

Issue 4, Volume 1

Logos & Littera

Faculty of Philology
University of Montenegro

2017

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This year's reviewers will be acknowledged in the second volume of this issue.

**ISSUE 4
VOLUME 1**

LOGOS & LITTERA
Journal of Interdisciplinary
Approaches to Text

Podgorica, June 2017

Faculty of Philology
University of Montenegro

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Milena Dževerdanović-Pejović¹

Received 1 February 2017

Reviewed 15 March 2017

Accepted 20 March 2017

UDC 811.111'276.6:347.79

VERBS IN THE STANDARD MARINE COMMUNICATION PHRASES AS A SUBLANGUAGE OF MARITIME ENGLISH

Abstract: *This paper focuses on lexical aspect making the core of the Standard Marine Communication Phrases (SMCP) – the verbs. Given that the key feature of this specific maritime sublanguage laid down by the International Maritime Organization (IMO), the Standard Marine Communication Phrases is to convey precise information in English between seafarers on board and in external ship-to-ship and ship-to-shore communication at sea, the semantic analysis of the verbs in the SMCP was carried out, applying theoretical knowledge in the semantic domains of verbs (Biber et al., 1999) and verb patterns (Francis et al., 1996). The discursive function of verbs and verb patterns, as well as verb phrases making up idiomatic expressions in the SMCP, is explained in the light of conceptual knowledge or knowledge of the professional (maritime) setting in which they occur. This study also supports idea that results of analysis carried out by the use of modern linguistic quantitative tools should be incorporated in teaching SMCP phrases and presented to seafarers in the form of e-documents like screenshots, concordance lists and formulaic structures. Due to lack of time spent on shore, seafarers particularly benefit from computer-based learning and prefer economic and short information.*

Keywords: *Standard Marine Communication Phrases, verbs, verb patterns, maritime setting*

1. Introduction

There have been many attempts to standardise maritime verbal ship-to-shore and ship-to-ship communications. Many languages, known as restricted languages, codes or limited languages used to standardise VHF communication aimed to overcome differences in language usage. In the light of contemporary linguistics, the Standard Marine Communication Phrases may be regarded as a specialised maritime verbal genre used among members of the maritime discourse community knowing that genre has its actors, its time and place (Frow, 2006: 7).

¹ Assistant Professor at the University of Montenegro.

The Standard Marine Communication Phrases (SMCP) published in 2001 is an upgraded version of the Standard Marine Navigation Vocabulary previously established in 1977, and Seaspeak in 1985. All these languages known as restricted languages are characterized by highly structured discourse and plain lexis which is particularly to be used in distress situations. The SMCP deals mostly with signals and rules for opening, ending and turn-taking in conversations from general language exchanges (telephone conversations), with maritime VHF exchanges being more formal (Pritchard 2002: 12). Topics include navigational watch, helm orders, briefings on position, berthing, anchoring, pilotage and similar. As for their formal structure, SMCP phrases are divided into two parts, External and Internal Phrases: Part A and Part B. External phrases are covered in Part A, covering phrases relating to distress communications (fire, collision, grounding), search-and-rescue communications, medical assistance, safety communications and navigational warnings. Part B covers phrases used on board ship, such as handing over and taking over the watch, briefing on situations and events, reporting, on-board drills, cargo and cargo handling, passenger care and so on.

This paper is intended to complement research into the syntactical–lexical aspect of the SMCP, more precisely, verbs. In light of that, it was established that SMCP phrases mostly use the verb phrase patterns contributing to language economy making the phrases easy to memorise for students and officers. With particular reference to language economy and seafarers' profession that is characterized by need for precise and short information, it is explained why the most frequent syntactical patterns in the SMCP text are formed by relational or existence verbs and why the use of mental verbs is avoided.

Knowing that modal verbs are not recommended to be used in the SMCP (IMO SMCP 2001), the justifiability of their use is questioned within concrete communicative situations. Finally, the examples of multiple-word lexical verbs making up the idiomatic expressions of the SMCP are identified and interpreted in the maritime setting.

In light of ESP teaching that is focused on learners who have subject knowledge based on previous work and experience (Kim, 2008: 12) in the field, language interpretation of verbs and

verb phrases relies on the knowledge of the field and maritime situation in which the verb of verb phrase occurs.

An issue that is relevant to modern ESP teacher who is involved in teaching maritime English as highly globalized and international in its nature is introduction of modern technology in subject matter instruction. Seafarers who are on board ship may benefit from language formulas and patterns obtained via language software by recognizing patterns and phrases (Dalton-Puffer, 2007: 42) in a specialized discourse. In the case of SMCP text, students may benefit from computer screen outputs, screen shots and files containing concordances of frequent verbs, learning in this way not only cognitive but also communicative context of the word.

