. Admittedly, we may observe this in almost all instances of names, proper names, culture-bound words, and some unique features of any given language, or in the case of intralingual translation of any language variant. Though, there is another effect of ‘tacit knowledge’:

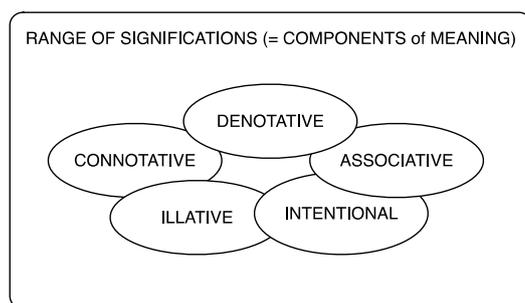
The translator enriches his tongue by allowing the source language to penetrate and modify it. But he does far more: he extends his native idiom towards the hidden absolute of meaning (p. 67).

Is that so? Does the translator really enrich their mother language while translating? Steiner sees in the case of ‘background’ or ‘tacit’ knowledge an ensemble of components that might cause huge difficulties translating a text. Additionally, to previously mentioned sequences from Steiner’s book, the term ‘implicit sense’ appears.

The translator must actualize the implicit ‘sense’, the denotative, connotative, illative, intentional, associative range of significations which are implicit in the original, but which it leaves undeclared or only partly declared simply because the native auditor or reader has an immediate understanding of them (p. 291).

As we can see, Steiner has compiled such an ensemble of components of which the background (tacit or implicit) knowledge consists, determined by a crucial constituent of background knowledge that is meaning. Possibly, this is one of those explanations of background knowledge in one place that suits best for the framework of translation in theory and practice. The ‘range of significations’ sets up a quite different comprehension of ‘meaning’ or ‘semantics’ as a phenomenon which derives from humans’ linguistic, cognitive and communicative experience. In this sense, Steiner’s ideas go far beyond other descriptions or theories of meaning/semantics.³

³An overview to other theories or concepts of meaning can be found in Geerarts (2010): ‘Componential analysis provides a descriptive model for semantic content, based on the assumption that meanings can be described on the basis of a restricted set of conceptual building blocks—the semantic ‘components’ or ‘features’. Componential analysis was developed in the second half of the 1950s and the beginning of the 1960s by European as well as American linguists, largely

Figure 5. *Components of Meaning*

Source: visualized according to Steiner: 291

Thus, it seems to be logical, in Steiner's words, doing a translation is a process of losses because, even by hardest endeavours, a translator will not reach a perfectly matching result in a target language.

In the 'transference' process of translation, the inherence of meanings, the compression through context of plural, even contradictory significations 'into' the original words, get lost to a greater or lesser degree (p. 291).

Lastly, processing background knowledge while translating will have an impact on the development of languages, as we can see in our present days in forms of globalization when English language seems to widely spread all over the world and influencing almost all national languages. Unfortunately, those influences might lead to an imposition of English regarding language and translation research to all possible extents including terminology, foundation of theory etc. (see also p. 245). Thus, Steiner can ask a question:

Might it be that the transformational generative method is forcing all languages into the mould of English, as much seventeenth-century grammar endeavoured to enclose all speech within the framework of classical Latin (p. 112)?⁴

independently of each other. Although both find a common inspiration in structural phonology, componential analysis in Europe grew out of lexical field theory, whereas in the United States it originated in the domain of anthropological linguistics' (Geeraerts 2010: 70). Both approaches—the European as well as the American—ground on distinctive features in meaning related to the idea of componential analysis. 'On this approach, an account of the structural relations within the vocabulary of a language requires a componential analysis of every word, together with a set of rules... The exact nature of semantic components, and their significance, depends heavily on the theory of which they form part' (Cruse 2012: 160). From Steiner's point of view, not a theory dictates what semantic components might be but humans' communicative experience. Thus, all components of meaning are understood as complements one to each other, which makes the difference to purely deductive-theoretical approaches.

⁴This danger was thematised by other famous scholars of language and translation research as for example Snell-Hornby who states that 'there has been a disquieting trend in recent years for English to be used, not only as a means of communication, but also as part of the object of discussion...English publications frequently have a clear Anglo-American bias, and what are presented as general principles of translation sometimes prove to be limited to the area under discussion and to be caused by the specific status of English...Conversely, contributions

Steiner concludes that there is more to the differences between languages.

Dissimilarities between human tongues are essentially of the surface. Translation is realizable precisely because those deep-seated universals, genetic, historical, social, from which all grammars derive can be located and recognized as operative in every human idiom, however singular or bizarre its superficial forms. To translate is to descend beneath the exterior disparities of two languages in order to bring into vital play their analogous and, at the final depths, common principles of being (p. 76-7).

In other words, it seems that all languages as that one form to express what all human communities, societies, nations need to express, ground on the same principles, or as Steiner names it ‘deep-seated universals’. Assuming this, we might say that translation is a way to give a language a mode to express what once has been said in another language. Those ‘deep-seated universals’ have nothing to do with the artificially constructed deep-structure principles of any form of transformational or generative grammars. The demand to go deeper than linguistic surfaces and even deeper than so-called ‘deep structures’ seems to be essential to translators:

Translators have left not only a great legacy of empirical evidence, but a good deal of philosophic and psychological reflection on whether or not authentic transfer of meaning between languages can take place ... To know more of language and of translation, we must pass from the ‘deep structures’ of transformational grammar to the deeper structures of the poet (p. 114).

Sometimes Steiner uses alternative designations for ‘translation’. Just those changes of names make a principle of contiguity obvious, the change of perspective. Thus, Steiner says that

the most banal act of interlingual conveyance ... involves the entire nature and theory of translation. The mystery of meaningful transfer is, in essence, the same when we translate the next bill of lading or the *Paradiso*. None the less, the working distinction is obvious and useful. It is the upper range of semantic events which make problems of translation theory and practice most visible, most incident to general questions of language and mind (p. 265-6).

Taking three different terms—interlingual conveyance, translation, transfer—to describe and express one idea is not only a matter of expressing himself stylistically varied, it is a signal for that one principle of contiguity, namely perspectivation⁵ and perspective as its complement. Approaching the concept of

written in languages other than English and on topics outside Anglophile interests tend to be ignored or over-simplified’ (2006: ix-x).

⁵Perspectivation as a term introduced by Graumann and Kallmeyer in 2002 is about to give the more widely used term perspective a complement to emphasize the relation between process – the perspectivation – and its result – the perspective – and as a common cognitive and communicative practice as well. As Graumann & Kallmeyer suggest, both perspective and perspectivation are founding instances of any discourse. ‘The study of perspectivation poses questions with respect to the role that communication of perspectives plays in text and interaction, and what important

‘translation’ from different points of view, from distinguishing angles opens ways for a more precise understanding of the core concept, in this case of translation. However, changes of perspective not only work regarding a theory but also in practical translation work, as we will see below.

Additionally, to all the rational approaches to translation, Steiner finally includes an evaluative and emotional statement on translation by distinguishing between ‘negative’ and ‘positive’ ones which might be explained as a certain form of ‘mistaking’.

Poor translation follows on negative ‘mistaking’: erroneous choice or mechanical, fortuitous circumstance have directed the translator to an original in which he is not at home... Positive ‘mistaking’ on the contrary generates and is generated by the feeling of at-homeness in the other language, in the other community of consciousness (p. 398-9).

To close-up this section, we will return to its opening quote from Steiner’s book, page 293, to find a way to answer that ‘strongest form’ of a question: What is translation? Steiner’s way to answer the question seems to be enigmatic, yet his answer reflects the contemporary situation in translation studies:

What must be established for such answers to be plausible or, indeed, possible? The theory and analysis of translation have, until now, proceeded as if we knew, or as if the knowledge needed to make the question nontrivial were foreseeable given a reasonable time span and the current rate of progress in psychology, linguistics, or some other authentic ‘sciences’. I believe, on the contrary, that we do not know with any great precision or confidence what it is that we are asking and, concomitantly, what meaningful answers would really be like (p. 293).

Several things will be clear for our present-day approaches to translation in theory and practice. That is to be careful with a so-called ‘final’ statement on translation, that is also to be open for ideas and conceptions from other scholarly branches than linguistics and translation studies that deal with language and translation, that is, finally, to have a good sense for the still undiscovered and undetected characteristics of language, community, and thought.

Theory of Translation

Steiner very harshly states that a theory (or even theories) of translation are hard to find because of the scholars’ attitude which might be characterized as byzantine:

strategies of perspectivation one can observe in different contexts. For the analysis of human strategies of orientation in space and time spatial reference ... proved to be of primordial interest (Weissenborn & Klein 1982). From here it is only a short step to the analysis of referential movements in texts (Klein & Stutterheim 1989) and its interpretation as representation of perspectival moves’ (2002: 5). Bibliographical information to the sources used by Graumann & Kallmeyer see in their article.

There are, most assuredly, and *pace* our current masters in Byzantium, no ‘theories of translation’. What we do have are reasoned descriptions of processes. At very best, we find and seek, in turn, to articulate, narrations of felt experience, heuristic or exemplary notations of work in progress. These have no scientific status (p. xvi).⁶

This highly critical offense to colleagues working in the fields of linguistics and translation will surely earn at least a lack of understanding or to the worst will meet with disapproval. Though we still have to ask ourselves what went wrong in our scholarly work that there is no serious progress in developing theory, no reliable achievements creating a system of terms, too much anecdotalism in describing linguistic and translational phenomena⁷ and so forth. One good reason for all these shortcomings can be named as follows:

The dilemma seems to me of central importance precisely in an age in which deconstructive criticism and self-advertising scholarship dismiss texts as ‘pre-texts’ for their own scavenging (p. xvi–xvii).

Denying the possibility to translate, or to state that (sometimes) no translation can ever be executed, is a matter of attitude, namely of arrogance, which may lead to a nationalist or chauvinist position regarding languages and translations. Steiner again critically remarks such kind of point of view:

The extreme ‘monadist’ position—we shall find great poets holding it—leads logically to the belief that real translation is impossible. What passes for translation is

⁶James S. Holmes, one of the leading figures in translation studies, said: ‘Two further, less classically constructed terms have come to the fore in recent years. One of these began its life in a longer form, “the theory of translating” or “the theory of translation” (and its corresponding forms: “Theorie des Übersetzens”, “theorie de la traduction”). In English (and in German) it has since gone the way of many such terms, and is now usually compressed into “translation theory”... It has been a productive designation, and can be even more so in future, but only if it is restricted to its proper meaning... The problem is not that the discipline is not a *Wissenschaft*, but that not all *Wissenschaften* [German for ‘science’ – the author] can properly be called sciences. Just as no one today would take issue with the terms *Sprachwissenschaft* [German, literally ‘science of language’ – the author] and *Literaturwissenschaft* [German, literally ‘science of literature’ – the author], while more than a few would question whether linguistics has yet reached a stage of precision, formalization, and paradigm formation such that it can properly be described as a science, and while practically everyone would agree that literary studies are not, and in the foreseeable future will not be, a science in any true sense of the English word, in the same way I question whether we can with any justification use a designation for the study of translating and translations that places it in the company of mathematics, physics, and chemistry, or even biology, rather than that of sociology, history, and philosophy – or for that matter of literary studies’ (Holmes 1988: 69–70).

⁷ ‘If we want our area of research to be given the consideration it deserves, more analyses are needed with a more theoretical and less anecdotal approach. I personally believe that DTS offers an ideal platform from which to launch this approach. For translation scholars, this catalogue of concepts is a heuristic tool that opens up new avenues for study, strengthens the theoretical component and allows the researcher to come up with substantial analyses’ (Díaz Cintas 2004: 31). ‘The acquisition of professional translation skills is often driven by prescriptivist judgements not always based on research. This often results in a tendency to anecdotalism and over-reliance on personal intuition and habits’ (Pérez-González 2014: 94).

a convention of approximate analogies, a rough-cast similitude, just tolerable when the two relevant languages or cultures are cognate, but altogether spurious when remote tongues and far-removed sensibilities are in question (p. 77).

Talking about theory always includes conceptions of methods and methodology that correspond to the foundations, terminology and intentions of a theory. Steiner argues not only against the partially misleading ideas of transformational and generative grammars, but he also deals with a certain methodological aspect of any theory, modelling. Admitting that modelling within a theory is one of the hardest endeavours a scholar might face, nevertheless modelling has its purpose and function that is to present a complicated network of processes, components, reasons in a clear, easy to follow form. However, a model stays a model, and from a methodological perspective, any model has to be proved by empirically grounding descriptions of experienced and elicited data. For this reason, Steiner says that

the danger is that formal linguistic models, in their loosely argued analogy with the axiomatic structure of the mathematical sciences, may block perception (p. 118).

Steiner sometimes sketches a more pessimistic picture about the responsibility, mission of language researchers and about the desiderata of the research work itself.

There are reasons for this lack. If we except the Moscow and Prague language-circles, with their explicit association with contemporary poets and literature in progress, it can fairly be said that many modern analytic linguists are no great friends to language (p. 127).

Sadly, the tensions between (traditional) philology and mathematically organized linguistics are more actual than ever. Contradictions in understanding how to create theories and methodologies of research, animosities and prejudices towards the subjects of research of the other draw a dramatic picture of scholarly work on language and translation, which, eventually, may lead to an underrated value of linguistics and translation studies, compared with the so-called true sciences. It is a matter of fact that language in all its forms it can appear cannot be forced into a set of formulas.

It is very likely that the internalization of language and of languages in the human mind involves phenomena of ordered and ordering space, that temporal and spatially-distributive hierarchies are involved. But no topologies of n -dimensional spaces, no mathematical theories of knots, rings, lattices, or closed and open curvatures, no algebra of matrices can until now authorize even the most preliminary model of the 'language-spaces' in the central nervous system (p. 308 – italics in original).

It was the mathematician Gottlob Frege of all those people who vehemently defended the character and essence of language against attempts to formalize and mathematize it because he stated that even both sides of an equation represent a different point of view of the same idea (cf. $2 + 5 = 3 + 4$ in Frege

1984a: 137-8). Yet, there was more to Frege, especially sketching out a background for translation.⁸

Especially in Chapter Four of *After Babel* which is entitled *The Claims of Theory*, Steiner deals with the theory of translation by stating:

The literature on the theory, practice, and history of translation is large. It can be divided into four periods, though the lines of division are in no sense absolute (p. 248).

These four periods can be briefly described as:

1. from Cicero's famous precept not to translate *verbum pro verbo* and Horace's reiteration of this formula in the *Ars poetica* to Hölderlin's enigmatic commentary on his own translation from Sophocles (1804), with the main characteristic of immediate empirical focus;
2. is one of theory and hermeneutic inquiry by posing the nature of translation within the more general framework of theories of language and mind, as a methodological status of its own, away from the demands and singularities of a given text, mainly represented by A.W. Schlegel and W.v. Humboldt with extends to the mid of 20th century;
3. the modern current by applying linguistic theory and statistics to translation, founding international bodies and journals concerned mainly or frequently with matters of translation proliferate, mostly influenced by work of Russian and Czech scholars and critics;
4. although the third period might be still in progress, another development can be detected, caused by differentiations in emphasis and subject since the 1960s, the study of theory and practice of translation has now become a point of contact between established and newly evolving disciplines, especially psychology, anthropology, sociology (pp. 248-260).⁹

Summarizing the history of translation studies and their theories, Steiner can pessimistically state:

⁸Concerning both the manifoldness within one language and of all languages in the world including processes of translation, Frege in his paper *On Concept and Object* [German 'Über Begriff und Gegenstand', original 1892] said: 'Nowadays people seem inclined to exaggerate the scope of the statement that different linguistic expressions are never completely equivalent, that a word can never be exactly translated into another language. One might perhaps go even further, and say that the same word is never taken in quite the same way even by men who share a language. I will not enquire as to the measure of truth in these statements; I would only emphasize that nevertheless different expressions quite often have something in common, which I call the sense, or, in the special case of sentences, the thought. In other words, we must not fail to recognize that the same sense, the same thought, may be variously expressed; thus the difference does not here concern the sense, but only the apprehension [*Auffassung*], shading [*Beleuchtung*], or colouring [*Färbung*] of the thought, and is irrelevant for logic. It is possible for one sentence to give no more and no less information than another; and, for all the multiplicity of languages, mankind has a common stock of thoughts' (Frege 1984b: 184).

