



Lectures 5-6

Translator: Knowledge and skills.

Stages of the process of translation. Text processing knowledge and skills.

Stages of translation

- Editing the source text
- Interpreting the source text
- Interpreting in target language
- Formulating the translated text
- Editing the formulation

Editing the source text

- Is the study of the ST for the purpose of establishing its authorship and reaching a linguistic form accepted for translation.
- Is particularly important in case of decoding the ancient inscriptions found on archaeological sites

Interpreting the source text

- Is an analysis-synthesis process at different language levels

Interpreting in target language

- Is reformulating a linguistic/ verbal text or its part after interpreting it in SL to the language of translation. The end product is a new text expressing the main idea of the translated text by means of the target language

Formulating the translated text

- Is the stage of the translation process in which the translator chooses the lexis and structures that would make meaningful sentences functioning in a narrow context as elements of a well-structured text. At this stage the text takes form

Editing the translated text

- Is the final stage of the translation process. It is careful checking of possible inaccuracies and stylistic features of the text. It also involves the comparison between the translation product on one hand and the prevailing linguistics features and cultural norms in analogical TL texts on the other.

Types of translation

WRITTEN/ ORAL

- Pre-dictionary translation
- Formulation translation
- Instantaneous translation

Pre-dictionary translation

- Every translation is a pre-dictionary translation. This is the case when the translator of any term or text translates with no reference to a dictionary or previously made translation

Formulation translation

- Is when the translator bypasses pre-dictionary translation and resorts to conventions and accepted modes of translation considering the content, topics, lexical items, phraseology and collocations used
- Examples include translations in the area of mass media, business, politics

Instantaneous translation

- Production of the translation in a short time. The ST may be written or spoken but the TT is usually spoken.
- **Consecutive translation**—the speaker provides the translator with ample time to produce translation of utterance.
- **Simultaneous translation**—the translator has up to 3 seconds to start producing translation

IDEAL BILINGUAL COMPETENCE

- Ideal bilingual knows SL and TL perfectly and is unaffected by any external or internal factors including memory limitations, shifts of attention or interest, distractions, pain as well as any environmental influences etc.

Communicative competence

- is a concept introduced by Dell Hymes (1966) and discussed and redefined by many authors. Hymes' original idea was that speakers of a language have to have more than grammatical competence in order to be able to communicate effectively in a language; they also need to know how language is used by members of a speech community to accomplish their purposes.

Components of Language Competence

- **Language Arts View**

- Listening
- Speaking
- Reading
- Writing (Signing)

- **Traditional Linguistic View**

- Phonology
- Morphology
- Syntax
- Semantics Pragmatics)*

- **Communicative Competence View****

- Grammatical competence
- Pragmatic competence
- Discourse competence
- Strategic competence

*relatively recent additions

**also known as sociolinguistic competence

Linguistic (Grammatical) Competence

Linguistic Competence refers to the ability to use the language code or system itself and all its component parts. The language code in English can be divided into:

- **Grammar**, which consists basically of syntax (word order) and morphology (the composition of words as developed from a root forms, e.g. prefixes, suffixes and regular plural forms). Morphological units are called morphemes.
- **Phonology**, which consists of the pronunciation of vowels and consonants in their linguistic environment, word stress, sentence stress, pitch and intonation. Phonological units are called phonemes.
- **Lexis** (vocabulary), which also includes multi-word combinations which have their own specific meanings, e.g., 'take off', 'by the way'. We also include words that are frequently found together, e.g., 'a nice day', 'strong coffee'.
- **Graphology**, which is spelling and punctuation, in fact the written equivalent of phonology.

Pragmatic Competence

Pragmatic Competence refers to the ability to use language appropriately in different social situations. It is true to say that there is no correct way to use language; however, we can certainly define what is appropriate use of language in different circumstances. What do we mean by different circumstances? Below are some ways to differentiate circumstances:

- **Purposes** for communicating, often referred to as **functions**, e.g., inviting, apologizing
- **Relative status** of those communicating
- **Topic area** about which participants are communicating, e.g. general, business, computing, medicine
- **Situation**, which refers to a physical location, e.g., in a bank, at the airport, in a restaurant
- To communicate appropriately in these circumstances, whether using spoken or written language, we use an appropriate register, which may refer to level of formality, e.g., 'Give me the book!', 'Would you mind giving me the book?' Register also refers to lexis in specific fields, e.g., jargon.