2. Previous research

The SMCP has been the subject of analysis, as a language of marine radio communications (VHF communications), which has been carried out by many authors (Bocanegra-Valle, 2010; Pritchard and Kalogjera, 2000; Pritchard, 2002; Dževerdanović-Pejović, 2013). The analysis focuses mainly on the level of syntax in VHF marine radio communications. Bocanegra-Valle (2010) investigated the structure of VHF messages applying knowledge of this genre laid out by Bhatia (1993) and Swales (1990) and concluded that VHF communications are structured into predictive communicative stages (moves and steps) which provide for efficient communication in English between ships and external stations in a multilingual setting. In his paper on the standardisation of maritime English and application of restricted code, such as the SMCP, Pritchard (2002) observed that standardisation and harmonisation of SMCP is necessary due to a gap between the prescribed standard and actual usage. For the sake of studying “deviations” between the norm and actual usage, he proposes the formation of a global, computer-based maritime language database and the recording of VHF communications.

In light of this, Pritchard and Kalogjera (2000) collected an authentic corpus of VHF oral communications and investigated the gap between the prescribed language requirements imposed by the SMCP and their actual use in verbal interactions in a maritime setting. This study implies that restricted code, such as the VHF used in real verbal exchanges among modern seafarers, contains many features of general language pertaining to the

syntax and lexis in telephone conversations and exchanges of questions. Distress communications were not included in the corpus of the analysis. However, in another paper on VHF communications, Dževerdanović-Pejović (2013) offers a discourse analysis of VHF conversations, showing how deviations from the SMCP linguistic rules on the plan of syntax and lexis have caused accidents to ships.

Finally, it has to be mentioned that many researchers who present their papers at the annual International Maritime English Conference tackle the issue of SMCP phrases from the angle of discourse analysis. Taken that together with nouns verbs in the SMCP make up the “core of the phrases” (Trenkner, 2005: 12), there has been an abundant “offer” in glossaries and vocabulary lists derived from the SMCP for pedagogical and commercial purposes. The author is of the opinion that the study of verbs in the SMCP has not gained deeper attention in terms of linguistic analysis of interplay between language fact and its performance.

3. Methodology

The analysis in this paper makes use of the lexical software AntConc 3.4.4, in order to count the frequency of verbs and to identify frequent verb + noun collocations in the SMCP text. Standard Marine Communication Phrases text is available on the Internet and lists 27,706 words, of which 2,097 are unique. After the verbs were classified into semantic domains, knowledge of the cognitive content was used, that is, the linguistic facts were interpreted using the knowledge of concrete maritime situation. In the analysis in this paper it was confirmed that a verb can be put into more than one category, depending on context. This was particularly the case with activity verbs (Biber et al., 1999) in our corpus which may have different meanings.

After the most frequent verbs in the SMCP text were categorized according to semantic domains, the most frequent collocates made with a chosen verb were identified. One of the basic advantages of corpus linguistics analysis taken in this paper is production of word and frequency list so that one gets idea about it and at the same time it prompts a researcher to have production of concordance of the selected word (Bowker and Pearson, 2002: 119). In this light, the analysis focused on establishing concordance lines and collocations that the selected verbs make and on explaining its concrete use in the maritime

setting. As a part of ESP and EOP, Maritime English research relies to a large extent on understanding of maritime phenomena or knowledge of seafaring practice in interpreting linguistic facts. Methodology of analysis in this paper relies therefore on a mixed-method (Kim, 2008: 34) where the qualitative (interpretative) analysis complements quantitative findings.

4. Analysis

The most frequent verbs were identified in the SMCP text. In this analysis it meant that the verb occurs at least 20 times in the corpus.

Verb	Frequency in SMCP	SMCP phrase and phrase number
be	845	What is wind direction and force in position...? (A1/3.3.2) There was a gale warning/tropical storm warning for the area ... at ... hours UTC (B1/1.5.14)
report	175	Stand by engine room and report. (B2/5.3.3)
have	110	I have dangerous list to port side/starboard (A1/1.1.4)
stand	82	Stand by boat/motor lifeboat no. ... for letting go and report (B2/6.2.12.)
do	66	Do you have a doctor on board? (A1/1.3.5)
require	63	I require/MV ... requires assistance (A1/1.2.1.1)
check	51	Check the launching tracks and report (B/1.4.1)
can	45	I cannot send pumps/divers (A1/1.1.2.2)
must	42	You must rig another pilot ladder (A1/4.2.4)
take	40	You must take tug(s) according to Port Regulations (A1/4.3.2.1)
go	39	Go ahead and follow me (A1/5.2.25)
keep	34	Keep clear of me/MV ... (A1/2.1.4)
stop	30	Stop engines (A1/6.2.3.5.19)
inform	22	Inform the ... coast radio station / vessels in vicinity (on radio) (B2/1.1.3)
make	22	Make a lee on your port side / starboard side (A1/4.2.14)
proceed	21	I am / MV ... proceeding to your assistance (A1/1.1.6.3)