⁹References to all mentioned scholars and researchers see Steiner.

However, despite the rich history, and despite the calibre of those who have written about the art and theory of translation, the number of original, significant ideas in the subject remains very meagre. Ronald Knox¹⁰ reduces the entire topic to two questions: which should come first, the literary version or the literal; and is the translator free to express the sense of the original in any style and idiom he chooses (p. 251)?

Despite this unsatisfactory situation concerning a theory (or theories) of translation, Steiner nevertheless argues against attempts to establish ideas of untranslatability:

The argument against translatability is ... often no more than an argument based on local, temporary myopia. Logically, moreover, the attack on translation is only a weak form of an attack on language itself (p. 263).

Steiner, of course, sees problems in translation, but instead of denying translation at all, he describes four stages concerning problems in translation by saying (1) 'not *everything* can be translated', (2) 'not everything can be translated *now*', (3) 'there are texts we cannot *yet* translate', (4) 'there are works not yet translatable by man, but potentially so, in a realm of perfect understanding and at the lost juncture of languages' (p. 262-3 – italics in original).

Moreover, Steiner offers a methodology of translation, admittedly only as a brief overview. Nevertheless, it is worth to pay attention to his outlines because they may serve as a foundation of a real methodology of translation, more or less independent from a constricting theoretical framework.

In brief: translation is desirable and possible. Its methods and criteria need to be investigated in relation to substantive, mainly 'difficult' texts. These are the preliminaries. Theories of translation either assume them or get them out of the way briskly, with greater or lesser awareness of logical pitfalls. But what, exactly, are the appropriate techniques, what ideals ought to be aimed for (p. 266)?

Although his reasoning is emotionally charged, one cornerstone of his statement seems to be clear: large corpora of 'difficult' texts should be the basis for figuring out the techniques of translation. Because all of that practicing is human work, mistakes and errors are possible, or as Steiner puts it, 'logical pitfalls' may occur. However, it is also up to the translator to gain and develop an awareness of such pitfalls not to extinct but to learn from them. After these introducing lines, Steiner sketches out (again) a triad of those 'methods and criteria':

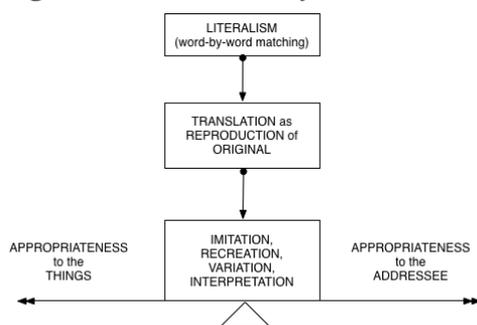
The theory of translation, certainly since the seventeenth century, almost invariably divides the topic into three classes. The **first** comprises strict literalism, the word-by-word matching of the interlingual dictionary, of the foreign-language primer, of the interlinear crib. The **second** is the great central area of 'translation' by means of

¹⁰ Bibliographical information about Knox see Steiner, p. 251.

faithful but autonomous restatement. The translator closely reproduces the original but composes a text which is natural to his own tongue, which can stand on its own. The **third** class is that of imitation, recreation, variation, interpretative parallel (p. 266 – bold emphasis by me).

However, this ‘triad’ might not be visualized as a triangle but as a flow chart representing the steps a translator will undertake to conduct a translation. Obviously, from step to step, the workload might rise while the translator more and more has to keep a balance between two basic aspects of the translation strategy, being appropriate to the things and being appropriate to the addressee¹¹.

Figure 6. *Flow Chart of Translation*



Source: visualized according to Steiner: 266

By referring to Roman Jakobson, Steiner focuses on terms like ‘equivalence’, ‘rewording’ and ‘paraphrase’ conducting a translation while especially ‘rewording’ and ‘paraphrase’ produce ‘something more or less’ than just applying instances of (lexical) equivalence. ‘In consequence the mere act of paraphrase is evaluative,’ because, according to Jakobson, ‘on the level of interlingual translation, there is ordinarily no full equivalence between code-units’ (p. 274). It is not only to take ‘rewording’ and ‘paraphrase’ as extensions to the components of the flow chart in Figure 6, it is another term used in the given quote that deserves our attention: ‘evaluative’, or ‘evaluation’ respectively. Executing a translation includes an evaluation of the source material and the target material as well, simply because the translator at least introduces himself/herself into the target material, his knowledge, experience, attitude, convictions etc.

On a more common, concluding statement, Steiner still—after giving outlines on translation theory concerning particular aspects—sees no chance to get a ‘theory of translation’ in the true and best sense of the term ‘theory’ by now and by far simply due to the insight that a theory of translation ‘is necessarily a theory or, rather, a historical–psychological model, part deductive, part intuitive,

¹¹Both aspects of appropriateness I discussed in a former paper because I think that translation is some sort of decision-making by finding a balance between being ‘**appropriate to the things** and **appropriate to the addressee**... In this sense of appropriateness, any translation should be done, and doing so, terms like “source language/text/culture” and “target language text/culture” will become superfluous, sometimes, and may be replaced by the all-purpose-like terms used and defined by Genette, hypertext and hypertext’ (Drößiger 2018: 275 - bold emphasis in original).

of the operations of language itself' (p. 436) including the inseparable interplay of language and the mind. Thus, he points out quite pessimistically:

To summarize: we have no working model of the fundamental neurochemistry and historical aetiology of human speech. We have no anthropological evidence as to the causes of chronology of its thousandfold diversification. Our models of the learning process and of memory are ingenious but also of the most preliminary, conjectural kind. We know next to nothing of the organization and storage of different languages when they coexist in the same mind. How then can there be, in any rigorous sense of the term, a 'theory of translation' (p. 309)?

Palimpsests, Metaphor, and Contiguity: Towards a New Conception of Translation

Undoubtedly, Steiner can be taken as an exponent and a defender of the European idea. Following him, all our consciousness of Europe goes back to the ancient times of Greek culture, society, and language.

The totality of Homer, the capacity of the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* to serve as repertoire for most of the principal postures of Western consciousness ... point to a moment of singular linguistic energy (p. 22).

Because George Steiner wrote his book in the era of the Cold War, he naturally talks about the 'Western' culture and consciousness. However, nowadays against the background of the European Union, we shall feel free to interpret the 'Western' culture as a European culture. Later (p. 23) Steiner adds to the Greek the Hebraic influences simply due to the deep impact of the Old and the New Testament to European culture.

All in all, following Steiner's outlines, Greek language and culture has had the most important impact on our 'Western', i.e. European, culture simply by stating the enormous number of translations ever done from Greek into all those other languages we today may find in Europe (and of course not only there).

From Marsilio Ficino to Freud, the image of Greece, the verbal icon made up of successive translations of Greek literature, history, and philosophy, has oriented certain fundamental movements in Western feeling (p. 30).

Two additional aspects come into play, orientation and feelings. In other words, translation, that is in a wider sense language, gives orientation in the world. This does not automatically mean that orientation must be something that works on hierarchies, logical relations etc. It can also mean to get guidelines, suggestions, proposals for perceiving the world and for ruling our activities. Additionally, one thing should never be forgotten, the role of feelings and emotions in humans' perception of and acting in the world.

This idea of Europe can be explained by looking at the following quote from *After Babel*, in which George Steiner outlines a phenomenon that might be interpreted as palimpsest:

A great part of Western art and literature is a set of variations on definitive themes¹² (p. 24).

On the same page, Steiner calls an almost perfectly encompassing ‘instrument’ or ‘feature’ of the ancestors’ languages (Greek, Hebrew, and Chinese) which can be taken as the foundation of the palimpsestic character of all achievements in languages, literature and arts of our ‘Western’ world: metaphor.

Why did certain languages effect a lasting grip on reality? Did Hebrew, Greek, and Chinese (in a way that may also relate to the history of writing) have distinctive resources? Or are we, in fact, asking about the history of particular civilizations, a history reflected in and energized by language in ways so diverse and interdependent that we cannot give a credible answer? I suspect that the receptivity of a given language to metaphor is a crucial factor (p. 24).

Thus, we might say that metaphor, or in terms of Lakoff and Johnson (1980) conceptual metaphor, is that explaining instance for telling what all languages will have in common. On the other hand, Steiner applies a conceptual metaphor to give more space to the idea of palimpsest without using the term ‘palimpsest’.

The relations of a text to its translations, imitations, thematic variants, even parodies, are too diverse to allow of any single theoretic, definitional scheme ... But there can be no doubt that echo enriches, that it is more than shadow and inert simulacrum. We are back at the problem of the mirror which not only reflects but also generates light (p. 317).

Undoubtedly, it is a very individual characteristic of Steiner’s writing to put not only several scholarly subjects and ideas into such a brief outline but also to use one (or more) linguistically determined cognitive concept to give reason to another one (or more). So, what is all included in this quote? First, there are ‘relations of a text to its translations’ refers to intertextuality including text

¹²Gérard Genette has once outlined this idea in a more common, all-encompassing way introducing the conceptual pair of terms called hypotext and hypertext. Deriving from the theoretical framework of transtextuality, Genette developed his special approach to what Steiner has called ‘variations of definite themes’. However, Genette does not limit his comprehension of hypotext and hypertext neither to topics, themes, languages (in past or present) nor cultures and nations. Thus, Genette said: ‘By hypertextuality I mean any relationship uniting a text B (which I shall call the *hypertext*) to an earlier text A (I shall, of course, call it the *hypotext*), upon which it is grafted in a manner that is not that of commentary. The use of the metaphoric “grafted” and of the negative determination underscores the provisional status of this definition. To view things differently, let us posit the general notion of a text in the second degree...: i.e., a text derived from another preexistent text... It may yet be of another kind such as text B not speaking of text A at all but being unable to exist, as such, without A, from which it originates through a process I shall provisionally call *transformation*, and which it consequently evokes more or less perceptibly without necessarily speaking of it or citing it’ (Genette 1997: 5).

linguistics for example represented by Kristeva and Barthes; there are ‘imitations’, ‘variants’, ‘parodies’ which remind of Genette’s palimpsests, which all goes hand in hand with Steiner’s conceptional view to language and translation. Second, the conceptual metaphors introduced by Steiner bring some more facets of his approach to the fore. Thus, translation is not merely an echo, a shadow, a mirror, translation as a mirror is a creator of light, which finds its realization in perhaps enlightenment, reason, knowledge.

All that knowledge, reason, enlightenment must have their sources, their origin. But is it under question, discussion? Do we take all this for granted because of or due to the fact that we just belong to a ‘Western’ or ‘European’ cultural-language community? And is Steiner taking all this as a most natural thing?

We are so much the product of set feeling-patterns, Western culture has so thoroughly stylized our perception, that we experience our ‘traditionality’ as natural. In particular, we tend to leave unquestioned the historical causes, the roots of determinism which underlie the ‘recursive’ structure of our sensibility and expressive codes (p. 486).

The answer to be given is ‘no’. Steiner in the entire book is fighting indifference towards reasons for all the actual status and situation we are living and acting in. Knowing our roots to almost every extent and realizing the equality of any human being is essential for comprehending the power of at last linguistic communication. Thus, Steiner sees in this universal equipment of the human race the ground for all specific derivations humans ever developed: historically, socially, linguistically, emotionally.

Given our common neurophysiological build, archetypal images, sign systems ought to be demonstrably universal. Those stylization and continuities of coding which we can verify are, however, culture specific. Our Western feeling-patterns, as they have come down to us through thematic development, are ‘ours’, taking this possessive to delimit the Graeco-Latin and Hebraic circumference (p. 486).

And the translator? Is he/she an enlightener, a Prometheus to us and for cultures and peoples?¹³ Anyway, a translator has to struggle with all the given amount of linguistic material, cultural references, ways to think, forms to satisfy the receivers’ needs by finding a way to keep all in a balance between appropriateness to the things and appropriateness to the addressee, so as Steiner summarizes:

Where translation takes place at close cultural–linguistic proximity, therefore, we can distinguish two main currents of intention and semantic focus. The delineation of ‘resistant difficulty’, the endeavour to situate precisely and convey intact the ‘otherness’ of the original, plays against ‘elective affinity’, against immediate grasp and domestication. In perfunctory translation these two currents diverge. There is no shaping tension between them, and paraphrase attempts to mask the gap. Good

¹³A translator (like an author) is a liar. See Ursula K. LeGuin’s introduction to her novel *The Left Hand of Darkness*: <http://theliterarylink.com/leguinintro.html>

translation, on the contrary, can be defined as that in which the dialectic of impenetrability and ingress, of intractable alienness and felt ‘athomeness’ remains unresolved, but expressive (p. 412-13).

Although Steiner only talks about such a ‘close cultural–linguistic proximity’ which may serve the idea of Europe, although, it might be possible to apply this statement also for all other cultural–linguistic distances in case of translations.

Moreover, there is one instrument of language and thinking that goes far deeper towards finding the commons between all those languages we nowadays may count on Earth: metonymy that grounds on contiguity. Thus, it makes sense to start discussing the concept of contiguity by an all-encompassing idea which sets the foundation for comprehending contiguity:

The accidental, historically moulded differences between tongues are, no doubt, formidable. But underlying these there are principles of unity, of invariance, of organized form, which determine the specific genius of human speech. Amid immense diversities of exterior shape, all languages are ‘cut from the same pattern’ (p. 98).

Such ‘underlying principles’ are what contiguity is meant to be, that is the basic form and way we think, act, behave, and feel. The differences are a matter of perspective¹⁴ and a matter of ‘exterior shape’. The former can be understood as the way we may approach a certain concept, term, or idea to process it, to comprehend it, to make it applicable for our everyday life. The latter concerns the outer (‘exterior’) form in which we act, speak, behave. Because the principle of contiguity and its linguistically appearing form we call ‘metonymy’ are so deeply embodied¹⁵ in all humans, this basic human cognitive set-up is very often overlooked by researchers of language and mind. Nevertheless, following Steiner’s idea of languages being ‘cut from the same pattern’, we can take this as the first and ground setting instance of contiguity. Subordinate or derived from this ground setting instance of contiguity are several, mostly language specific, instances of it which found their manifestation in certain forms:

Differences of stress, organized sequence, relations of hierarchy as between the general and the particular or the sum and the part, these are the counters of reason from which all languages develop (p. 102).

Language typology¹⁶ is a good example for dealing with these differences between languages. However, all typological endeavours are directed to the

¹⁴See above footnote # 5.

¹⁵Metonymy is a more deeply embedded and ingrained capability of the human mind than classical approaches may tell. The cognitive turn in linguistics changed the point of view to the interaction between language and mind, thus, new approaches to understand what metonymy is might come into life... This leads to a comprehension of metonymy as a common, probably universal capability of human language and thinking – beyond the boundaries of languages and culture’ (Drößiger 2015: 8).

¹⁶Moravcsik points out that linguistic typology is ‘the study of the similarities and differences among languages that hold across genetic, areal, and cultural boundaries’ (2013: ix).

surface, the ‘exterior shape’ of languages. Digging deeper, we easily become aware of those commons between languages, called contiguity.