A. Language Functions

The notion of **function** is commonly used in ELT textbooks and materials. We can define '**function**' here as the purpose for which an utterance or unit of language is used. Typical categories are greeting, offering, inviting, rejecting an invitation, apologizing, and complaining. The function of an utterance or sentence cannot be determined solely by its grammatical structure. The same grammatical structure may be used for a variety of functions.

For example, examine the uses of the imperative verb form

- *Keep quiet! (order from a teacher)*
- *Pass the salt, please. (request)*
- *Back up your work onto an external drive. (instruction, recommendation)*
- *Try this one on. (suggestion)*
- *Come by on Saturday. (invitation)*
- In the same way, a function can be expressed by a variety of different grammatical structures.
- For example, to request that someone stop talking, we might say:

Shut up!

Or alternatively...

Be quiet, please.

Would you be quiet, please?

Would you mind being quiet, please?

I'd really appreciate it if you would be quiet.

The choice of grammatical structure is clearly related to the circumstances and is chosen for its appropriacy in those circumstances. Learners need to know how to express a variety of functions and which choices are appropriate in different circumstances.

B. Register

Register is a term that relates to the words or expressions that are appropriate in a certain set of circumstances. For example, in a particular situation, do we use a word or expression which is formal, neutral or informal, slang, related to a certain dialect, or the jargon of some occupation? For example, *child*, *kid*, *brat* are all 'synonyms' in English, but they are used in different circumstances.

Discourse Competence

Discourse Competence refers to the way ideas are linked across sentences (in written discourse) or utterances (in spoken discourse). We use two main aspects to understand Discourse Competence::

- **Cohesion**, which refers to how we link ideas linguistically. For example, we use pronouns to refer to what or who has been mentioned previously, e.g., he, it, one, none, that, this. Another example includes the use of an auxiliary verb as a substitute for the main verb, e.g., 'Do you work here?' 'Yes, I do.'
- **Coherence**, which refers to how we link the meanings of sentences or utterances in written or spoken texts.

A: It's hot in here.

B: I'll open a window.

Notice that there is no grammatical or lexical link between the utterances, but the exchange has coherence because B understands that A is expressing discomfort and reacts accordingly.

Strategic Competence

- Strategic Competence refers to a person's ability to keep communication going when there is a communication breakdown or to enhance the effectiveness of the communication. It means being able to get one's message across through use of repetition, volume, or many of the other ways listed below. This ability is especially important to lower level English language learners. Typical examples are:
- **Paraphrase**
 1. The learner uses an **approximation** in the form of a structure or vocabulary item which s/he knows is incorrect but will get the message across.
 2. The learner uses **word coinage**, i.e., s/he invents a new word to get the message across.
- **Circumlocution** - The learner describes/defines the object (or its purpose) or action, e.g., 'You know, you use it to clean your teeth.'
- **Transfer** - The learner uses his or her native language, translating word for word or not bothering to translate at all.
- **Other Strategies**
- 1. Asking for help
 2. Mime
 3. Pause fillers – use of 'er', 'um', 'you know', 'let's see', 'sort of', etc.
 4. Topic avoidance – the learner avoids or changes the topic when s/he lacks the proficiency to continue.
 5. Message abandonment – the learner simply stops in mid-utterance, lacking the proficiency to continue.

Language Varieties

- The term *language varieties* refers to any form of a language—whether a regional or social dialect, a pidgin, creole, or some other language code. Most of us use a range of language forms that differ in some ways from the standard English that has been codified in grammar books and upheld by efforts to prescribe the way that people use English.
- For example, consider the forms that you might use in conversing with friends at a soccer match versus the language you might use when speaking with your boss in a work context or with one of your adult students. The differences may be related to the formality of the context, but language varieties also are associated with geographic patterns in the way people talk as well as social contexts or groupings. These sociocultural and regional differences in the use of English are of great importance to the people who use them because they serve as group identity symbols for the speakers. The language variety that a person associates with a particular social or regional identity may carry much psychological and emotional weight.