change	20	No, the sea state is not expected to change (within the next few hours) (A1/3.1.9.1)
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Table 1: Verbs with 20 or more occurrences in the SMCP with examples

Table 2 comprises verbs with 10 to 20 occurrences in the SMCP text and the verbs from the Table 1. These are start (17), follow (15), increase (16), transfer (15), decrease (14), give (14), put (14), send (13), open (12), pick (12), wait (12), turn (11), get (10), improve (10), meet (10), pass (10), rig (10) and steer (10).

Semantic domain	Activity	stand, check, take, go, make, proceed, change, do, follow, transfer, give, put, send, open, pick, wait, assist, turn, get, meet, pass, rig, steer
	Mental	-
	Existence or relationship	be, have, do
	Communication	report, inform
	Occurrence	change, increase, decrease, improve
	Causative	require, help
	Aspectual	keep, stop, start

Table 2: Distribution of SMCP verbs according to semantic domains as per Biber et al. (1999:365)

As can be seen from Table 2, the majority of the SMCP verbs are activity verbs. According to Biber et. al (1999: 364) with activity verbs a subject has a semantic role of an agent and implies that the subject is involved in actions and events. In a maritime context it implies a control over situation, in which an agent like ship’s master, pilot or officer have an active control over situation as a prerequisite of safety on board and at sea.

4.1. Activity verbs

Activity verbs mostly belong to a “moving group” (Francis et al., 1996), such as “to proceed”, “to stand”, “to turn”, “to open”, “to wait”, “to meet”, “to go”, “to pass”, “to follow” and “to steer”. Activity in the SMCP phrases refers to activities at sea that require constant monitoring, reporting and alertness. Thus, the verb “to stand” occurs 82 times in the SMCP sentences and represents the fourth most frequent verb in the corpus. This lexical activity verb occurs in 74 SMCP sentences with the adverbial particle “by” in the simple verb pattern v + noun where the verb can be used on its own. It is classified as a verb

belonging to a group of “hang around” verbs (Francis et al., 1996: 10) and implies waiting, not acting. Yet, in the SMCP phrases it means “being prepared and ready to react”, as in “Stand by lifeboats/life rafts” (A1/1.2.4.5.1) and in this meaning it acts as a transitive verb. It collocates with “clear” in four sentences meaning “keep away”, as in “Stand clear of the vessel and report” (B2/1.7.8), and with the preposition “on” in two examples meaning “maintaining course and speed”, as in “We will stand on” (B/1.2.3.1).

The activity verb “to proceed” implies continuing action and in the SMCP phrases it refers to the progression of a voyage and heading for a certain position or direction, as in “Proceed with your voyage” (A1/1.1.11.8.2).

The verb “to go” refers to a change of place (course, heading or position) and collocates with many adverbs used to denote place or direction (aboard/ahead/astern). Adverbs of place, condition or direction in the SMCP are the most distinctive functional words contributing to the precision of information regarding position as in “Go ahead and follow me” (A1/5.2.2.5).

The verbs “to turn” and “to open” also form a group of verbs of motion referring to a change of posture or orientation. The verb “to turn” is present in ten and “to open” in eight examples. This verb is associated with one of the manoeuvring operations and refers to the process of undergoing a change to either its direction (bow/stern) or side (port/starboard), as in “Turn port side/starboard side to windward” (B2/3.2.13). “To open” is used to refer to cargo operations in the SMCP sentences, as in “Open all hatches before loading/discharging” (B3/1.1.4.1) and to handling liquid goods (B3 – Preparing Safety Measures) where it is followed by the nouns “valve”, “container” or “locker” as direct objects.

The activity verb “to check” has a high frequency in the SMCP phrases (Table 1). Interestingly, its occurrence is in a pair with the verb “to report”, which adds a strong rhetorical effect and emphasises the need for precision and control over the undertaken activities on board. The position of the ship, the condition of the lines and the anchor must be checked at intervals, as must the lifesaving equipment on board, the fuel and the oil. Checking precedes reporting, which is confirmed in thirty-five SMCP phrases where the verbs “to check” and “to report” (see 3.1.4) appear together and this confirms that language

reveals a lot about the real world specificities. Examples of this are SMCP sentences, such as “Check the escape routes and report (B2/1.3.1) or “Check the launching tracks and report” (B2/1.4.1).