Steiner sees a widely spread richness in the European culture because of the immense work translators did within more than the last two centuries by calling this state of affairs

the created contemporaneity of ancient and modern and the unified diversity—coherent as are the facets of a crystal—of the European community as they derive from two hundred years of translation (p. 261).

The term ‘European community’ appears here, as far as I noticed, for the first time in *After Babel*, thus, we might say now that Steiner indeed sees Europe as a community despite or because of its inner diversity and contradictions. Yet, this community can stand together, however not exclusively, caused by a certain part of work done by linguists and translators who brought literacy and knowledge of all kind to every nation and ethnic group of Europe.

Instead of Conclusions: An Outlook

Summarizing this entire article can be done by quoting Steiner for a last time. In the section called *Afterword*, he points out:

To a greater or lesser degree, every language offers its own reading of life. To move between languages, to translate, even within restrictions of totality, is to experience the almost bewildering bias of the human spirit towards freedom. If we were lodged inside a single ‘language-skin’ or amid very few languages, the inevitability of our organic subjection to death might well prove more suffocating than it is (p. 497).

At first sight, Steiner’s words sound pessimistic and may evoke a feeling of helplessness. However, if we notice the gentle allusion to W.v. Humboldt’s cosmopolitan attitude towards mankind while saying that ‘every language offers its own reading of life’, we might feel free to take the entire quote as a paraphrase for that one all-encompassing capability of the human thought and thus for all languages which we may call ‘contiguity’, then our view to language and translation will probably change from confusion to confidence in men. In doing so, we have good reason for it since ‘to experience the almost bewildering bias of the human spirit towards freedom’ expresses all the above outlined interplay of language, community and thought. In all that possible manifoldness of human activities to eventually gain freedom, a single, universal idea rules all our endeavours, that is language which shall be a guarantor of freedom.

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Analysis of Writing Styles of Research Article Introductions in EFL Academic Context: A Case of University of Dar Es Salaam Journal Authors

*By Erasmus Akiley Msuya**

The current study is a descriptive analytical account of how authors in EFL context adhere to or contravene Swales' (1990) moves structure in their writing of Introductions in academic writing. The specific academic genres under analysis were 115 research articles which were purposively chosen from five university of Dar es Salaam academic journals. The analysis adopted Swale's CARs (Create A Research Space) moves, namely; establishing a territory, establishing a niche and occupying a niche. Document review was the sole data gathering tool. Findings indicated that generally the majority of authors maintained fidelity to Swale's chronology of moves structure, notably in the fields of linguistics and engineering sciences. However, about a quarter of the authors started their Research Article Introductions (RAIs) with establishing a niche before claiming centrality and occupying a niche. It has been concluded that variations in academic disciplines are not a factor for authorial variations in their styles of moves structure.

Keywords: RAI, Moves Structure, Academic Writing, EFL

Introduction

The Notion and Scope of Academic Writing Moves Structure

Recently, academic writing has been viewed as “collective social practices” (Hyland 2004) that is constructed through particular genre types and discipline-specific discourses. More specifically, there has been wide interest among academic writing scholars on genre analysis of the research articles (RA), so that a large body of data has been reported concerning the genre of RAs. In this sense, researchers such as Anthony (1999), Bunton, (2002), Fakhri (2004), Nwogu (1997), Ozturk (2007), Posteguillo (1999), Samraj (2002), and Swales and Najjar (1987) have specifically focused on the introductory section of RAs, using Swales' (1990) create a research-space model, also known as CARS model.

According to Swales (1990), RA introductions include three essential moves: move 1 (establishing the territory), move 2 (establishing a niche); and move 3 (occupying a niche). Swales (1990) proposed that each move is identified in terms of a variety of obligatory and optional steps. Swales' (1990) Genre Analysis has identified three moves and steps for each move within the introduction of the scientific research article as illustrated in Table 1.

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Table 1. Swales' Moves and Steps

Move 1: Establishing A Territory	Declining Rhetorical Effort	
Step 1: Claiming Centrality And/Or Step 2: Making Topic Generalizations And/Or Step 3: Reviewing Items Of Previous Research		
Move 2: Establishing A Niche		Weakening Knowledge Claims
Step 1a: Counter-Claiming Or Step 1b: Indicating A Gap Or Step 1c: Question-Raising Or Step 1d: Continuing A Tradition		
Move 3: Occupying The Niche	Increasing Explicitness	
Step 1a: Outlining Purposes Or Step 1b: Announcing Present Research Step 2: Announcing Principal Findings Step 3 Indicating Ra Structure		

Source: Swales 1990: 141.

As Table 1 above illustrates, the introduction becomes more explicit as it progresses. In move 1 the author establishes territory, defining the subject to be dealt with. One can boldly assert the centrality of the subject at hand or merely review previous research and by implication delimit the topic. The next step is establishing a niche. One establishes a niche by showing the limitations of previous studies. As a result, one creates research space by showing how the present study will fill a gap in the previous knowledge. It is possible to make a very strong claim by contradicting previous research or by indicating that past research has not covered a particular issue. Alternatively, one could make a much weaker claim by merely continuing a tradition in the sense of doing the same research area/aspect but only in different area or time. Finally, the writer describes how he or she will occupy the niche by outlining the purposes of the paper or indicating the paper's structure. Miller (1993) observes that although Swales' analysis was based on scientific introductions, one can see that it works well for many humanities introductions as well.

Empirical Findings

A good number of studies have been conducted in the area of RAI. Swales and Nijajir (1987), for example, carried out a study of two leading journals from two different fields, which are physics and educational psychology. In the *Physical Review* 45% of the introductions sampled contained APFs (with some increase in percentage over the last 40 years), while in the *Journal of Educational Psychology* the percentage fell to under 7%. There were thus (a) a mismatch between descriptive practice and prescriptive advice and (b) diversity in this rhetorical feature between the two fields.

Hirano (2009) compared the rhetorical organization of research article

introductions in Brazilian Portuguese and in English within Applied Linguistics subfield. Using Swales' (1990) CARS model as an analytical tool, 20 research articles were investigated. It was found that introductions in Brazilian Portuguese tended to follow a different pattern from that of the model, whereas the introductions in English followed it closely.

As for Samraj (2002), he analyzed RAIs in Wildlife Behavior and Conservation Biology and noted that, in the field of Wildlife Behavior, introductions often included "a background move that details the features of the species that is the object of observation or experimentation" (p. 14) in move 3. The researcher seems to agree that the move structure put forward by Swales (1990) is still generally valid and the changes that have been suggested often concern the steps within the moves rather than the moves themselves.

Another study done by Kanoksilapatham (2012) explored the generic structures of research article introductions in three engineering sub disciplines and variations that distinguish the introductions of one sub discipline from the others. Based on journal impact factors, three datasets of English research article introductions representing three sub disciplines of engineering (civil, software, and biomedical) were compiled, consisting of 180 introductions with 60 from each sub discipline. Then, the three datasets were analyzed using Swales's genre analysis technique to identify the structural patterns prevalent in the introductions of each sub discipline. The analysis shows that these introductions generally adhere to a common rhetorical organization across sub disciplines.

Loi's (2010) investigation of the rhetorical organisation of English and Chinese research article introductions in the field of educational psychology using Swales' (1990, 2004) framework of move analysis focused on 40 research articles (20 in Chinese and 20 in English). The English research articles, written by first-language English speakers, were selected from *The Journal of Educational Psychology* while the Chinese research articles, written by first-language Chinese speakers, were selected from *Psychological Development and Education*. It was revealed that English and Chinese research article introductions generally employed the three moves (i.e., Move 1, Move 2 and Move 3) as outlined by Swales (1990, 2004). Generally, the rhetorical moves and steps were employed in fewer Chinese introductions compared to the English ones.

In a study by Sheldon (2011), research articles (RAs) written in English and Spanish were examined with the aim to discover whether the textual organization in each language is similar or different. However, intercultural studies of texts produced by L2 writers in English were noted to be few in number. The results indicated that while the English L1 texts displayed a close affinity to the CARS (2004) schema, the Spanish L1 texts display some culture specific writing style. On the other hand, English L2 texts produced by Spanish writers appear to be developing CARS-like control of the introduction section, thus accommodating the needs of a broader audience.

Wang and Yang (2015) explored how promotion is realized in applied linguistics research article introductions (RAIs). The focus of the study was on claiming centrality and sought to examine what appeals and linguistic devices applied linguists employ and how they deploy them in RAIs to achieve positive

evaluation of the significance of the topic or the research area. Fifty-one RAIs from three top-tier journals in applied linguistics were selected for a corpus-based study. Qualitative analyses of the texts revealed four major types of appeals, that is, appeals to salience, magnitude, topicality, and problematicity of the topic in either the research world or the real world, which ALs made in varied ways. Linguistic devices realizing these appeals were also analyzed with the tool of appraisal. Quantitative analyses further unveiled ALs' frequent use of appeals, their reliance on indirect over direct approaches to promotion, and their preferred patterns in appeal deployment.

Ozturk (2007) explored the degree of variability in the structure of 20 research article introductions within a single discipline. The study focused on the differences between two sub disciplines of Applied Linguistics, namely Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Writing research, and was guided by Swales' (1990) CARS model. The findings revealed some sub disciplinary variation whereby the two sub disciplines seemed to employ different and almost unrelated move structures. In the second language acquisition corpus one type of move structure was predominant while in the second language writing corpus two different types of move structure were almost equally frequent.

Jalilifar (2010) investigated the generic organization of research article introductions in local Iranian and international journals in English for Specific Purposes, English for General Purposes, and Discourse Analysis. Overall, 120 published articles were selected from the established journals representing the above sub disciplines. Each sub discipline was represented by 20 local and 20 international articles. Following Swales' (2004) create a research space (CARS) model, the researcher analyzed the articles for their specific generic patterns. Findings demonstrated that despite some consistency in the international corpus, there emerged marked differences in utilizing second and third moves in international articles. Results suggested insufficient awareness of some Iranian research article writers regarding the generic structure of introduction. The findings of the study have implications for research article writers to improve their article introductions.

Suryani et al (2015) investigated the use of the strategy of indicating research gap in 150 research articles introductions in Computer Science disciplines written by academicians in Malaysian Universities. The finding of this study confirmed that indicating research gap" is underutilized by the Malaysians. In addition, this paper also described four various ways on how this strategy is commonly used by the non-native writers.

Abdulkhaleq (2006) sought to find whether writers with diverse educational backgrounds would perform the same written task differently, identify the macrostructure/rhetorical organization of research article (RA) introductions written in Arabic by Arab scholars and explore differences and similarities between Arabic RA introductions and English RA introductions produced by Americans who were native speakers of English. The corpus used in this study consisted of 15 research article introductions divided into three groups: Arab-educated Arabs (A-Ed-A, authors who earned their graduate degrees in the Arab World), US-educated Arabs (US-Ed-A, authors who earned their degrees in the United States, and US-

Native English speaking group (US-N). Swales' (1990) CARS model was used as a tool of analysis. Comparisons were made among the three groups at two levels of analysis: the macrostructure level and the move-step level. The two Arabic groups were found different at the two levels of analysis: the macrostructure level and the move-step level. These results signified that there were two models of rhetorical organization of Arabic RA introductions: a homegrown model and a hybrid model. The homegrown exhibited features which were more distant from the US-N group than the US-Ed-A group which shared some US writing norms. In addition, both of the Arabic groups were different from their American counterpart. Arab authors claimed the importance of their research in the real world rather than in existing research tradition as was the case in the American group. Thus, educational background of Arab RA writers could account for the preference of the rhetorical organization model of RA introductions as the US-Ed-A writers employed a hybrid rhetorical organization and the A-Ed-A writers employed the homegrown model.

Mohsenzadeh1 and Ebrahimi (2016) investigated the semantic and syntactic features of verbs used in the introduction section of Applied Linguistics research articles published in Iranian and international journals. A corpus of 20 research article introductions (10 from each journal) was used. The corpus was analysed for the syntactic features (tense, aspect and voice) and semantic meaning of verbs. The findings showed that in both groups of introductions, the common tenses were the present and past, rather than future. In introductions published in the international journal, the present tense was used more often than in those published in the Iranian journal, whereas past tense was used twice as frequently in Iranian journal introductions. Regarding the aspect of verbs, the simple aspect was common in both groups of introductions, but more frequent in Iranian journal introductions.

More recently, Farnia and Barati (2017) investigated the generic organization of English research article introductions written by native English and Iranian non-native speakers of English. A total of 160 published articles were selected from established journals in Applied Linguistics. Following Swales' (2004) create a research space (CARS) model, the researchers analyzed the articles for their specific generic patterns. Findings displayed that native English writers used significantly more strategies than Iranian non-native speakers of English, yielding richer texts. The findings of the present study contribute to the current knowledge of cross-cultural studies in academic writing to non-native English speakers in general and to non-native English novice writers in particular. Built on Swales' (2004) CARS model, the study describes how introduction sections are developed in English by native and non-native speakers, offering insights into ESP/EAP writing pedagogy.

Also a recent study by Ebrahimi (2017) investigated the types and discourse functions of grammatical subjects in research article introductions across four disciplines: Applied Linguistics and Psychology, representing soft sciences, and Chemistry and Environmental Engineering, representing hard sciences. This study involved a corpus of 40 research article introductions (10 from each discipline). The research article introductions were sourced from twelve ISI journals published between 2008 and 2012. Data were analysed based on the modified model in

relation to grammatical subject types and discourse functions suggested by Ebrahimi (2014). The results revealed that the grammatical subject type selections were guided by the nature of the research article introduction. However, the frequency of the use of the grammatical subject types was constrained by the nature of the discipline. Discourse functions of grammatical subject types were predominantly determined by the divisions of the hard and soft sciences, and the specific disciplines within and the internal structure of the research article introductions.

The review of literature shows that the area of moves structure in academic writing has been widely and diversely researched. A good number of reviewed literatures show that most studies are case studies but with units of analysis being drawn from among diverse content areas such as language area focus (language for general purposes or for specific purposes) and across disciplines (natural sciences vs humanities and social sciences, etc). Nonetheless, while a good number of such studies were conducted in foreign language contexts, none has been done in Tanzanian EFL context. The current study thus seeks to make analysis of the extent to which Tanzanian academic writers adhere to Swale's (1990) CARS framework of moves structure focusing on research article introductions.

Materials and Methods

The study was a balanced mix of quantitative and qualitative approaches that used corpus analysis of selected journal articles. It is a corpus based study, the meaning of which is restricted to what Vaughan (2016) calls sample corpus which she refers to as usually monolingual corpora that aim to capture features of a language variety (or our case academic writing register in English language) and that tend to be "snapshots" of a language, given that they are collected usually at a particular point in time. The sample corpus for this study was from the following University of Dar es Salaam journals which were purposively selected: Journal of Linguistics and Language Education (JLLE), Tanzanian Economic Review (TER), Tanzania Journal of Population Studies (TJPS), Tanzania Journal of Engineering and Technology (TJET), and Tanzania Journal of Science (TJS). From each, 23 articles were selected thus making a total of 115 research articles. The articles chosen were those with empirical researches.

The introduction section of each article was read and sentences were analyzed and classified in their respective moves in the author's style of writing, guided by Swales' (1990) CARS Model (creating a research space model). The main thrust was to find out author's degree of fidelity to the chronology of CARS Model moves; namely, establishing a territory, establishing a niche and occupying a niche and the options they make in doing so.

Findings

The findings are presented according to the chronology of moves as presented by Swales (1990), which are the moves pattern of flow of the introductions, establishing a territory, establishing a niche, and occupying the niche.

Pattern of Flow of Introductions

The findings indicate that not all authors (or the articles) linearly followed the moves as suggested by Swales (1990). Some employed different patterns as shown in table 1 below.