Translation as a product

refers to consideration of the text and
discourse and their features

Text

- Is any verbalized communicative event performed via human language, no matter whether this communication is performed in written or in oral mode

Discourse

- is a complex communicative phenomenon which includes, besides the text itself, other factors of interaction (shared knowledge, communicative goals, cognitive systems of the participants, their competence) required for successful production and adequate interpretation (comprehension, understanding and translation of the text)

Text vs. discourse

The text is a structured sequence of linguistic expressions forming a unitary whole, in contrast with discourse which is a far broader “structured event manifest in linguistic (and other) behavior”

The text is “embedded” into discourse and both of them are “materialized” in communicative situation included into the macro context of interaction

Context

- the words that are used with a certain word or phrase and that help to explain its meaning
- the situation in which something happens : the group of conditions that exist where and when something happens
- The situation is contained in context and context is the universe of discourse

Types of contexts

- Macro context is the subject field world and the world in general
- Communicative context is the context of a particular discourse (communicative situation)
- Micro context is a context of a particular utterance including its structure and semantics

Contextual relationships

- **Anaphoric / “backward”** relationships. The meaning of an element becomes clear through the reference to the preceding elements of the micro or communicative context
- **Cataphoric / “forward”** relationships. The meaning of an element becomes clear through the reference to the oncoming, expected elements of the communicative context
- **Exophoric / “outward”** relationships. The meaning of an element is clarified through the reference to the macro context, i.e. to the background knowledge, competence of the addressee etc.

Text processing knowledge

- Two kinds of knowledge
 - Procedural (knowing how to do smth.)
 - Factual (knowing that something is the case)

Text processing knowledge may be considered as a type of procedural knowledge

Three interlocking levels of linguistic knowledge

- Syntactic –limited to the means for creating clauses, the systems of chain or choice which organize the semantic meaning. Knowledge of what elements exist in a language and how to combine them
- Semantic –recognition of the syntactic structures of the text and making sense to it
- Pragmatic—prediction of the utterance and sentence meaning from their context

Text processing and text creation processes


- Refer to the processes of synthesis and analysis
- In the view of FL teaching this also refers to the Productive and Receptive skills.
- **The receptive skills** are listening and reading, because learners do not need to produce language to do these, they receive and understand it. These skills are sometimes known as passive skills. They can be contrasted with the **productive** or **active skills** of speaking and writing.


Stages of writing/ speaking

- Planning –why the text is to be produced
- Ideation –deciding on the main ideas
- Development—organization of the ideas into coherent framework
- Expression—put the ideas into non-language specific propositional form
- Parsing—map the propositional content onto the syntax

Stages of reading/ listening

- Parsing
- Concept recovery
- Simplification
- Idea recovery
- Plan recovery


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- Do you think the notes you may have passed in class or Yelp reviews you've posted are going to be studied in a college literature course? Although we might consider them significant, chances are this is highly unlikely. That's because our personal correspondences and opinions don't necessarily meet the requirements for textuality - *the qualities of a written work that make it suitable material for literary study.*

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- The concept of textuality came about in the mid-20th century as a critical element in structuralism, a modern intellectual movement that views cultural phenomena (i.e. literature) in terms of linguistic relationships involved in all human activities. Philosophers, linguists, and literary theorists such as Jacques Derrida or Roland Barthes were major structuralist contributors, but it was Barthes in particular who really focused on what makes a 'text.'

- Barthes theorized that we can view literature through two different lenses: as a collection of 'works' and of 'texts.' For him, a 'work' is a finished, closed object (i.e. a copy of *Moby Dick*). On the other hand, Barthes considered a 'text' to be a process of creating meaning while escaping definitive definition itself. Take for instance how the 'text' of *Moby Dick* - its themes, structuring, and underlying messages - constantly create new meanings for different groups of readers, making it difficult to give the text itself a clear identifying label. As in the case of *Moby Dick*, we can see that Barthes intended this duality of 'work' and 'text' not to be mutually exclusive, but to represent two different ways of looking at the same discrete pieces of literature.

Regulative principles for the texts

- Efficiency—minimal efforts by the participants
- Effectiveness—success in creating the conditions for attaining a goal
- Appropriateness—providing a balance between efficiency and effectiveness, between conventional and unconventional

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- “A text will be defined as a communicative occurrence which meets seven standards of textuality.”