4.2. Mental verbs

This group of verbs is not found in the SMCP, as they might be ambiguous in the context of SMCP communications. The aim of the SMCP is to avoid ambiguity, so it is recommended to avoid verbs that might be confusing, such as verbs of thinking or opinion. Semi-lexical or semi-functional words belonging to the semantic field of cognition and inferring mental process are hardly ever used in the SMCP (Pritchard 2002), such as the verbs “to think”, “to consider” and “to state”. Bearing this in mind, sentences such as “I think you should alter course to...” or “I think you are on a collision course” are to be replaced by more concrete phrases, as in the example “You are running into danger – risk of collision (with a vessel bearing ... degrees, distance ... kilometres / nautical miles)” (A1/6.2.2.3.7).

4.3. Existence and relationship verbs

Verbs of existence present in the SMCP, such as the most frequent verb “to be”, are used to express existence or relationship. The verb “to be” occurs 30 times in so-called “existential clauses” (Biber et al. 1999) in the SMCP phrases, in the pattern there + be + NP. For example, in the SMCP sentences “There is heavy traffic / ... in the area” (B1/1.2.6) or “There are fishing boats in the area” (B1/1.2.6.1), the nouns making up the noun phrase are referred to as notional subjects, and the main function of such phrases is to present unknown information. It is noticed that in most cases with the existential “there is/are” in the SMCP phrases, reference is made to occurrences and objects outside the vessel (gales, heavy traffic in the areas, danger to navigation), but in a few sentences existential phrases are used to denote activities on board, usually related to engine operation and condition, such as a breakdown or blackout of the engine (“There was an engine alarm at ... hours UTC due to ...” (B1/1.7.1) or “There is no pumping at present” (B1/1.10.1).

The verb “to be” mainly occurs as a copular verb linking a noun phrase with a subject predicative. It is also categorised as a link verb or v link forming a v adjunct pattern (as in “the cables are clear” (A2/3.5. 10.1) or with the third person singular of the

verb “to be” as in “the pilot ladder is unsafe”. The adjectives “available”, “clear”, “free” and “operational” are found in as many as 26 examples.

The verb “to be”, in six examples, acts as a link verb in the simple past tense “there was a breakdown of the main engine(s) (at ... hours UTC / from ... to ... hours UTC” (B1/1.11.1). As the main verb, “to be” is used to form passive sentences, as in “Visibility is expected to be variable between ... metres / nautical miles in your position ...” (A1/3.1.2.2.3).

The verb “to be” acts as an auxiliary verb forming the present progressive tense in 133 examples in SMCP phrases with activity verbs relating to current movement in the fairway or changes of the position of ship(s). Such verbs in the SMCP text are “to steer”, “to pass”, “to change”, “to turn”, “to move”, “to stand by” and “to cross” or verbs regarding meteorological information about the state of the sea such as “to fall”, “to increase”, “to decrease”, “to veer”, “to back”, “to rise”, as in “The tide is rising / falling” (A1/3.1.4.3). Apart from where the simple present tense and the present continuous tense is used as the main verb in SMCP phrases, the verb “to be” occurs in the future tense in 54 SMCP sentences, as in “Your berth will be clear at ... hours UTC” (A1/6.2.7.1).

As regards interrogative sentences, the verb “to be” is characteristic of sentences with the question word “what” in as many as 80 SMCP sentences. Following the rule given in the introduction to the SMCP, the structuring of SMCP sentences is based on the pattern identical + invariable part of the utterance. This means that the identical part “what is” is used as an invariable base and there are many complements to this (draft, position, course, heading, visibility, etc.). Thus, the answer to the question “What is the visibility at your position?” may take on a variety of sentence forms generated according to this pattern.

The verb “to have” is the third most frequent verb in the SMCP and mainly acts as a transitive lexical verb. It is present in 60 SMCP phrases. It is used to express possession in the first person singular in 20 SMCP sentences, while it occurs in the third person singular of the present simple tense in 14 examples. It appears in 15 interrogative sentences starting with “Do you have...?” The main phrase indicating an answer, starting with “I have” or “MV ... has”, is complemented by alternative answers to

the question and provides an easily memorised discursive pattern, as is the case with the verb “to be”.