Table 2. *Patterns of Flow of Moves in Introduction*

PATTERN	JLLE	TER	TJPS	TJET	TJS	TOTAL
123	11	8	7	15	9	50
213	9	7	5	3	6	30
312	2	4	6	2	4	18
1231	1	4	5	3	4	17
Total	3	23	23	23	23	115

In Table 2 above the coding of moves is such that 1 represents establishing a territory, 2 stands for establishing a niche, and 3 for occupying a niche. The majority of articles (50, similar to 43.4%) are faithful to the chronological order of move structures the most of whom were articles by TJET and JLLE with 15 (30%) and 11 (22%) frequencies, respectively.

There were 30 articles (similar to 26% of all articles) in which the authors started with establishing a niche, before claiming centrality and finally occupying a niche. The majority of this category are articles from JLLE, TER and TJS whose frequencies are 9 (30%), 7 (23%) and 6 (20%), respectively.

A comparably not-so-popular pattern was an innovative one of first occupying a niche (notably through outlining purposes), then establishing a territory (mainly through reviewing items of previous research) and finally establishing a niche (via indirectly indicating a research gap). This pattern was employed by 18 article authors, which is equal to 16% of all articles, mainly from TJPS (6 articles, similar to 33%) and TER and TJS each with 4 articles (equal to 22% each).

A unique small group of authors sandwiched their establishing a niche and occupying a niche with establishing a territory at the beginning (largely via making topic generalization) and at the end of an introduction (mainly via claiming centrality). Only 17 (15%) authors used this innovation. These were mainly from TJPS (5, equal to 41%), and TER and TER and TJS (4 each, equal 23.5% each).

In short, the majority of the authors maintained fidelity to chronology of CARS moves structure.

Establishing a Territory

The different styles by the authors in the establishing a territory are as summarized in Table 3 below.

Table 3. *Styles of Establishing a Territory*

	JLLE	TER	TJPS	TJET	TJS	TOTAL
Claiming Centrality	8	13	6	5	8	40
Making Topic Generalizations	11	8	11	7	9	46
Revising Items of Previous Research	4	2	6	11	6	29
Total	23	23	23	23	23	115

Establishing a Territory

The findings in table 2 show that the most common style of establishing a territory for the current study subjects is to make topic generalization. The most notable here are JLLE and TJPS authors with 11 (24%) occurrences each while for TJET and TER this was not as popular since only 7 (15%) and 8 (17%) articles, respectively, begin with making topic generalizations in their articles.

Examples of topic generalizations are

- *The temporal categories of tense and aspect have received much attention in linguistic literature..A number of studies have been done in explaining those shortfalls in the overall performance of learners in English language examinations (Upor, 2013, JLLE Vol. 7. No.7)*
- *Drinking water may be contaminated by chemicals or microbes (Lugwisha et al, p.2, TJS).*
- *Rainfall is an important parameter for crop production in the regions where irrigation is not developed. Rainfall variability in terms of amount and time leads to poor crop production because it affects the soil moisture..... (Mwinuka and Uiso, TJS).*
- *Managing solid wastes is one of the main challenges facing most urban areas in the world. The challenges are even worse in developing and low-income countries, like those mostly found in Africa,. Monera and Liyaro, TER).*

Another group of authors establish a territory in their article introduction by claiming centrality. 40 (35%) article introductions follow this way, 13 (32%) of which were from TER and 8(20%) from JLLE and TJS. Authors from TJET made the least use of this strategy (5 articles, which is similar to 12.5%).

Examples of claiming centrality are:

- *The thickets provide a habitat which is not available in most of the city of Dar es Salaam City as the majority of the other available thickets have*

been cleared for building construction and other urban development (Shirima and Werema, TJS).

- *The growth in construction activities has been spurred by two factors (Mkenda & Aikaeli, TER).*
- *Currently, debates and significant gaps in the lignocellulolytic fungal enzymes' research have been focused on bioprospecting of fungi with novel biodegradative enzymes, use of novel inducers to enhance production and gene cloning to screen for new generation of enzymes.... (Masalu, TJS).*
- *Writing skills are of paramount importance to academic studies, professional success and personal development in most parts of the world today (Mohammed, JLE, Vol. 6 (2004) 21).*

Revising items of previous research as a strategy of establishing a territory is comparably least favoured by the authors in their article introductions. These were used by 29 authors, which is equal to 25%. 11 (38%) JET authors used this strategy to write their article introductions while 9 (27.5%) (for each) TJPS and TJS also used this strategy.

Examples of establishing a territory by revising previous research are:

- *Analysis of the pronominal system in Igbo in earlier studies..... recognized four categories of persons... (Akinremi, 2013, JLE Vol. 7, No.7).*
- *A number of studies have been done to understand how different climate indices or rainfall drivers affect rainfall amounts and distribution at different places in the world. P.1 (Mwinuka and Uiso, TJS).*
- *Studies have been conducted with a view to address the menace caused by industrial wastewater pollution in order to safeguard the environment and the society atlarge (Kurniawan et al. 2006 and Shivsharan et al. 2013). (p.122) [Nyaki and Njau, TJS].*

Establishing a Niche

This is the second move in which the author convinces their readers about the importance of the work to be presented. Four strategies were variously opted for as summarized in Table 4:

Table 4. *EFL Writers' Techniques of Establishing a Niche*

	JLE	TER	TJPS	TJET	TJS	TOTAL
Counter Claiming	3	2	7	5	7	24
Indicating Gap	9	7	9	7	5	37
Question Raising	6	6	4	9	4	29
Continuing the Tradition	5	8	3	2	7	25
Total	23	23	23	23	23	115

As per Table 4, indicating gap is the most favoured strategy of establishing a niche. This was opted for by 37 (32%) of all article authors the majority of whom

were from JLLE and TJPS each with 9 (24%) authors using it. However, only 5 (13.5%) authors from TJS used this strategy.

Examples of indicating gap are:

- *While the number of speakers of Kingoni is not threatening, the issue of attitude is a threat. (p.75) (Mapunda, 2013 JLLE Vol 7 No.7).*
- *Despite the plethora of studies on classroom language, little attention seems to have been paid to the role of teachers' oral language.... (Kapoli, I. 1998, JLLE).*
- *...while there is relatively little information on the abundance, morphology, taxonomy and even host relationships of other trematode species responsible for foodborne zoonotic trematodiasis, and those of less medical or veterinary importance.....However, these studies covered only small geographical areas thus leaving out the majority of freshwater snails unattended. P.2 (Chibwana and Nkengulwa, TJS).*

Question-raising ranked second in popularity by 29 (25%) of the authors using it as a strategy of establishing a niche. Most notably were TJET authors 9 (31%) used this strategy, while TJPS and TJS authors were the least to use it (by having 4 author each, similar to 14%).

Examples of questions raising are:

- *The question as to whether infants' language acquisition strategies tally with those used by second learners still remain unresolved (Mweteni, Y. JLLE, 35).*
- *..., the key question this study is to examine what determines and influence households' willingness to participate in wastes separation for reduce, reuse and recycle (Monella and Liyaro, TER).*

Continuing the tradition was favoured by 25 (22%) authors, the majority of whom were from TER (8 similar to 32% and TJS (7, similar to 28%). However, only 2 (8%) and 3 (12%) authors from TJET and TJPS, respectively, opted for this strategy.

Examples of continuing tradition are:

- *In 2005 new initiatives from the government emerged to re-establish Saanane game sanctuary with the view to promote into a national park, the process which prompted this assessment (Nahonyo and Sangu, TJS).*
- *However, when we make reference to language this way, we are ... mostly concerned with language usage and use.this leads to a number of problems (Ndoloi, JLLE).*

Finally, counter claiming ranked fourth and last as 24 (21%).The most notable here were the authors (7 for each, similar to 29%) from TJPS and TJS. However, only 2 (8%) and 3 (12.5%) authors from JLLE and TER, respectively, used this strategy.

Examples of counter claiming are:

- *However, it is important to note that the category of pronominal subject clitics in Igbo should also include the two variants of the dependent form... (Akinremi, 2013, JLLE).*
- *Studies on the influence of conservation status on the population parameters of the small mammals have been conducted in the southern Tanzania..... but a comparative study of the same kind has not been conducted in the northern part of the Serengeti Ecosystem in Tanzania (Magige, TJS).*
- *..... However, these studies covered only small geographical areas thus leaving out the majority of freshwater snails unattended. P.2 (Chibwana and Nkengulwa, TJS).*

Occupying the Niche

This deals with what the research seeks to attain. This is an optional area where some authors chose not to opt for it. However, for those who opted for it, two options are available and their choices are as summarized in Table 5.

Table 5. *The EFL Writers' Modes of Occupying the Niche*

Moves	JLLE	TER	TJPS	TJET	TJS	TOTAL
Outlining Research Purposes	8	9	11	4		40
Announcing Present Research	12	6	6	15	11	50
Not done	3	4	6	4		17
Total	23	19	23	23	19	107

Table 5 shows an overall preference for announcing the present study over outlining the research purposes or doing neither. To this, 50 authors (equal to 43.4%) employed it, mainly from TJET and JLLE with 15 (30%) and 12 (24%), respectively. Also 11 (22%) authors from TJS used this strategy.

Outlining the research purposes was also popular (though not as good as announcing the niche) was used by 40 (equal to 34.7%) authors, the majority (11, equal to 27.5%) of whom were from TJPS. Also, 8 (20%), 9 (22.5%) and 8 (20%) authors from JLLE, TER and TJS, respectively, used this mode of occupying the niche.

Examples of this mode of niche occupancy are:

- *This study ...seeking to find out and make analysis of motivational factors for Korean students' choice of Swahili as a foreign language (Msuya 2013, JLLE).*
- *The purpose of this paper is three fold. (p.17) (Mwansoko 1992, JLLE).*
- *Therefore, this study was conducted to determine the levels of formaldehyde and acetaldehyde in bottled drinking water and to evaluate the effect of*

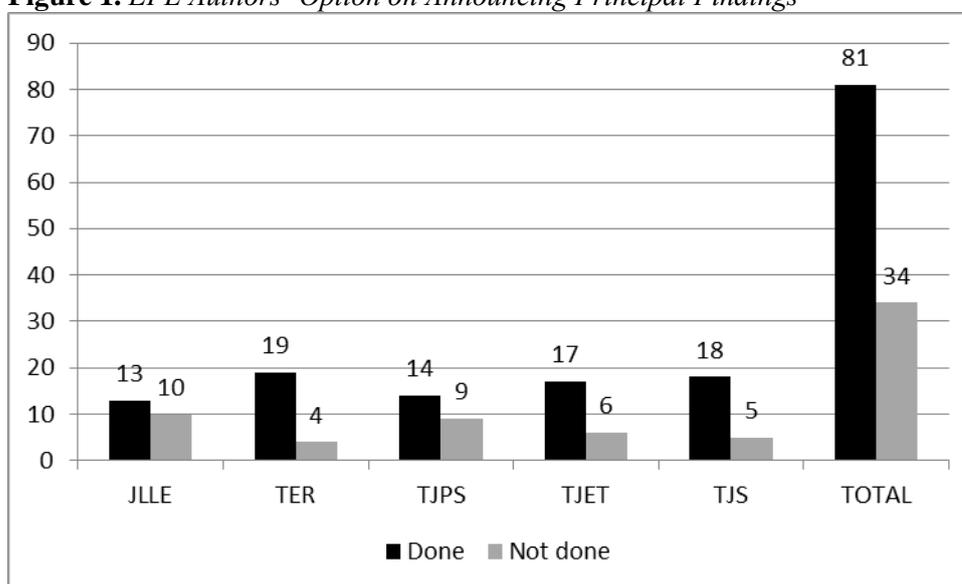
storage time and storage conditions on levels of these aldehydes. (p.2)
(Lugwisha et al, TJS).

However, a significant number (25 authors, equal to 21.7%) did not choose to occupy a niche, the majority (8, equal to 32%) being authors from TJS, followed by those from TJPS who were 6 (24%), JLLE had the fewest authors who opted out of occupying the niche.

Announcing Principal Findings

This was also an optional part of the introduction section to which the majority of authors in all journals opted out as detailed in figure 1 below.

Figure 1. *EFL Authors' Option on Announcing Principal Findings*



As Figure 1 shows, in all journals, the grand majority of authors did not announce principal findings in their introductions. Overall, 81 (70.4%) out of 115 article authors did not announce principal findings. Most notably were TER, TJET and TJS authors who had 19, (23.4%), 17 (21%) and 18 (22.2%) of their authors, respectively, opting out of announcing principal findings, JLLE had an almost balanced choice / non-choice in their authors about this aspect.

An example of announcing principal findings is:

- *In particular, the study aims to assess households' awareness and willingness to participate in wastes separation, and factors that enhance higher participation rates for the separation for the 3Rs. (Monera and Liyaro, TER).*

Step 3: Indicating Research Article Structure

This section was also an optional one and the grand majority (90 out of 115, which equal 78.2%) don't have it in their article introductions. The details of summing out in individual journals are summarized in Figure 2 below.

Figure 2. *EFL Authors' Options for Indicating Research Article Structure*

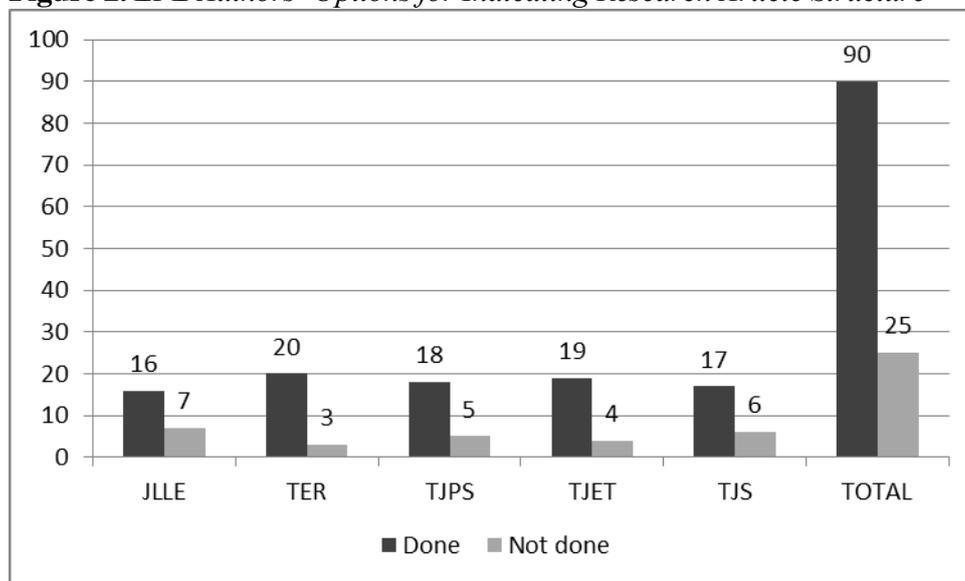


Figure 2 shows that the majority of authors in all journals prefer not to indicate research article structure. Most notable are 20 (8%) authors from TER, and 19 (83%) from IJET. Authors from JLLE were comparably fewer than their counterparts in opting out of indicating research article structure.

Conclusion

The study has shown that authors in the RAIs of studied journal articles show variability in their engagement of moves in CARS as proposed by Swales (1990). While about half of them observed linearity to the moves structure, a significant number (about one quarter) commenced their RAIs with establishing a niche, mainly through outlining the purpose of the study and then establish a territory. Yet another minority interchanged their establishing a niche with establishing a territory at the beginning. However, none of the observed variability in such styles of RAIs could be attributed to any specific academic or disciplinary specializations.