The Seven Standards of Textuality

- De Beaugrand and Dressler suggested an approach to help you find out. They set out 'Seven Standards of Textuality' and hypothesised that, if any one of them was not met, the text would not be communicative:

1. Cohesion
2. Coherence
3. Intentionality
4. Acceptability
5. Informativity
6. Situationality
7. Intertextuality

- - 1, 2 and 3, are largely writer oriented
 - 4, 5, and 6 are approximately the converse and depend on the reader
 7. Is a special type of powerful 'wild card' or 'trump' which may have a meme effect; in short, it triggers an association with other well established ideas.

Key



Cohesion: "sticky tape" semantic markers linking ideas (a set of verbal 'signposts' to guide the reader).

Coherence: the writer's text world and its relation to our experience of the phenomenal world depends less on overt markers, more on the ways situations are described and sequenced, issues of causality and time in the construction of the text worlds. E.g. No milk in the fridge. Have gone to the shops. Interpretation depends on assumptions about similar experiences. (Unity, harmony)

Intentionality is reflected in the writer's manipulation of rhetorical devices: commands, questions and suggestions etc. The effect is literally to make some waves and movement in the text.

Acceptability involves recognition on the reader's part of 1 and 2.

Informativity effects the readers beneficially e.g. new information.

Situationality recognises that the appearance of a text at a given time or in a context will influence the readers in their interpretation.

Intertextuality recognises that all texts contain traces of other texts. Writers may wish to emit echoes of certain texts, though, readers may pick up these or others that they have read.

Cohesion

- The first standard will be called cohesion and concerns the way in which the components of the surface text, i.e. the actual words we hear or see, are *mutually connected within a sequence*. The surface components depend upon each other according to grammatical forms and conventions, such that cohesion rests upon grammatical dependencies. ...

Cohesion is the network of

- lexical, grammatical, and other relations that provide links between various parts of a text.
- These relations or ties organize a text by requiring the reader to interpret words and expressions by reference to other words and expressions in the surrounding sentences and paragraphs. Moreover, cohesion is seen as a non-structural semantic relation, as for example, between a pronoun and its antecedent in a preceding sentence, expressing at each stage in the discourse the point of context with what has gone before. A cohesive device is the interpretative link between, for example, a pronoun and its antecedent, or two lexically linked NPs, and a series of such ties (having the same referent) is referred to as a 'cohesive chain'.

Halliday and Hasan (1976)

- establish five cohesion categories:
- reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunctions, and lexical cohesion. In clarifying the notion of
- ‘cohesion’ and ‘cohesive de Halliday and Hasan present the following examples:
 - a. Wash and core six cooking apples. Put them into a fireproof dish.***
 - b. My axe is blunt. I have to get a sharper one.***
 - c. Did you see John? - Yes .***
 - d. They fought a battle. Afterwards, it snowed.***

Here, the two sentences, in each example, are linked to each other by a cohesive link. In each instance a different cohesive item is implemented.


In example (a), *Wash and core six cooking apples. Put them into a fireproof dish*

the two sentences are linked by the pronoun ‘them’, in the second sentence, which refers anaphorically to the noun phrase ‘six cooking apples’, in the first sentence.

- In (b) ***My axe is blunt. I have to get a sharper one***

this relation is established by the presence of the substitute 'one' in the second sentence, which is a counter of the noun 'axe' in the first sentence of the same example;

- in (c) ***Did you see John? - Yes*** the cohesive relation is achieved by the omission of some element in the second sentence that presupposes the first sentence.

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- **In example (d) *They fought a battle. Afterwards, it snowed***
 - none of the above relations exist; the conjunction or conjunctive adjunct ‘afterwards’ is not an anaphoric relation like the previous ones; it does not instruct the reader to search for the meaning of the element to interpret it as in reference, or the replacement of some linguistic element by a counter or by a blank, as are substitution and ellipsis, “but a specification of the way in which what is to follow is systematically connected to what has gone before

Main cohesion category is called *lexical cohesion* (Halliday and Hasan)

- ***“There is a boy climbing the tree”***

- ***a. The boy’s going to fall if he does not take care.***

- ***b. The lad’s going to fall if he does not take care.***

- ***c. The child’s going to fall if he does not take care.***

- ***d. The idiot’s going to fall if he does not take care.***

- In example (a), there is a repetition of the same lexical item: ‘boy’,
- in (b), the reiteration takes the form of a synonym or nearsynonym ‘lad’;
- in (c), of the superordinate the term ‘child’; and in (d), of a general word ‘idiot’.