Example:

2.1 Do you have any list?

2.1.1 Yes, I have a list to port / starboard of ... degrees.

2.1.2 No, I have no list. (A1/6.1) or/ ... (A1/3.3.3)

“To have” acts as a main lexical verb in the SMCP, marking different kinds of logical relations. The verb “to have” in the imperative means “prepare” or “arrange” in 13 SMCP phrases. For example: “Have your crew on standby for heaving up anchor when the pilot embarks” (A1/6.2.3.2.6) or “Have fenders ready forward and aft” (A2/3.7.2).

However, “to have” may also have the meaning “take over responsibility of” (the watch or duty on-board ship), as in “I have the watch now” (B1/1.13.1.1) or “You have the watch now” (B1/1.13.2.1). This formal handover of the watch on board is followed by an organised and repetitive discourse, just as is the case with helm orders where the helm order given by the deck officer has to be repeated by the helmsman.

Finally, as regards the use of the verb “to have” as an auxiliary, it forms the perfect aspect, with the personal pronoun “I” in 13 sentences and the third person singular in 23 SMCP sentences, as in “I have / MV ... has collided” (A1/1.1.3.1).

As mentioned, for the sake of making the SMCP sentences as simple as possible to its users (seafarers), the use of complex tenses such as the present perfect is avoided. However, whenever it is used in the SMCP, the present perfect tense is used to indicate a (maritime) situation that has started in the recent past and, as such, has an important impact on the present maritime situation – and therefore requires immediate reaction. For example, the phrases: “I have / MV ... has lost dangerous goods of IMO-Class ... in position ...” (A1/2.2.1) or “I have lost radar contact” (A1/6.1.2.1.15), all refer to actions that require some kind of response and reaction to be undertaken by a ship, ships, VTS or shore authorities. The verb “to have” is found as a semi-modal in only three examples of the SMCP phrases, given that the modal “must” is used instead to express obligation.

The verb “to do” is classified as an activity verb but in the context of SMCP it acts as an existence or relationship verb. It is

used as an auxiliary in 60 SMCP sentences for the formation of interrogative questions in the simple present tense, while it is present in the negative form in 12 sentences. There is no evidence of the use of the verb “to do” as the lexical verb meaning “perform”. A very important syntactical rule of the SMCP given in the introduction to the IMO’s SMCP clearly indicates that contracted forms such as “can’t” and “don’t” are to be replaced by their full forms, i.e. “cannot” or “do not”. Thus “do not” is present in 32 imperative SMCP sentences. The rhetorical effect when the word “not” is used in its full form adds the force of prohibition in a situation: “Warning! Do not jettison IMO-Class cargo!” (A1/1.1.6.1) or collective prohibition related to safety regulations and communications on board ship, as in “do not forget to take your lifejackets and blankets with you (B4/1.2.4.2.2) or “do not go to the lifeboat station until ordered to do so” (B4/1.2.4.2.5).

4.4. Communication verbs

The second most frequent verb in the SMCP sentences is the communication verb “to report”. As a communication verb it is most common found in the pattern verb + noun + to + noun, as reporting involves a subject to whom we communicate some events (e.g. “We reported his behaviour to a judge”). In this meaning, it is only used once in the SMCP sentences in VTS communications – when the use of the verb “to report” implies guilt or punishment (Francis et al., 1996). For example: “Your actions will be reported to the authorities” (A1/6.2.3.4).

In the SMCP sentences, the verb “to report” most commonly appears at the end of the sentence and acts as an intransitive verb. It implies that a certain institution or authority will be notified about the action undertaken by the subject or it will be entered into the ship’s forms. For example: “Secure the danger area and report” (B2/2.3.6).

The verb “to report” is also found in the pattern verb + noun where the verb to report implies communication, as in “write” or “register”. For example: “Report the number of all persons / passengers / crew members at the assembly stations” (B2/1.6.1) or “Report the number of injured persons” (B2/1.8.3).

Good communication and reporting on board constitute, apart from routine work related to navigation, the second most common obligatory element on board. The amount of administrative work on a modern ship is increasing. More than

ever in the maritime past, seafarers are required to write, fill in, register and electronically input data into formatted reports. Every action must be duly reported. It is of course of prime importance to report accidents and non-conformities, any suspicious acts and deviations from regular activities.

The action of reporting is intertwined with repetition and redundancy as an inevitable part of naval discourse. As regards berthing operations (A2/3.7), the verb “to report” is extensively employed in reporting the distance of the ship from the mooring pier and in reporting the position as in a “handing-over-the-watch” situation (SMCP, B2/1). Therefore, if discourse reflects non-linguistic aspects, it can be concluded that reporting represents the most frequent activity in the SMCP phrases, that is, it is the most frequent of maritime activities on board ship.