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On the Relationship between Translation Competence and Higher-order Thinking Skills of Novice Translators

By Hamed Ghaemi* & Seydhamed Sadoughvanini†

Higher-order thinking, known as higher order thinking skills (HOTS), is a notion of education improvement based on Bloom's taxonomy. The belief is that some types of learning involve more cognitive processing than others, but also have more generalized profits. The present study aims at investigating the relationship between translation competence along with its components and higher-order thinking skills of novice translators. To this end, 37 students of translation studies studying at the 5th semester were selected. The rationale behind this was that the students of the fifth semester don't have any solid understanding and experience of translation so they are considered as novice translator. Having collected the data from two questionnaires of Translation Competence Acquisition Questionnaire and Higher-order Thinking Skills, a correlational analysis was conducted. The results of Spearman's rank order correlation revealed a strong correlation ($\rho= 0.786$) showing not only does Translation Competence have statistically significant relationship with higher-order thinking skills in general, but also their components and sub-competences reveal strong and meaningful relationship.

Keywords: Translation competence, Higher-order thinking skills, translation notion, translation errors, translation problems

Introduction

Higher Order Thinking Skills

Higher-order thinking is considered the 'top end' of Bloom's (or any other) taxonomy: analyze, evaluate, and Create, or, in the older language, Analysis, Synthesis, and Evaluation (Brookhart, 2010). More specifically, it is a mixture of usually digital tools and resources selected by the learner to support different aspects of the learning process, ranging from goal setting to selecting materials and assessment as the final point (Reinders 2014: 14).

Establishing "higher-order-thinking skills" in students is considered an important educational goal. The focus and emphasis of this new approach to learning is on students' abilities and interests. In this way, the responsibility of learning activities outside the learning environment is directly placed on the students. This approach relies on more attractive learning resources including videos, audios, online readings and learning websites. Then, teachers' creativity plays an important role in employing the required skills to design an interactive environment leading to interactive and collaborative work of students. Pair work and group work are among the interactive activities which can be promoted by

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teachers. Teachers should prepare hands-on activities. Higher-order-Thinking Skills paves the way for the acquisition of knowledge and assists its transformation into responsible actions regardless of students' future role in society. Students are encouraged to apply critical thinking for the analysis of unfamiliar situations. Therefore, their problem-solving skills, asking-questions abilities, and decision-making skills will be framed by rational thinking. Higher-order Thinking Skills (HOTS) is a popular concept in American education. It distinguishes critical thinking skills from low-order learning outcomes, such as those attained by rote memorization. HOTS include synthesizing, analyzing, reasoning, comprehending, application, and evaluation. HOTS is based on various taxonomies of learning, particularly the one developed by Benjamin Bloom (1956) in his book titled 'Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: The Classification of Educational Goals'. Higher-order thinking skills are reflected by the top three levels in Bloom's Taxonomy: analysis, synthesis, and evaluation.

Bloom's Taxonomy and HOTS

Bloom's taxonomy is a popular concept taught in the majority of American teacher-education programs. As such, it may be among the most well-known educational theories pertaining to teachers nationally. As the *Curriculum & Leadership Journal* notes:

"While Bloom's Taxonomy is not the only framework for teaching thinking, it is the most widely used, and subsequent frameworks tend to be closely linked to Bloom's work.... Bloom's aim was to promote higher forms of thinking in education, such as analyzing and evaluating, rather than just teaching students to remember facts (rote learning)."

Bloom's taxonomy contains six levels to promote higher-order thinking. The six levels are: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. (The taxonomy's levels were later revised as remembering, understanding, applying, analyzing, revising, and creating.) The Lower-Order Thinking Skills (LOTS) involve a sheer memorization while higher-order thinking focuses on understanding and applying that knowledge.

The top three levels of Bloom's taxonomy—which is often displayed as a pyramid, with ascending levels of thinking at the top of the structure—are analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. These levels of the taxonomy all involve critical or higher-order thinking. Accordingly, students with higher thinking abilities can apply the knowledge and skills they have obtained to new contexts. Each level of this taxonomy displays and reveals how higher-order thinking is applied in education.

Why Higher Order Thinking Leads to Effective Study

A large number of students have reported that a huge portion of instructions at high school was about remembering and understanding big amounts of content and then demonstrating this comprehension periodically on tests and exams.

Bloom's Taxonomy is a framework which begins with these two levels of thinking as the launch pad of our brains to five other higher order levels of thinking—helping students move beyond remembering and recalling information towards a deeper application, analysis, synthesis, evaluation, and creation—the levels of thinking that teachers and lecturers have in mind while designing exams and paper assignments. Because it is in these higher levels of thinking that effective and deep learning of information takes place in brains, it's crucial for teachers to help students incorporate and integrate higher order thinking into their studying habits.

The following levels of Bloom's taxonomy can help you assess your comprehension of readings, lecture notes, and other course materials. By making and answering questions from a variety of categories, students can achieve a better preparation for all types of exam questions. While studying, students can start by asking questions from the level of remembering. Then, they can gradually and progressively move through the levels to push to obtain a deeper understanding leading to a more meaningful study followed by improving long-term retention.

Level 1: Remember

This level helps us recall foundational or factual information: names, dates, formulas, definitions, components, or methods.

Level 2: Understand

Understanding means that we can explain main ideas and concepts and make meaning by interpreting, classifying, summarizing, inferring, comparing, and explaining.

Level 3: Apply

Application allows us to recognize or use concepts in real-world situations and to address when, where, or how to employ methods and ideas.

Level 4: Analyze

Analysis means breaking a topic or idea into components or examining a subject from different perspectives. It helps us see how the "whole" is created from the "parts." It's easy to miss the big picture by getting stuck at a lower level of thinking and simply remembering individual facts without seeing how they are connected. Analysis helps reveal the connections between facts.

Level 5: Synthesize

Synthesizing means considering individual elements together for the purpose of drawing conclusions, identifying themes, or determining common elements. Here you want to shift from "parts" to "whole."

Level 6: Evaluate

Evaluating means making judgments about something based on criteria and standards. This requires checking and critiquing an argument or concept to form an opinion about its value. Often there is not a clear or correct answer to this type of question. Rather, it's about making a judgment and supporting it with reasons and evidence.

Level 7: Create

Creating involves putting elements together to form a coherent or functional whole. Creating includes reorganizing elements into a new pattern or structure through planning. This is the highest and most advanced level of Bloom's Taxonomy.

Translation Competence

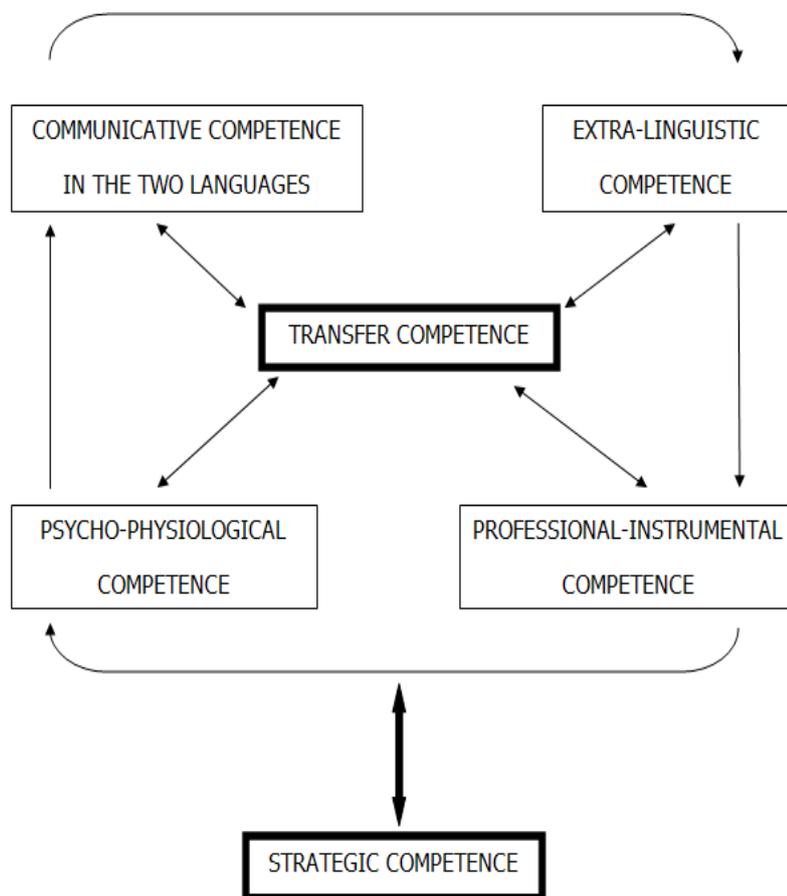
Over the recent years, translation and interpretation studies have attracted a great deal of attention; this appears to be affected by the temporal and special needs and demands of academic and industrial circles. The advances and developments in science and technology and the need to exchange the newly-developed information, knowledge and technology in native speakers' countries highlight a growing demand to train professional translators.

One of the requirements of training professional translators is to look more deeply into the translation professionalism. One of the most critical factors contributing to professionalism in translation is the development of translation competence, which has been called differently by different scholars, as *Transfer Competence* (Nord 1992), *Translational Competence* (Toury 1995), *Translation Performance* (Wilss 1989), and even *Translation Skill* (Lowe 1987). Borsch (1986), Gerloff (1987), Seguinot (1991) and Lorsch (1991) examined translation competence acquisition. However, it appears more qualitative, quantitative and empirical studies are needed to determine what kinds of factors can affect it. Some researchers, i.e., Ressurreccio, Piorno, and Izquierdo (2008) investigated the impact of textual genre on translation competence acquisition (TCA). However, the role of other factors, such as translation training courses and translation tasks, has remained unclear. PACTE group, i.e. Process of Acquisition of Translation Competence and Evaluation, (2000) presents the translation competence model that is the basis for designing the hypotheses of an empirical-experimental study of translation competence. Their research is the first stage in a larger project to investigate the process of translation competence acquisition. They describe the theoretical framework and the first models that were designed in 1998; along with the modification introduced in 1998 the translation competence model was developed as a result of the first exploratory studies.

PACTE Group Model

The PACTE model of Translation competence focuses on both the theoretical aspect of translation and its procedural aspects. PACTE (2000) defined TC as "the underlying system of knowledge and skills needed to be able to translate" (Orozco 2002: 5). PACTE's model includes a set of interrelated sub-competencies, and mostly stresses procedural aspects of translation (PACTE 2003: 23).

According to this group, TCA is a restructuring of competences. These competences, in the beginning, looked like this (Orozco 2000):

Figure 1. PACTE`s Model of TC

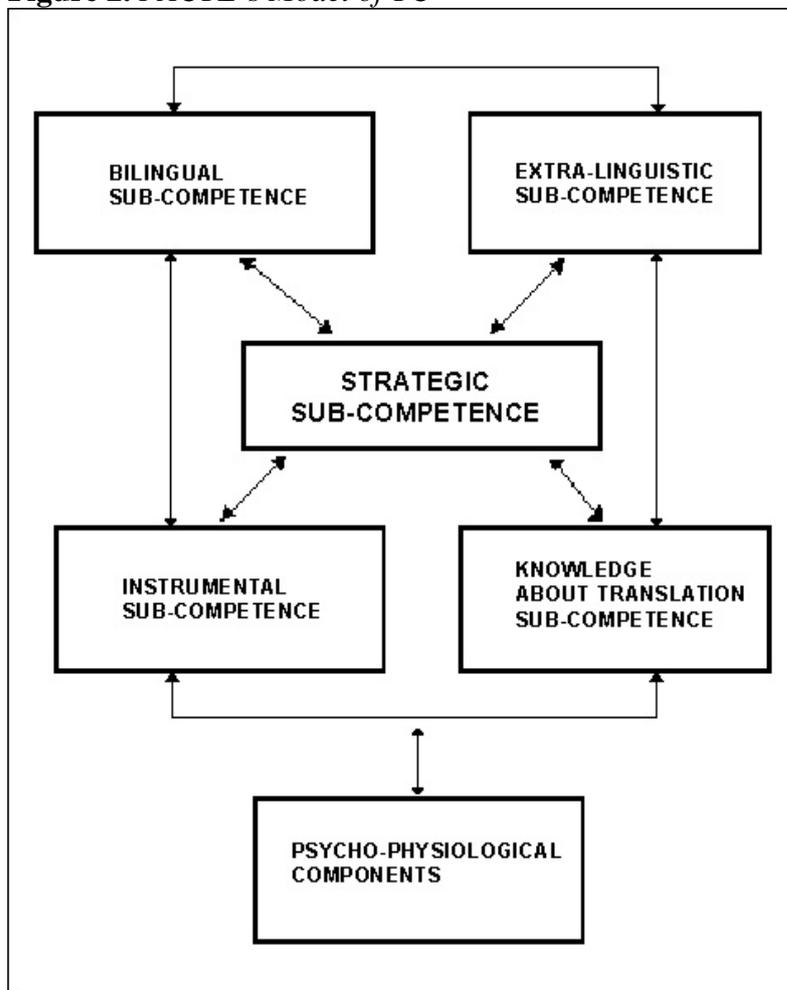
The competences were defined as follows:

1. Transfer competence: the ability to finish the process of translation, considering the functions of receptor.
2. Communicative competence: the ability to understand the source language and produce the target language.
3. Extra-linguistic competence: peripheral knowledge about translation such as bicultural and subject knowledge.
4. Instrumental-professional competence: knowledge of translation tools and profession.
5. Psycho-physiological competence: the ability to draw upon the cognitive and psychomotor resources.
6. Strategic competence: the ability to solve the problems faced with while translating (PACTE 2000: 48).

The previous models were merely theoretical, so PACTE group created several tools to validate their model empirically. They measure translation problems,

translation errors and translators' notion about translation in their research on TC. Over time, the results of validation caused the PACTE group to modify their model and the model further developed into the following construct (PACTE 2005):

Figure 2. PACTE's Model of TC



The model comprised the following competences (PACTE 2003):

1. "Bilingual sub-competence: which is mostly procedural knowledge for communicating in two languages. It consists of pragmatic, socio-linguistic, textual, grammatical and lexical knowledge in the two languages.
2. Extra-linguistic sub-competence: is declarative knowledge, involving bicultural, encyclopaedic and subject knowledge.
3. Knowledge about translation sub-competence: which is declarative knowledge mainly about the translation profession.
4. Instrumental sub-competence: which is procedural knowledge about the use of documentation resources and IT equipment in translation. Also, it focuses on the use of different dictionaries, encyclopaedias and electronic

corpora.

5. Strategic sub-competence: which is procedural knowledge used to control the translation process.
6. Psycho-physiological components: different mechanisms such as cognitive and attitudinal components are included in this competence, (PACTE 2003).

PACTE came to the conclusion that TC is composed of several sub-competences with strategic competence in a central position (PACTE 2000). Both models presented by Campbell (1991) and PACTE (2003) are important, because they consider psycho-physiological characteristics in their models.

After the translation competence model has been established, Orozco and Hurtado (2002) tried to design and develop the instruments which could accurately measure it. Orozco and Hurtado (2002) developed the instruments for measuring the process of acquiring translation competence in written translation. Translation competence and its process of acquisition were described, and then three measuring instruments. In 2013, Alavi and Ghaemi developed, validated and assessed the reliability of Translation Competence Acquisition Questionnaire. (Alavi and Ghaemi 2013).

According to Alavi and Ghaemi (2013) three measuring instruments can be used to evaluate the Translation Competence. The first one is called “*Translation Notions Instrument*” (TNI), the second one is “*Translation Problems Instrument*” (TPI) and the last instrument is “*Translation Errors Instrument*” (TEI). To measure TC, it is essential to define what makes TC and how it can be acquired. The dynamic model presented by PACTE considers TC to have six sub-competences (PACTE 1998, 2000):

1. Communicative competence in both languages.
2. Extra-linguistic competence.
3. Transfer competence.
4. Instrumental competence.
5. Psychophysiological competence.
6. Strategic competence (PACTE 1998, 2000: 72).