All these instances have in common the fact that one lexical item refers back to another, to which it is related by having a common referent.

Coherence

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- coherence concerns the ways in which the components of the textual world, i.e. the configuration of concepts and relations which *underlie* the surface text are mutually *accessible* and *relevant*. ... Cohesion and coherence are text-centered notions, designating operations directed at the text materials.
- Another definition (T.A. van Dijk 1979: 93):
- coherence is a semantic property of discourse formed through the interpretation of each individual sentence relative to the interpretation of other sentences, with "interpretation" implying interaction between the text and the reader. One method for evaluating a text's coherence is topical structure analysis.
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Coherence: sub-surface feature

- concerns the ways in which the meanings within a text (concepts, relations among them and their relations to the external world) are established and developed.
- Some of the major relations of coherence are logical sequences, e.g. cause-consequence (*and so*), condition-consequence (*if*), instrument-achievement (*by*), contrast (*however*), compatibility (*and*), etc.
- Includes: topic development providing a text with necessary integrity; even in the absence of overt links (as in various lists, charts, timetables, menus).

Coherence

- The second standard will be called coherence and concerns the ways in which the components of the textual world, i.e. the configuration of concepts and relations which *underlie* the surface text are mutually *accessible* and *relevant*.
... Cohesion and coherence are text-centred notions, designating operations directed at the text materials.

Coherence

- Like cohesion, coherence is a network of relations which organise and create a text:
- cohesion is the network of surface relations which link words and expressions to other words and expressions in a text, and coherence is the network of conceptual relations which underlie the surface text. Both concern the way stretches of language are connected to each other. In the case of cohesion, stretches of language are connected to each other by virtue of lexical and grammatical dependencies.
- In the case of coherence, they are connected by virtue of conceptual or meaning dependencies as perceived by language users.

Cohesion and coherence are text-centred notions.

- "We will assume that cohesion is a property of the text and that coherence is a facet [i.e. side] of the reader's evaluation of a text.
- In other words, cohesion is objective, capable in principle of automatic recognition, while coherence is subjective and judgements concerning it may vary from reader to reader." Hoey (1991)

Coherence

- Generally speaking, the mere presence of cohesive markers cannot create a coherent text; cohesive markers have to reflect conceptual relations which make sense. Enkvist (1978) gives ***an example of a highly cohesive text which is nevertheless incoherent.***

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

The coherence of a text

- is a result of the interaction between knowledge presented in the text and the reader's own knowledge and experience of the world, the latter being influenced by a variety of factors such as age, sex, race, nationality, education, occupation, and political and religious affiliations. Even a simple cohesive relation of co-reference cannot be recognized, and therefore cannot be said to contribute to the coherence of a text

- Coherence can be illustrated by causality, as in:


(A) Jack fell down and (B) he broke his crown. Here, (A) is the cause of (B).

- Coherence can be illustrated by enablement or reason, as in:

Jack (A) spent two days working on the problem and he (B) found the solution. (A) enabled (B) or (A) is the reason that led to (B).

COHESION: A TEXT-LINGUISTIC PERSPECTIVE

- the way in which the components of the surface text, i.e. the actual words we hear or see, are *mutually connected within a sequence*. The surface components depend upon each other according to grammatical forms and conventions, such that cohesion rests upon grammatical dependencies. ...

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- Inside the sentence, grammatical dependencies
 - In the text cohesion is realized through the following: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, lexical cohesion.



**The other standards of textuality
are user-centred notions.**

Intentionality

- In addition, we shall require user-centered notions which are brought to bear on the activity of textual communication at large, both by producers and by receivers. The third standard of textuality could then be called intentionality, concerning the text producer's attitude that the set of occurrences should constitute a cohesive and coherent text instrumental in fulfilling the producer's intentions, e.g. to distribute knowledge or to attain a goal specified in a plan.

Intentionality

- While cohesion and coherence are to a large extent text-centred, intentionality is user-centred. A text-producer normally seeks to achieve a purpose or goal (e.g. persuasion, instruction, request, information, etc.) based on a given plan. Obviously, cohesion and coherence are taken into consideration while planning and executing one's plan. Speakers or writers vary in the degree of success in planning and achieving their purposes.