4.5. Verbs of occurrence

Occurrence verbs found in the SMCP phrases, such as “to change”, “to increase” and “to decrease”, are not that frequent. This group of verbs indicates an action that occurs regardless of volitional activity (Biber et al. 1999), i.e. the subject is affected by some kind of occurrence. However, it is worth noting that in SMCP sentences these verbs mainly depict meteorological conditions as something that does not depend on a person’s will. In a linguistic sense, this non-dependence on humans and their control are expressed by the passive of the verb “to expect”, as in “wind expected to increase/decrease”. Other non-volitional occurrences mainly refer to sea conditions (expected to decrease/increase), the wind (expected to increase/decrease or change direction), visibility and thickness of ice. For example: “Thickness of ice is expected to increase/decrease in your position/area around ...” (A1/3.1.3.2.2).

As regards volitional activities controlled by humans in navigation, the verbs “to increase” and “to decrease” collocate with the nouns speed, distance and pressure. The verb “to change” also refers to actions controlled and performed by a human (navigator) and in the SMCP context it refers to a change of course, direction, radar range or VHF channel. For example: “Change to a larger/smaller range scale” (A1/6.2.2.1.12.2). In this context when the action is volitional and controlled by man, these verbs may be categorized as activity verbs.

4.6. Causative verbs

Bearing in mind the variety of requirements aimed at safe navigation, it is justifiable to expect a high frequency of the verb “to require” (Biber et al. 1999). The verb “to require” belongs to a group of causative verbs implying that some person or inanimate entity should cause a new state of affairs, a change. As regards the SMCP phrases, in 27 examples the verb “to require” goes with the first person pronoun, as in “I require”, and 21 times in the third person singular (MV ... requires). It is present in the question “What kind of assistance is required?” in six SMCP examples and “Do you require...?” in five SMCP examples. It appears in the simple verb pattern verb phrase + noun. As regards nouns in the function of noun phrases followed by the verb “to require”, it is established that the most frequent collocate is the noun “assistance”, appearing 20 times in the SMCP. The noun “pilot” appears 12 times and the noun “tug” eight times. This implies that the syntactical pattern I/MV (name of the vessel) + require(s) + noun is applied to generate verbal requirements in 48 SMCP phrases, excluding interrogative and negative sentences. The verb “to help” is rare in SMCP sentences (there are only two examples in the SMCP) and it is worth noting that the noun assistance is used in lieu of the verb “to assist”. The noun assistance (fire-fighting assistance, ice-breaker assistance, medical assistance, tug assistance) appears in compounds as block language (Bocanegra-Valle, 2010:12) and the use of a Latinism is preferred over other solutions.

4.7. Aspectual verbs

Aspectual verbs such as “to start”, “to stop” and “to begin” indicate the stage of progress of some activity or event (Biber et al. 1999: 361). These verbs in SMCP sentences are associated with navigational operations or actions taken by crew on-board ships. They form simple verb patterns such as verb phrase. Regarding navigational activities, it is very important to state the exact time and place when the events started or stopped, as this information might be crucial in case of post-accident trials. For instance, in safety-related verbal communications (A1/1.2.3) such as search-and-rescue operations, “to start” is used to indicate the exact time of the start of operations. For example: “Carry out search pattern ... starting at ... hours UTC” (A1/1.2.3.6).

As regards meteorological warnings, “to start” is used to state the exact time when new meteorological changes or occurrences (storms or gales) are expected. The verb “to begin” is used only once in the SMCP, as the verb “to start” is used instead. The verb “to stop” is classified among the 20 most frequent verbs in the SMCP (Table 1). In SMCP sentences, this is used as a transitive verb followed by nouns (listing, search, spillage and engine) and implies volitional actions undertaken by the crew.

4.8. Modal verbs in the SMCP

The modals that occur more than 20 times in the SMCP (Table 3) are “must” and “can”.

Modal verb	Frequency in SMCP
Must	42
Can	45
May	4
Might	-
Need	8
Should	1

Table 3: Frequency of modal verbs in SMCP phrases

The modal “must” is used to express strict obligation or necessity usually prescribed by a ship’s master or a pilot. In this light, the use of “must” is deontic implying that the speaker (here master and pilot) lays down the rule and has authority. To illustrate this, there is an order given by ship’s pilot saying “You must rig another pilot ladder” (A1/4.2.4). Examples of deontic modality where the authority is vessel traffic service is seen in phrases: “You must arrive at waypoint ... at ... hours UTC – your berth is clear” (A1/6.2.3.8).