Orozco (2001) has identified three characteristics that are shared by all the indicators of translation competence acquisition. First, all the translation competence acquisition indicators should affect the whole process of translation, not just some of its stages. Second, they should be observable and measurable. Finally, all of them should give an indirect view of translation strategies, which is not directly observed but is essential to translation competence (Orozco, 2001). Orozco and Hurtado (2002) have chosen three indicators to make translation competence acquisition operational. These indicators are as follows.

1. Behavior when encountered with a translation problem
2. Behavior related to translation errors
3. General Notions about translation

The definitions on which the three instruments of measuring translation competence acquisition are developed are as follow:

According to Nord (1992: 7), a translation problem "is an objective problem which every translator has to solve during a particular translation task". Orozco (2001) believes that all translation problems share three features. First of all, they should exist at any stage of translation process. Second, it should be observable, and lastly students should have the ability to use translation strategies to solve their problems (Orozco 2001).

Nord (1997) states that the source of a translation error is a translation problem, which has not been solved or has been solved inappropriately. As can be seen, this element also shares the same three qualities as translation problems, that is, it can be observed, it can happen at any stage of translation, and it is indicator of a student's use of translation strategies.

At last, general notions about translation depict the students' process of translation, because it depends on the students' attitudes towards translation, and shows that they have an aim for a particular translation task (Orozco 2001).

Nord (1997) puts out that the lack of knowledge of translation notions causes translation errors. Thus, translation notions also share the same three qualities mentioned above.

Overall, three instruments, which have been developed by Orozco (2001), to assess the Translation Competence Acquisition, are as follows:

1. Translation Notions Instruments
2. Translation problems Instruments
- 3 Translation Errors Instruments.

More details on the components of each instrument are discussed in the following section.

Translation Notion Instrument

Translation Notion Instrument (TNI) questionnaire, developed by Orozco and Hurtado (2002), consists of 12 items and is divided into three categories of Multiple Choice, True/False, and Open-Items. TNI is a questionnaire which covers seven factors within the "abstract" notion of translation (Orozco and Hurtado 2002). Seven factors like notions about translation, notions about translation problems, the translation units, translation equivalence, translation functions, translation competence and translation strategies are included in the questionnaire (Orozco 2000).

Translation Problems Instrument

Translation Problems Instrument (TPI) questionnaire, developed by Orozco and Hurtado (2002), consists of two parts. The first part includes a task through which students should translate a text and the second task is a TPI questionnaire. In the text students are supposed to translate four translation problems, namely:

pragmatic, extra-linguistic, transfer and linguistic. Orozco and Hurtado (2002) maintained that these four types of translation problems are chosen because in order to solve them the translator needs to draw upon all the components of translation competence (Orozco and Hurtado 2002). After students translated the text, they are asked to answer the TPI questionnaire. The evaluator reads the translated text along with the TPI questionnaire to see whether each student was able to solve the translation problem.

Translation Errors Instrument

Translation Errors Instrument (TEI) is divided into two sections. The first section overlaps with the first part of TPI, i.e. translation of a text (Orozco and Hurtado 2002). The second section is the correction of the translation to see how many errors there are of each type.

Research Questions

The current study tried to find reasonable answers to the following questions:

1. Is there any statistically significant relationship between Translation Competence and Higher-Order thinking skills of novice translators?
2. Is there any statistically significant relationship between Translation Notions and Analyzing skills of novice translators?
3. Is there any statistically significant relationship between Translation Notions and Evaluating skills of novice translators?
4. Is there any statistically significant relationship between Translation Notions and Creating skills of novice translators?
5. Is there any statistically significant relationship between Translation Problems and Analyzing skills of novice translators?
6. Is there any statistically significant relationship between Translation Problems and Evaluating skills of novice translators?
7. Is there any statistically significant relationship between Translation Problems and Creating skills of novice translators?
8. Is there any statistically significant relationship between Translation Errors and Analyzing skills of novice translators?
9. Is there any statistically significant relationship between Translation Errors and Evaluating skills of novice translators?
10. Is there any statistically significant relationship between Translation Errors and Creating skills of novice translators?

Methods

Participants

Participants were selected from B.A. students of English Translation Studies at Bahar Institute of Higher Education in Mashhad, Iran. Since the participants should not have any academic translation training experience, only students who were studying in the fifth semester were selected. According to Iran's curriculum of Translation Studies, the students should be supposed to study only General English in the first 4 semesters and they actually enter the 5th semester, when they ought to start translating in practice, without any background in translation. The age range of participants was between 19 and 22 years old and based on the prior completion of the courses, they were all in the 5th semester, studying Translation Studies.

Instruments

For the purpose of this study two questionnaires were employed. First, a Higher-order thinking skills questionnaire used including 30 questions divided into three levels based on Bloom's Taxonomy. It was analyzing (15 questions), evaluating (10 questions) and creating (5 questions). These questions were multiple choice. Each question scored one grade for a correct answer and zero for the wrong answer with a total score of 30 points. The reliability of the tool was confirmed by Cronbach's Alpha test $r = 0.89$. The second instrument of the present study was Translation Competence Acquisition Questionnaire (TCAQ) developed by Alavi and Ghaemi (2013). The reported reliability index is .807. TCAQ includes three sub-instruments as follows:

- 1 Translation Error Instrument (TEI)
- 2 Translation Problem Instrument (TPI)
- 3 Translation Notions Instrument (TNI)

Translation Notions Instrument (TNI)

TNI is a multidimensional questionnaire as it covers seven factors within the "abstract" notion of what translation is (Orozco and Hurtado 2002). Seven factors like notions about translation, notions about translation problems, the translation units, translation equivalence, translation functions, translation competence and translation strategies are included in the questionnaire (Orozco 2000). Based on the findings of Orozco and Hurtado (2002), this questionnaire measures two main constructs of *Knowledge about translation*, as measured by items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 12, 13, and 14, of the TC questionnaire and *Strategic sub-competence*, which is measured by items 15, 16, 17, 40, 50, 51, 52, 53, 54, 55, and 56.

Translation Problems Instrument (TPI)

TPI questionnaire consists of two parts. The first part includes a task translating a general text from English to Persian and the second one a TPI questionnaire. In the text students are supposed to translate four translation problems, namely: pragmatic, extra-linguistic, transfer and linguistic. Orozco and Hurtado (2002) maintained that these four types of translation problems are chosen based on the rationale that in order to solve them the translator needs to mobilize all the components of translation competence (Orozco and Hurtado 2002). After students translated the text, they were asked to answer the TPI questionnaire.

The evaluator read the translated text together with the TPI questionnaire. Therefore, the translation of each student was checked to see whether each problem had been solved or not. This questionnaire measures two main constructs of *Bilingualism* and *Instrument sub-competences*. Bilingual sub-competence was measured through items 21, 22, 23, 24, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 43, 44, and 45. Also, Instrumental sub-competence was measured through items 8, 9, 10, 11, 18, 19, 20, 28, 41, and 42 of TC questionnaire.

Translation Error Instrument (TEI)

TEI was aimed to measure two constructs of *Extra-linguistics* and *Psychophysiological components*. The former was measured through items 25, 26, 44, 49, 56, and 57 and the latter through items 27, 46, 54, 55 and 57.

Procedure

As the main aim of the present study was to assess the relationship between translation competence and higher-order thinking skills of novice translators, only were the students of the fifth semester selected, hence the intact group design was chosen for the purpose of this study.

A group of 37 translation studies students was selected and they were given the Translation Competence Acquisition Questionnaire. In view of the fact that TCAQ takes a long time to be completed, the participants were asked to take the questionnaire home and complete and return it to the researchers within a week. Having returned the questionnaire, the participants were asked to gather in the conference hall of Bahar institute of higher education to answer the Higher-order thinking skills questionnaire. This instrument took an hour to be completed. The data collected from both instruments were used for the purpose of data analysis.

Data Analysis

To carry out the analysis and due to the nature of the collected data, Spearman Rank Order Correlation was used. The present study aimed at exploring the

various aspects of the relationship between higher order thinking and translation competence. To answer the first research question of this study and investigate the extent of the relationship between the participants' translation competence and high order thinking, Spearman's rank order correlation was conducted. The results revealed a strong correlation ($\rho= 0.786$) showing the students with higher thinking order possess a higher level of translation competence.

High order thinking had three subcomponents of analysis, evaluation and creation. Likewise, translation competence had three subcomponents of translation notion, translation problem, and translation error. Hence, analyzing the one-one relationship of these subcomponents can be illustrative.

In the first phase, Spearman's rank order correlation was conducted to find the extent of the relationship of translation notion to analyzing, evaluating and creating skills answering research questions 2, 3, and 4. According to the results, translation notion revealed a strong relationship to analyzing ($\rho= 0.801$), evaluating ($\rho= 0.754$), and creating ($\rho= 0.813$).

In the second phase, Spearman's rank order correlation was conducted to find the extent of the relationship of translation problem to analyzing, evaluating and creating skills answering research questions 5, 6, and 7. According to the results, translation problems revealed a strong relationship to analyzing ($\rho= 0.823$), evaluating ($\rho= 0.817$), and creating ($\rho= 0.845$).

In the third phase, Spearman's rank order correlation was conducted to find the extent of the relationship of translation errors to analyzing, evaluating and creating skills answering research questions 8, 9, and 10. According to the results, translation errors revealed a strong relationship to analyzing ($\rho= 0.789$), evaluating ($\rho= 0.812$), and creating ($\rho= 0.822$).

It is worth noting that each sub-component of translation competence consists of two other subcomponents. Translation notion constitutes knowledge about translation and strategic subcomponents. Translation problem includes bilingualism and instrument. For Translation error, extralinguistic and psychophysiological are the two subcomponents. Investigating the relationship of each of the six subcomponents to all of the three subcomponents of high order thinking demonstrates detailed aspects of the relationship between translation competence's subcomponents and HOTS' subcomponents. Therefore, three more phases of correlational analysis are needed.

In the fourth phase, Spearman's rank order correlation was conducted to find the extent of the relationship of translation notion's subcomponents to analyzing, evaluating and creating skills. According to the results, knowledge about translation revealed a strong relationship to analyzing ($\rho= 0.723$), evaluating ($\rho= 0.717$), and creating ($\rho= 0.742$). Similarly, a strong relationship of strategic sub-component to analyzing ($\rho= 0.893$), evaluating ($\rho= 0.887$), and creating ($\rho= 0.865$) was discovered.

In the fifth phase, Spearman's rank order correlation was conducted to find the extent of the relationship of translation problem's subcomponents to analyzing, evaluating and creating skills. According to the results, bilingualism revealed a strong relationship to analyzing ($\rho= 0.869$), evaluating ($\rho= 0.857$), and creating

($\rho= 0.863$). Similarly, a strong relationship of instrument to analyzing ($\rho= 0.839$), evaluating ($\rho= 0.889$), and creating ($\rho= 0.850$) was discovered.

In the sixth phase, Spearman's rank order correlation was conducted to find the extent of the relationship of translation error's subcomponents to analyzing, evaluating and creating skills. According to the results, extralinguistic revealed a strong relationship to analyzing ($\rho= 0.899$), evaluating ($\rho= 0.897$), and creating ($\rho= 0.884$). Similarly, a strong relationship of psychophysiological to analyzing ($\rho= 0.856$), evaluating ($\rho= 0.869$), and creating ($\rho= 0.895$) was discovered.

Discussion and Conclusion

Higher-order thinking, known as higher order thinking skills (HOTS), is a notion of education improvement based on Bloom's taxonomy. The belief is that some types of learning involve more cognitive processing than others, but also have more generalized profits. In Bloom's taxonomy, skills concerning analysis, evaluation and creation are thought to be of a higher order than the learning of facts and concepts which needs diverse learning and teaching methods. Higher-order thinking includes the learning of multipart critical skills such as critical thinking and problem solving. Higher-order thinking is harder to learn or teach but also more respected because such skills are more likely to be practical in novel situations (i.e., situations other than those in which the skill was learned).

As the data analysis of the study reveals, there was a statistically significant relationship between Translation Competence Acquisition and Higher-order thinking skills of novice translators. This suggests that all the subcomponents of higher-order thinking skills including analyzing, creating and evaluating considerably assist the translator to enhance their translation competence and performance. Moreover, a deep analysis of both questionnaires' subcomponents showed more interesting findings. Bilingual sub-competence, which is one of the components of translation problems, consists of procedural knowledge needed to communicate in two languages including pragmatic, sociolinguistic, grammatical, lexical knowledge, etc. Pragmatic knowledge, as an example, is "how individuals communicate meaning and how they produce contextually appropriate utterances, sentences, or texts. Instrumental sub-competence, as another sub-component of Translation problem, refers to procedural knowledge related to the use of dictionaries of all kinds, encyclopedias, electronic corpora, etc. The results of analysis showed that there was a significant relationship between translation problems and all three components of higher-order thinking skills, meaning *analyzing*, which help us see how the "whole" is created from the "parts", *evaluating*, requiring checking and critiquing an argument or concept to form an opinion about its value, and *creating*, involving putting elements together to form a coherent or functional whole as well as reorganizing elements into a new pattern or structure through planning, play a crucial role in developing translation competence of novice translators.

Extra-linguistic knowledge, including world knowledge, domain-specific knowledge, bicultural knowledge, etc., is a sub-component of translation error.

The results revealed that translation errors had meaningful correlation with all three subcomponents of Higher-Order thinking skills. This signifies that the "Analysis" category in Bloom's taxonomy which involves breaking information down into parts and different forms, and drawing comparisons between a text and background knowledge data improves the extra-linguistic knowledge, i.e. translation errors, of translators to a great extent. Also, *creating*, as another category of Higher-order thinking skills, involves linking new information with prior knowledge or with multiple texts to develop a new idea, establish a new way of thinking, or create a new product of some type. This is exactly why the extra-linguistics component of Translation Errors has a strong relationship with HOTS. Psycho-physiological components of translation errors involves thinking critically, intellectual inquisitiveness, and cognitive components. The findings of this study confirm that the development of Psycho-physiological components is highly dependent upon the translator's creating, evaluating and analyzing skills.

Strategic sub-competence, as a component of translation notion, has also a strong relationship with all the three skills of HOTS. According to this sub-competence, translators should, firstly, plan the translation process, identify translation problems, apply the procedures to solve them, and then proceed to perform the translation task. Analyzing skills of HOTS involve students' use their own judgment to begin analyzing the knowledge they have acquired. At this point, they begin understanding the underlying structure of knowledge and also are able to distinguish between fact and opinion. What's more, evaluation, the top level of Bloom's taxonomy, involves students making judgments about the value of ideas, items, and materials. Evaluation is the top level of Bloom's taxonomy pyramid because it is at this level that students are expected to mentally assemble all they have learned to make informed and sound evaluations of the material. These descriptions show why Strategic sub-competence had statistically significant relationship with all three main skills of HOTS.