Acceptability

- The fourth standard of textuality would be acceptability, concerning the text receiver's attitude that the set of occurrences should constitute a cohesive and coherent text having some use or relevance for the receiver, e.g. to acquire knowledge or provide co-operation in a plan.

Acceptability

- The receiver's attitude is that a text is cohesive and coherent. The reader usually supplies information that is missing or unstated. Acceptability is very much sensitive to the social activity the text is fulfilling. A legal contract does not leave much room for inference.
- It contains what, otherwise, is called redundancies. Poetic language will be viewed as such because it calls on for inferences. Acceptability is very much affected by the reader's social and cultural background.
- The joke of the priest who, on shaving his beard in the morning cut his chin because he was thinking of the sermon he was about to give, and the advice his fellow priest gave him, "Cut your sermon and concentrate on your beard", was not very much appreciated by some students belonging to different culture.

Intentionality and acceptability rely on Grice's cooperative principle:


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- "Make your contribution such as it is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged."
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- Grice's conversational maxims
 - **Maxims of quantity**
 - Make your contribution as informative as required.
 - Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.
 - **Maxims of quality**
 - Do not say what you believe to be false.
 - Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.
 - **Maxim of relation**
 - Be relevant.
 - **Maxims of manner**
 - Avoid obscurity of expression.
 - Avoid ambiguity.
 - Be brief.
 - Be orderly.

Informativity

- The fifth standard of textuality is called informativity and concerns the extent to which the occurrences of the presented text are expected vs. unexpected or known vs. unknown/certain.
- The big bad wolf said: “Little pig, little pig, let me come in!”
- “Not by the hair on my chinny-chin-chin!” said the first little pig.
- And the big bad Wolf said “Then I'll huff and I'll puff and I'll blow your house down!”
- And so he did.

Informativity

- A text has to contain some new information. A text is informative if it transfers new information, or information that was unknown before. Informativity should be seen as a gradable phenomenon. The degree of informativity varies from participant to participant in the communicative event.
- Situationality contributes to the informativity of the text. A book written in 1950 has an informativity that was high appropriate then.

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- C. Shannon and W. Weaver's *information theory* (based on a statistic notion): the greater the number of possible *alternatives* at a given point, the higher the information value when one of them is chosen
 - In language: the degree of informativity is inversely proportional to *contextual probability*
 - *The sea is water*
 - The sea is water *only in the sense that water is the dominant substance present. Actually, it is a solution of gases and salts in addition to vast numbers of living organisms ...*

- syntactically probable, conceptually improbable:
 - *All our yesterdays have lighted fools to dusty death* (Macbeth V v 22)
- is more informative than
 - *All our Western agencies have guided tours to dusty Death Valley.*
- Syntactically improbable, conceptually probable:
 - *Him who disobeys, me disobeys.* (Milton *Paradise Lost* VVII.1)
- is more informative than
 - *Whoever disobeys him, disobeys me.*
- Concept of *markedness*

Situationality

- The sixth standard of textuality can be designated situationality and concerns the factors which make a text relevant to a situation of occurrence connected with coherence and acceptability, e.g.
 - SLOW CHILDREN AT PLAY
 - Some elements in text refer to the context of situation (e.g. deictics) and cannot be decoded unless reliance on situationality is made

Situationality

- A text is relevant to a particular social or pragmatic context. Situationality is related to real time and place.
- Communicative partners as well as their attitudinal state are important for the text's meaning, purpose and intended effect. Scientific texts share a common situationality, while ideological texts have different situationalities across languages and cultures.

Intertextuality

- The seventh standard is to be called intertextuality and concerns the factors which make the utilization of one text dependent upon knowledge of one or more previously encountered texts.

Intertextuality

- A text is related to other texts. Intertextuality refers "to the relationship between a given text and other relevant texts encountered in prior experience." (Neubert and Shreve, 1992: 117). These include textual conventions and textual expectations. Some text features have become more and more international, e.g. medical texts. They exhibit many features that are English-like, even they are written in Arabic. There is a fine line between plagiarism and intertextuality.

Intertextuality

- e.g. “A tale of two cards”
- Headline for an article in the Daily Mail describing the Xmas cards sent by Blair and Howard – reference to Dickens’s novel *A Tale of Two Cities*
- R. de Beaugrande, W. Dressler, *An Introduction to Text Linguistics*, London, Longman, 1981 (48ff)