As regards prescriptive discourse, there has been a significant rise in the use of the verb “must” and its usage, together with “be to” and this trend is explained by the fact that it is becoming a substitute for “shall” as there is tendency to exclude its use in legal texts (Aarts, Close and Wallis, 2013:12). And indeed, the use of the modal “shall” to indicate prescription in the SMCP text is not registered.

The use of the second person plural “you” with the verb “must” is also generic as it covers as many participants in

navigation as possible and it intensifies the authority of the person/institution prescribing the rule. Hence, the modal “must” is found in part B4 of the SMCP (“Passenger Care”) relating to safety-related behaviour on board ship. Crew and passengers must comply with certain on-board rules, as is the case with the possession of personal life-saving equipment. For example: “Damage control team must have protective clothing/safety helmets/lifejackets.” (B2/4.2.3.10.1).

In most cases in SMCP sentences “can” is used to indicate ability. For example: “Can you make a rendezvous in position ...? (A1/1.3.6). The negative form “cannot” occurs in 20 sentences and refers to the lack of possibility to carry out some operation, as in “I cannot establish which part is aground” (A1/1.14.3.2). However, “can” is also used in interrogative sentences when any subject in seafaring asks for certain permission as in “In what position can I take the pilot?”

“Need” is present in four sentences in the SMCP, while in four sentences in the form “need not” it refers to a lack of obligation, as in “you need not take tug(s)” (A1/4.3.1.2).

The modal verb “may” is used only in part B4 – Passenger Care of the SMCP in the example “You / MV ... may stop, search and proceed with voyage” (A1/1.2.4.13). “May” is found in one sentence in part A1 – Performing/Co-ordinating SAR Operations, and in three examples in part B4/3 (Attending to Passengers in an Emergency), as in “The key may be collected at the information desk” (B4/1.2.3.1). Therefore, the use of “may” is not typical for tasks relating to navigation and messages to be conveyed in ship-to-shore communication. Analogously, the modal “should” is found in only one SMCP sentence in part B4/1.2 – Briefing on Safety Regulations, Preventive Measures and Communications, in “Assistance should arrive within approximately ... hours” (B4/1.2 4.2.9).

As recommended in the Introduction to the IMO’s SMCP, modal verbs are classified as ambiguous words used in the maritime context, especially in vessel traffic communications. Thus, the use of message markers as kind of performatives is recommended instead. For example, the SMCP sentences “May I enter the fairway?” or “Can I enter the fairway?” should be introduced by the appropriate message marker as in “Question: Do I have permission to enter the fairway?” This rule relates to modals “might”, “should” and “could”.

4.9. Multiple-word lexical verbs to keep, to make, to get and to give

The verbs “to keep”, “to make”, “to get” and “to give” form a specific group of verbs in the SMCP. Phrasal verbs are typical of all registers and express a kind of recognisable linguistic tool of professional discourse communities. Some phrasal verbs and expressions from specified languages become a part of everyday language, as is the case with Maritime English idioms “to be all at sea” meaning “confused” (Čulić and Kalebota, 2013: 113). In each language for specific purposes it is important to know the meaning of the phrase, as it cannot be retrieved by word-for-word translation.

The verb “to keep” occurs in the pattern v + noun phrase, and the nouns or noun groups in the function of a direct object are “this area”, “my vessel”, “me”, “towing lines” and “fairway”.

The screenshot of the verb “to keep” is displayed below and, as previously mentioned in the text, this kind of visual representation is valuable learning aid to students in learning language in context.