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Usage of the Methods of Cognitive Linguistics/Grammar in Teaching Czech for Foreigners (with Focus on Verbal Aspect)

By Markéta Dosoudilová* & Božena Bednaříková[‡]

Czech grammar, in particular its verbal aspect, is very difficult for foreign learners of Czech. However, cognitive linguistics offers a profound didactic potential – mainly with respect to its basic concepts and principles – that allow us to clarify the semantic content of multiple linguistic and grammar mechanisms. These help us teach grammar in a less abstract manner, which helps students to understand it more easily. The aim of this article is to show how selected methods of cognitive linguistics and grammar can be applied to Czech language. We will focus primarily on the metaphor of cognitive linguist Laura Janda, who compares perfective verbs in Slavic languages to bounded solid objects and imperfective verbs to fluids. Based on this metaphor and specific characteristics of the given substances that are known to us from our daily empirical experience, we can further analyse more characteristic features of perfective and imperfective verbs and functional aspects of the category of verbal aspect in general. This analysis can be very helpful in teaching Czech for foreigners because language teachers often struggle to find the best way to present this objectively complicated and highly abstract grammatical feature in their classes.

Keywords: cognition, cognitive linguistics, grammar, semantics, Czech, verbal aspect, metaphor

Introduction

Recently, we have observed an increased interest in studying Czech for foreigners related to a higher number of foreign students and foreigners coming to the Czech Republic to look for a job. However, mastering the language is sometimes very difficult, especially for non-Slavic people, if we consider more complex grammar features such as verbal aspect. Our aim should be to look for ways to make the learning process easier. One of the possible alternatives is cognitive linguistics/grammar¹ that, thanks to its nature, aims to use knowledge of general cognitive processes to clarify diverse language features. These characteristics should help us make grammar teaching more approachable and comprehensible, as shown in Section 3. The abovementioned, leading us to combine teaching Czech as a foreign language with the methods of cognitive

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¹We operate primarily with the umbrella term cognitive linguistics and switch to cognitive grammar in cases where solely the level of grammar is in question. The term cognitive grammar is used with regard to the work of Ronald Langacker, who is considered to be a founder of this field of linguistics.

linguistics, serves as an argumentation basis of this article² and might be of use both for students learning Czech and for language teachers.

Inspiration for our qualitative research based on retrieval and search analysis of available textbooks of Czech as a foreign language has been found in key works by important authors in the field of cognitive linguistics such as George Lakoff, Ronald Langacker and others but more importantly in the work of Laura Janda, who as a cognitive linguist deals not only with basic principles of this approach but also focuses on applying these principles to Czech language teaching, specifically in terms of case semantics and to a lesser extent the category of verbal aspect. Taking into account the objective difficulty of verbal aspect and the fact that this field has not been researched thoroughly using the cognitive approach, we would like to focus mainly on this topic. Our basic question was as follows: is it possible to present and explain the Czech verbal aspect through metaphors arising from human experience?

Verbal Aspect

The category of aspect deals with the relation of the action and the flow of time. This grammar feature influences lexical content of a verb and thus operates both on the level of grammar and lexical semantics. The meaning of the verb is determined semantically as a completed action and its result (or with possible completeness in the future), or as an ongoing process that has not been finished in the past, present or future. Here we can see another detailed characteristics, i.e. connection to the category of tense – perfective verbs (as opposed to imperfectives) do not express absolute present. According to Kopečný (1962), the basic aspect is the imperfective (impf.) aspect: these verbal forms do not express if the action has been finished or not (*dělat* ‘impf. to do/to be doing’, *psát* ‘impf. to write/to be writing’).³ As Kopečný claims, the perfective aspect (pf.) (that is marked and bounded) is represented by perfective verbs with a prefix (*udělat* ‘pf. to do’, *napsat* ‘pf. to write’) or rarely a stem suffix *-nou(t)* (*sprchovat se* ‘impf. to take a shower/to be taking a shower’ > *sprchnout se* ‘pf. to take a shower’). The imperfective aspect is realized in a form of a suffix that is joined to the perfective verb, very often the word-formational suffix *-va(t)* (*vydělat* ‘pf. to make money’ > *vydělavat* ‘impf. to make money/to be making money’) or the stem suffix *-ova(t)* (*přivázat* ‘pf. to tie up’ > *přivazovat* ‘impf. to tie up / to be tying up’, *nakoupit* ‘pf. to shop / to buy’ > *nakupovat* ‘impf. to shop / to be shopping’). Suffixation and

²The essential part of the article is based on the master’s diploma thesis of one of the authors (see Dosoudilová 2017), in which she carried out an analysis of selected textbooks of Czech for foreigners. The aim of the analysis was to find similarities and discrepancies between the textbooks in terms of presentation of verbal aspect. Furthermore, the author assessed the corresponding definitions, looked for problematic or misleading wordings and stated to what extent methods based on cognitive linguistics and grammar were applied.

³With respect to frequent comments, the completeness is deemed rather subjective than absolute (pf. *poslechnout si* ‘to listen for a bit’ does not mean the same as pf. *vyslechnout* ‘to listen completely’ etc.). The main focus is in this case not on the completeness in time but more likely on the accomplishment of the action, where there was no need to continue with it.

prefixation (alternatively suppletion of a stem or a suffix) results in verbal pairs that differ only in aspect.

Generally speaking, but with regard to the specifics of Czech, the verbal aspect is not a purely grammatical means of a verb, but a means that is closely related to the meaning of a verb. Most Czech verbs occur in two forms, which do not differ in their verbal meaning, but in aspect: *navštívit* – *navštěvovat* ‘to visit’, *dát* – *dávat* ‘to give’. The perfective verb (*navštívit*, *dát*) expresses the action conceived holistically, boundedly, often in its result. However, it never expresses a „story“ taking place in the present, it only has the ability to reflect a story that has already taken place (*koupil si nové auto* ‘he bought a new car’) or that is yet to take place (*koupí si nové auto* ‘he is going to buy a new car’). An imperfective verb (*navštěvovat*, *dávat*), on the other hand, expresses an action boundless, unclosed, an action taking place regardless of its completion or its result, or a repeated action. Imperfective verb also has the ability to express the actual presence (*právě je v autosalonu a kupuje si nové auto* ‘at the moment he is at the car store buying a new car’). The aspect opposite of perfectiveness and imperfectiveness is typical for verbs expressing dynamic events (*vystoupit* – *vystupovat* ‘to get off’, *zavřít* – *zavírat* ‘to close/shut’), static verbs or expressing only simple events (*sedět* ‘impf. to be sitting’, *pracovat* ‘impf. to be working’) do not have their aspect counterpart, so they do not form an aspect pair.

What is characteristic of the Czech verbal aspect are the other specific functions, tied to human experience and communication. In addition to their general meaning (infinity of time), imperfective verbs (imperfectives) can perform the following specific functions: expression of parallel events, updating of events, slowing down of dynamic events (in narratives), signaling of usualness, regularity, repetition of events, expression of ability/incompetence, expression of intention or plan, signaling of authorship. In addition to their general meaning (time limitation, completeness of action), perfective verbs (perfectives) can perform the following specific functions: expression of the time sequence of events, expression of the inability to perform an action, reaction to a stimulus, signaling of momentarity, immediacy, one-time action, expression of the phase of an action, its beginning/end. Those specificities of the Czech verbal aspect must also be taken into account and viewed from a cognitive-linguistic point of view.

Verbal Aspect in Czech for Foreigners

The definition of verbal aspect within the didactics of Czech as a foreign language tends to be simple and comprehensible. Consider the following definition of Poldauf & Šprunk:

Verbs represent actions that are realised in-time. These actions can be expressed with two verbs (verb pairs), e.g. psát – napsat ‘impf. to be writing – pf. to write’, dát – dávat ‘pf. to give – impf. to be giving’. Both verbs have the same meaning and stand for the same action but differ in the quality of aspect. This means that both verbs describe how the action extends over time. [...] Imperfective verbs record the action, perfective verbs take a photo of it. (Poldauf & Šprunk 1968, 212–213)

It is crucial to be aware of and not to neglect the fact that non-Slavic students of Czech often do not know the category of aspect and its function. Thus, it is necessary to start with a comprehensible explanation of this rather specific notion that is complicated especially for foreign learners.

Problems in Teaching Verbal Aspect in Czech for Foreigners

The category of verbal aspect is generally seen as one of the most difficult (see the survey by Kutláková 2015) to learn not only for students whose mother tongue lacks this category and who are not familiar with its function at all. Furthermore, some problems might arise also for Slavic learners who understand it based on their experience in the respected language but from time to time struggle with problems concerning lexical meaning and usage of the given prefixes and suffixes. We share Hrdlička's opinion that if we want foreign speakers to learn the category of aspect successfully,

it is necessary to deal with the category in a concise, complex (it is crucial to provide wide range of base examples) and comprehensible manner with an emphasis on clear and explicit wording [...] with regard to the appropriate usability of the presented information and recommendation for communicative practice. (Hrdlička 2009: 109)

However, Hrdlička adds that sometimes we come across general and simplified (occasionally even inappropriate, misleading or plain wrong) definitions. Apart from inappropriate and misleading simplifications (e.g. perfective verbs = completed, single action x imperfective verbs = repeated, multiple action), he also mentions incomplete, wrong or misleading wording (e.g. verbs of motion are imperfective), wrong examples and inadequate foreign language equivalents, no consideration of the source language of the foreign learner, insufficient explanation of formal relations between imperfectives and perfectives (derivation, stem changes, suppletion pairs) or the meaning of verbal prefixes etc. These deficiencies and others were confirmed and further analysed on selected textbooks of Czech for foreigners (see Dosoudilová 2017).

Based on the presentation analysis of the category of verbal aspect in the most used textbooks and further materials for A1 and A2 levels: *New Czech Step by Step, Český krok za krokem 1, Čeština expres 2, Čeština expres 3, Česky, prosím II., Communicative Czech (Elementary Czech), Čeština pro cizince A1 a A2, Mluvme česky: Gramatika, Přehled základní české gramatiky pro zahraniční studenty*, and *Česká čítanka* it has been found that apart from the above mentioned deficiencies the textbooks for foreigners also differ substantially in using basic oppositions and metaphors to explain the function of verbal aspect, for example process x result, incompleteness x completeness, recording x photo, action x action + its end and others. A relatively rare definition of verbal aspect was based on signal verbs and their respective aspectual realizations and meanings. In some of the analysed materials we could observe that the definition of verbal aspect (as for Holá 2010) is incorporated to the definition of future tense (foreign learners usually learn present tense of imperfective verbs and only later, when talking about the future tense, learn the perfective aspect). With respect to this premise,

the category of verbal aspect is wrongly assumed to be a grammatical feature that is primarily bound to the future tense, hence the formal discrepancies between perfectives and imperfectives (form with the auxiliary verb *budu psát x napíšu* ‘impf. I will be writing x pf. I will write’), and its semantic stays in the background. We have also found that in some textbooks more emphasis is put on content/meaning and in others on form/realization, although in this context the authors should always take into account if this category represents a parallel or non-parallel grammatical feature of the learner’s mother tongue. It is also worth mentioning that some of the analysed materials present the category as a system and others encourage the learners explicitly to learn the aspect pairs by rote. Respectively, only some of the materials state the fact that aspect usage is user-specific.

A distinctive feature that is common to almost all of the analysed textbooks is the presentation of verbal prefixes of motion verbs, which is closely related to the topic and often accompanied by elements that are characteristic for cognitive approach (schemes, pictures etc.). Thanks to its comprehensibility, uniformity and approachability, we consider cognitive-linguistic method to be very helpful also while presenting verbal aspect and differences between perfective and imperfective verbs. This method might help us present the given feature clearly and explicitly, eliminate problems stated herein, integrate misleading definitions and in this way facilitate the acquisition process for students of Czech for foreigners and at the same time offer a new viewpoint for defining verbal aspect in Czech.

Cognitive Linguistics

Cognitive linguistics is a transdisciplinary, interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary approach that started to emerge when “old” questions concerning the form, meaning and coherence of linguistic and extralinguistic knowledge have been revisited in the 1970s. Having the relationship between language and human mind as its main focus, this approach deals generally also with motivation of linguistic features, analyses metaphorical language, relativizes the notion of arbitrariness and other elementary conceptual oppositions such as langue – parole, synchronic – diachronic, semantics – pragmatics, linguistic components – non-linguistic components and common knowledge – encyclopaedic knowledge (Vaňková 1999). Meaning is a key concept in cognitive linguistics (primarily its connotative ability) and we can observe many conceptual overlaps with other theoretical frameworks in the field of semantics. According to Ibarretxe-Antuñano & Valenzuela (2015: 163), this approach assumes that the crucial function of language is communication and the analysis of linguistic mechanisms should focus primarily on semantic and functional aspects. Key concept with respect to our work is the anthropocentric model of conceptualization, represented by the American linguists George Lakoff, Mark Johnson and Marc Turner, within which source meaning is analysed based on empirical evidence and physical existence of

a human.⁴ In this theoretical framework, the key concept is a metaphor that belongs not only to the verbal domain but also in the cognitive system. Based on that, our conceptual system is metaphorical and a metaphor is thus not primarily a linguistic phenomenon but rather a mental one.

*Key Approaches and Terms*⁵

Cognitive Linguistics, it is postulated that our Experience has a formative influence on our speech ability and also our means of expression influence the way our experience is perceived. Any linguistic device (be it on the level of phonology, morphology, syntax or pragmatics) shares the aim to convey MEANING and no linguistic unit or phenomenon is semantically empty. Meaning that is set in shared human experience of physical existence is the result of this experience as it was processed by our senses and cognition.

The aim of cognitive linguistics is to understand the motivation of linguistic phenomena through cognition and also the Motivation for meaning, however in this case the embodiment of meaning is crucial (see anthropocentric model of conceptualization). According to Valenzuela et al. (2015, 27), “*concepts and thoughts are influenced and created based on the structure of our own bodies, own our experience of the world that surrounds us,*” which postulates linguistic research for meaning and its interpretation in human experience and physical existence. This can be done by means of a METAPHOR. A metaphor is a process of semantic transfer, where something known (such as a prototype or a scheme from everyday life) is transferred from a source domain to a target domain that usually represents an abstract concept (such as time, emotions, state of being or an abstract linguistic concept).

We should not omit Categories that are used to organize human knowledge in a structural system of concepts. The given category is then defined by a respective Prototype (created with regard to connotation) that serves as a starting point for organizing other linguistic data with a relation to the prototype. The content and structure of these categories differ from speaker to speaker, resp. language to language, however it is important to state that no information remains isolated and all inputs are categorized and interconnected.

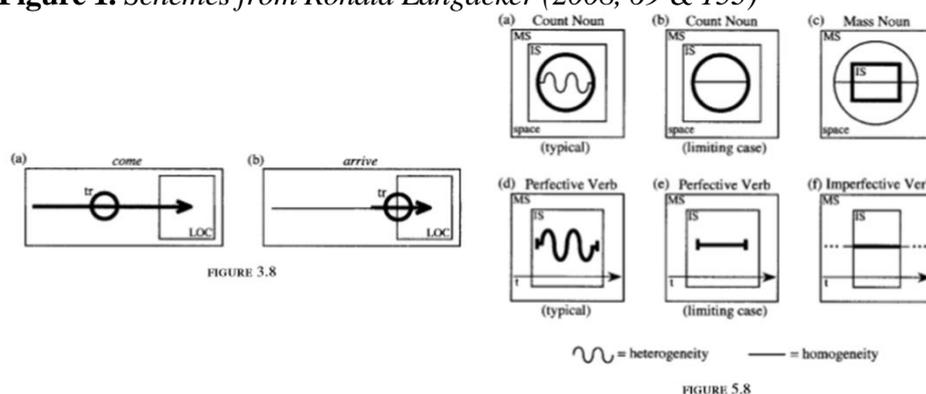
Cognitive Grammar (see Danaher 2007) was developed in 1970s by an American linguist Ronald Langacker as a reaction to the theory of generative grammar by Noam Chomsky that prefers a formal-logic point of view. Langacker claims that this approach excludes the notion of Usage and Figurative Use of Language that are essential for understanding the linguistic structure. Apart from that, he also refuses the generative principle of a language being an autonomous formal system. Grammar is, in his opinion, a non-formal, Symbolic system that consists of concepts and he puts more emphasis on analysing the role of language in the cognitive process than on discovering “deep” grammatical structures or language

⁴The following works are considered pivotal in the field of cognitive linguistics: *Metaphors we live by* by George Lakoff & Mark Johnson (1980) and *Women, Fire, and Dangerous Things* by George Lakoff (1987).

⁵See Janda 2004.

universals. Langacker assumes that there is no principal difference between syntax and lexical inventory because grammar consists of a set of symbolic units (morphemes, words and grammatical constructions). These units result from everyday Language Use and practice as a product of two cognitive processes – Abstraction and Schematization, which is a type of abstraction that produces a language unit that is much less detailed (specific) than its realization, i.e. actual expressions, namely a schema (for representation see Figure 1).

Figure 1. Schemes from Ronald Langacker (2008, 69 & 153)



We could summarize that in cognitive grammar, the critical cognitive process is the process of metaphorization based on human experience and language use. Grammar is claimed to be symbolic, as Noriko Matsumoto puts it in her study:

Cognitive grammar assumes cognitive semantics and builds a model of grammar which is consistent with the assumptions and findings of research in cognitive semantics. In addition to this, the two guiding principles of cognitive grammar are (i) the symbolic thesis, and (ii) the usage-based thesis. (Matsumoto 2017, 118)

Cognitive Semantics works with the concept of *schemes* that are regarded as a basis of human cognition. These are

mental structures that are extracted from repetitive interaction with the environment. In this sense, humans are able to deduce one structure that is common for more than one physical experience of motion, be it for objects in space or humans themselves. These homogenous and clearly different pieces of experience share one concept, which is called an abstract “scheme”. (Valenzuela et al. 2015, 26)

Thanks to these schemes we are enabled to think and we find them in speech. It is thus natural and highly useful to apply this principle not only in teaching language for native speakers but also in foreign language teaching.

Cognitive Linguistics and Language Acquisition

If we decide to use the methods of cognitive linguistics in teaching, we should consider all of the above-mentioned principles and the cognitive function of language itself. As Pacovská (2012) puts it, language is a part of our understanding

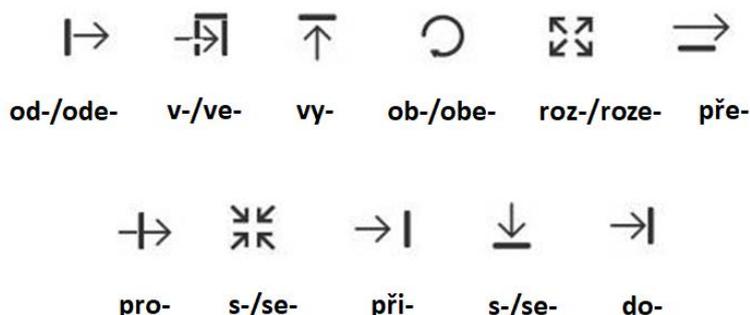
of the world and cognitive processes help us take a grasp of many processes in language.

In teaching it is also crucial to point out the possible semantic base of linguistic and grammatical mechanisms that allows us to “clarify a high number of linguistic phenomena (from polysemy to the usage of certain grammatical constructions) in a natural and relevant manner.” (Ibarretxe-Antuñano & Valenzuela 2015, 163) Furthermore, we should emphasize human experience, connotation potential of the given word meaning and also the interconnection of language and the extralinguistic reality.

A vital principle of human cognition that is reflected in language use are schemes (as in Figure 2) and metaphors, whose usage in language teaching is of great use (see above). These structures

are singled out from the set of characteristics for different pieces of experience of the human locomotor system. Actions such as getting from one point to another, throwing a ball, feeding a baby or slapping someone in the face incorporate an object in a given position from where it moves along a given trajectory and eventually reaches another position. This structure has a source-path-goal scheme. Having derived this structure from rather diverse experience with physical and actual movement, we can apply it to more abstract examples. (Ibarretxe-Antuñano & Valenzuela 2015, 164–165)

Figure 2. Schematic Representation of Verbal Prefixes of Movement



Source: Dosoudilová 2017.

In general, this approach tries to avoid memorising grammatical definitions and patterns in language without understanding it and instead works with patterns, structures and constructions anchored in language usage. It emphasizes principles of language as we know them and are natural for us based on human experience and general cognitive processes, such as usage of schemes, metaphors or categorization. These processes explain how the outside world manifests itself in our language through processes of structuralization and conceptualization. The cognitive approach seems to be very useful for language teaching, although for now it is not a part of Czech didactic tradition (among the few representatives of this approach are Jasňa Pacovská, Svatava Škodová, Laura Janda or Iлона Starý Kořánová). Applying the methods of cognitive grammar to Slavic languages is an approach that apart from Laura Janda (semantics of prefixes and cases, aspect and

animateness) is promoted also by Tore Nessel (morphology), Alan Cienki (case and preposition semantics), Ewa Dabrowska (case and prefix semantics and also language acquisition), Steven Dickey (aspect), David Danaher (habitual verbs in Czech) and others.

Metaphorical Meaning of Aspect and its Characteristics

According to Laura Janda (2004)⁶, the best way to explain the difference between perfectives and imperfectives and thus to make this category more transparent for students is a metaphor because it presents formal characteristics of the given verbs based on their own experience. With regard to her research in cognitive linguistics, Janda considers metaphors accompanied by pictures, schemes or practical examples of use very helpful. She proposes two types of metaphor used for aspect verbs: a metaphor of a fluid substances (e.g. sand, water) in case of imperfectives and a metaphor of a concrete solid objects (e.g. rock, billiard ball) for perfectives.

The abovementioned concepts might be used as a prototypical (source) meaning and a source domain for semantic features of imperfectives and perfectives. As for aspect, students generally consider it an abstract category and we find the use of metaphors very useful. However, even after applying metaphors to presentation, this category might still not be fully transparent for some students. We shall focus on further characteristics and several individual features of this concept.

We support Janda's claim that it will not help students much if they are presented with basic characteristics of perfectives and imperfectives using abstract terms and concepts such as boundedness, totality, sequencing vs. simultaneity etc. Moreover, using technical terms violates the principles of cognitive linguistics that endeavours to be comprehensible and accessible for non-linguists as well. Therefore Janda proposes that we might use characteristic properties of fluids and solids instead, which can also be presented to the students during the class (possibly with a practical demonstration) to make the problematics easier to understand.

With all these in mind, we proposed the following concepts for Czech:

1) *Inherent Features:*

- a. **Edges** – A discrete solid object (a stone) has clear, firm edges, however a fluid substance lacks these. This property corresponds to the boundedness of perfectives (*napsat* 'pf. to write') and not-boundedness of imperfectives

⁶We are referring to Janda's 2004 work *A metaphor in search of a source domain: the categories of Slavic aspect*, where this concept is introduced in connection to aspect in modern Russian. Using this metaphor in the context of aspect in Czech, we do not translate directly and try to avoid adopting all of the findings without due consideration. Moreover, we try to adjust Janda's method and provide simple examples to use it in teaching Czech, analysing Czech aspect verbs and also when presenting this category in foreign language teaching.

(*psát* ‘impf. to write/to be writing’). We claim that to define the edges of actions we can use time frames (*od–do* ‘from–until’, *zítra* ‘tomorrow’, *odpoledne* ‘in the afternoon’ or phase verbs) that might be visualized as containers. When putting the sand in the container, it is bound to it (*psát od rána až do večera* ‘impf. to write / to be writing from the morning until the evening’ is bound as opposed to *psát* ‘impf. to write/to be writing’).

- b. **Shape** – A discrete solid object has an inherent shape and may vary in width, e.g. it can be “cut” into very thin slices. The variable width of discrete solid corresponds to different types of perfectives that usually have variable durations, which can be observed in case of some verbal moods such as ingessives and semelfactives (the duration of the action is clearly different in case of *bodnout* ‘pf. to stab’ or *zakřičet* ‘pf. to give a cry’ and *uvařit* ‘pf. to cook’). A fluid (imperfective), however, does not have any shape but lacking structural integrity it must have a width. These substances tend to be omnipresent, similarly to the air and the ocean, which is to be defined as “spreadedness”. In this case, we can also use the time frame as container metaphor that is filled with the fluid in its full shape.
- c. **Integrity** – Each discrete solid object is a unique individual that cannot be further divided and to which no other subjects can be added without a change (i.e. half a chair is not a chair and a chair put on top of another chair is not a chair) – unlike the fluid, which is uniform. If we mix two piles of sand, it forms one whole. We can also compare verbs such as *najedl se* ‘pf. he had a meal’ (one meal, one time, concrete time; when adding another *najedl se*, it corresponds to a different action that cannot be joined with the previous one) and *jedl* ‘impf. he was eating / he was having a meal’ (we can further divide the action into individual parts or add other actions).
- d. **Countability** – Discrete solid objects are countable and inherently quantified, whereas fluid substances are uncountable masses that can fill space and can only be quantified by imposing measures. Similarly, actions expressed by perfectives can be quantified (*uvařit* ‘pf. to cook’ = one action) but actions expressed by imperfectives do not share this quality (how many activities does the verb *vařit* ‘impf. to cook/to be cooking’ contain?), unless measurement is imposed.
- e. **Streamability** – Discrete solid objects do not occur in streams (perfectives), whereas fluids do (e.g. like a river; we consider verbs such as *psát* ‘impf. to write’, *myslet* ‘impf. to think’ streamable because they express processes). Also, some verbs might inherently denote a direction as well, for example imperfective verbs of motion.
- f. **Penetrability** – Discrete solid object is not penetrable, one cannot dive into it and although it may have internal structure, it is not accessible without breaking the object. On the other hand, fluids are penetrable and its internal structure can be explored easily. (In Janda’s wording: exploring the mood of action).

g. **Conversion** – Discrete solid objects can be converted into fluid substances and vice versa. These conversions can be achieved either via adjustments in viewpoint or via “actual” physical transformation. Janda states several viewpoint adjustments, e.g. a distant group of solid objects seen as fluids (a series of repeated actions that are deemed one continuous action: *dát, dát, dát* ‘pf. to give’ > *dávat* ‘impf. to give / to be giving’), looking closely at a single particle of a fluid substance and recognizing it as a discrete solid object (semelfactives describing instantaneous actions: *bodat* ‘impf. to stab/to be stabbing’ > *bodnout* ‘pf. to stab / to stab once’). Physical transformations include the pulverization of a discrete solid into a fluid substance (single actions vs. process), the hardening of a fluid substance into a discrete solid, and the packaging of a fluid substance in a firm container (for example using a prefix *po-*; *hrát si* ‘impf. to play a game / play with toys’ > *pohrát si* ‘pf. to play a game for a bit / play with toys for a bit’).

2) *Interactional properties (of individual entities/actions/verbs):*

This part is, in our opinion, very important because it influences discourse. The relationship between imperfectives and perfectives and their usage is not discussed at all – or at least not thoroughly – in textbooks of Czech for foreigners, though from the above mentioned reason it should be, and by presenting it with these practical examples, students would be able to see more clearly how perfectives and imperfectives work together. Interactional properties include:

- h) **Compatibility** – If a discrete solid object occupies a certain location, another discrete solid object cannot be made to occupy the same location (no two actions expressed by perfectives can occur simultaneously, only in a sequence, e.g. *uklidit* ‘pf. to clean’ and then *uvařit* ‘pf. to cook’). If a fluid is put in a location, more fluid can be added and these two substances can coexist (two fluids or two piles of sand can mix up and similarly, two actions expressed by imperfectives can overlap, e.g. *uklízet* ‘impf. to clean / to be cleaning’ and *vařit* ‘impf. to cook / to be cooking’). A discrete solid object expressed by a perfective can be embedded in a fluid that is expressed by an imperfective (*když jsem uklízela, zazvonil telefon* ‘when I was cleaning the house – impf., the phone rang – pf.’).
- i) **Dynamicity** – Janda compares a series of discrete solid objects to paving stones, enabling swift progress along a path. Wading through a fluid substance is, by contrast, arduous and retards movement. This characteristic relates to the use of both verb types: perfective verbs enable a fast progress in action, story or narration (*oblékla se, naličila se, učesala a šla na večeři* ‘pf. she dressed up, put on make up, did her hair and went to a dinner’), whereas imperfectives are used in descriptive parts and slow down the flow of action (*oblékala se, líčila a česala a poté šla na večeři* ‘impf. she was dressing up, putting on her make up and doing her hair and then she went to a dinner’).

- j) **Salience** – Janda adds another characteristic property that focuses on a general perception of the scene. In a scene containing both discrete solid objects and fluid substances, the former enjoy a privilege of salience, acting as clearly delineated figures against a diffuse background, like shells (perfectives: profile) on a sandy beach (imperfectives: background). This feature, as in Russian, is in Czech applied to make certain actions more prominent/salient: Czech perfectives are used to describe situations that are in the foreground of the narration (profile) and the imperfectives for situations in the background (base).
- k) **Contiguity** – A discrete solid object can serve as a barrier, on one side of which a fluid substance can be dammed up. This property relates the fact that phase verbs such as *začít* ‘pf. to start’, *přestat* ‘to stop/quit’ (and also imperfective pendants *začínat* ‘impf. to start/to be starting’, *přestávat* ‘impf. to be stopping/quitting’) can coordinate with imperfectives. We claim that phasing property of such verbs (action of activity with a certain progress) is necessarily constituted using a combination with an imperfective verb (*začal kouřit* ‘pf. he started to smoke’, *přestala cvičit* ‘pf. she quit exercising’).

3) Interactional properties (with respect to humans):

- l) **Graspability** – As we know from our experience, a discrete solid object can be grasped and manipulated but a fluid substance, by contrast, merely slips through one’s fingers. Janda assumes that this property influences a relative satisfaction of graspability that is provided by Russian perfectives as opposed to imperfectives. For our purposes, discussing this property with respect to Czech aspect is not necessary.
- m) **Texture** – Janda argues that if matter is propelled at a human being, a discrete solid object is potentially dangerous, whereas a fluid substance is likely to make a gentler impact. The verbal equivalent of a propelling force is imperative, and in certain polite social circumstances, a perfective is just too harsh and an imperfective is preferred (in Russian).
- n) **Implied presence** – Given the fact that matter can be converted from one type to the other or is a result of such conversion, the presence of one type of matter might imply the presence of the other. Janda mentions an odour left by an onion or water that is left behind a melted ice cube. These examples imply that solid objects such as an onion or an ice cube were originally present. In this way, we assume it is possible to explain the students that all perfective verbs that resulted from a process imply a previous action that was expressed using an imperfective verb (*napsat* ‘pf. to write’ implies *psát* ‘impf. to write / to be writing’, i.e. one cannot *napsat* without *psát* that took place earlier).

Conclusion

The aim of this article was to show how we can explain a highly abstract and objectively difficult linguistic category of verbal aspect using the methods of cognitive linguistics such as a metaphor based on our own experience. As we can see (and at the same time in answering our basic question), when presenting the problematics of Czech verbal aspect to foreigners, instead of using theoretical description and difficult terminology, we can (with a practical demonstration in the lesson) describe imperfectives as fluid substances and perfectives as discrete solid objects, whose behaviour and characteristics are familiar to the students from everyday life. The argumentation is based on previous analysis of Czech textbooks for foreigners dealing with verbal aspect and can be used both in theory and pedagogical practice. The authors wanted to emphasize the cognitive approach to linguistics and grammar and promote further research in this field that offers a great potential for a comprehensible and effective teaching and understanding language – not only in Czech for foreigners.

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Abbreviations

- pf. perfective
impf. imperfective