N	Concordance	Set	Tag	Word #	Sen	Par	Par	lead	Sec	File	%
1	by for assistance. 7 Vessels must ~ keep clear of this area / area ... ~	8,512	77420%	89827%					032%	SMCP.txt	33%
2	to the emergency anchorage. 4 Keep clear of ... / avoid ... 5 You have	7,969	72033%	81929%					030%	SMCP.txt	31%
3	No, the propeller(s) is/are not clear. 13 Keep the propeller(s) clear. 2 Are	11,875	04450%	06128%					044%	SMCP.txt	45%
4	MV ... is manoeuvring with difficulty. 4 Keep clear of me / MV ... 5 Navigate	2,051	21438%	25633%					0 8%	SMCP.txt	8%
5	14 The tug(s) is / are fast (on ... 15 Keep clear of towing line(s). 16 Stand	11,827	03450%	06125%					044%	SMCP.txt	44%
6	2 Large vessel is leaving the fairway. keep clear of the fairway approach. 3	8,470	76952%	89232%					031%	SMCP.txt	32%
7	/ area ... ~ navigate with caution. 8 Keep clear of ... - search and rescue in	8,533	77518%	90118%					032%	SMCP.txt	33%
8	in the lifeboat / liferaft immediately. 6 Keep your lifejackets on. 7 Provisions	26,581	3950%	0230%					039%	SMCP.txt	99%
9	course ... degrees. 5.1 Advise you ~ keep your present course. ~ steer a	7,838	71231%	80330%					029%	SMCP.txt	30%
10	has abandoned vessel / MV ... 16 Keep sharp lookout for lifeboats /	1,578	16921%	19811%					0 6%	SMCP.txt	6%
11	your engines. 9 Stop engines. 10 Keep a distance of ... metres / cables	5,011	47320%	52320%					019%	SMCP.txt	19%
12	3 All vessels in vicinity of position ... keep sharp lookout and report to ... 4	875	8439%	11253%					0 3%	SMCP.txt	3%
13	gases in contact with water. 4.1 Keep these goods dry. 5 These goods	22,663	0540%	7140%					034%	SMCP.txt	84%
14	4 Start / stop pumping stops. 5 Keep a safe working pressure. B3/1.4	24,028	20413%	8035%					039%	SMCP.txt	89%
15	to load / discharge in ... minutes. 13 Keep a safe working pressure. 14	23,737	16413%	8035%					038%	SMCP.txt	88%
16	and actions in lifeboats / liferafts 1 Keep a sharp lookout for persons in the	26,632	39829%	0227%					039%	SMCP.txt	99%
17	/ heavy list / serious damage / ... 2 Keep calm. There is no reason to panic.	26,775	4030%	0330%					039%	SMCP.txt	99%
18	room. 4 Bridge team / lookouts 1 Keep sharp lookout for signals /	20,981	90411%	5213%					078%	SMCP.txt	78%
19	overboard" - throw lifebuoys overboard - keep your eyes on the person in the	25,934	3545%	98 8%					036%	SMCP.txt	96%
20	on port / starboard bow. 12 H: MV ... keep the wind on port / starboard quarter	4,650	43946%	48746%					017%	SMCP.txt	17%
21	~ proceed by the fairway / route ... ~ keep to the ... (cardinal points)/half	8,663	78040%	91720%					032%	SMCP.txt	33%
22	position and wait for the pilot. 14 Keep the pilot boat to the ... (cardinal	9,303	84314%	99714%					034%	SMCP.txt	36%
23	... degrees and ... knots. 11 H: MV ... keep the wind on port / starboard bow.	4,638	43816%	48616%					017%	SMCP.txt	17%
24	against sun / rain / shipping seas. 8 Keep the deck cargo of ... (cargo) wet /	25,032	2827%	0427%					039%	SMCP.txt	93%
25	is to call out: "Steady on ..." 13 Keep the buoy / mark / beacon / ... on	10,153	88121%	05 7%					038%	SMCP.txt	39%
26	in easy. 14.1 Heave alongside. 15 Keep the ... line(s) / ... spring(s) tight. ...	12,085	0630%	06 13%					045%	SMCP.txt	45%
27	of persons recovered is: ... 2.2 Keep lookout for further persons in water	16,085	4040%	1130%					050%	SMCP.txt	59%
28	cutting the manila lashing if required. 9 Keep yourself in the centre plane of the	5,154	49118%	54218%					019%	SMCP.txt	19%
29	15 Steer ... degrees to make a lee. 16 Keep the sea on your port quarter /	4,274	39818%	44118%					016%	SMCP.txt	16%
30	... hold(s). 4 Check the preventers. 5 Keep within the safe working load of	22,208	0125%	6525%					032%	SMCP.txt	83%

Illustration 1: Screenshot of the verb “to keep” in the SMCP

Source: (Dževerdanović-Pejović, 2012: 93)

By looking at the above illustration, students can better grasp difference between denotative and connotative meaning of

the verb “to keep”. The first is illustrated in phrase “Keep the sea on your port quarter” whereas the latter is illustrated in “Keep a sharp lookout for persons in the water” where “keep lookout” means “observe”. Likewise, “to keep” is a constituent part of the collocation “to keep clear of” meaning “to be at distance from” in five SMCP examples.

The verb “to get” belongs to a group of the most common verbs in each register. The verb “to get” combines with a variety of adverbial particles and acts as a lexical verb with its own meaning. It is extensively employed in a variety of meanings and as a part of idiomatic multiple-word phrases (Biber et al., 1999: 364). The SMCP phrase “to get underway”, as in “I am ready to get underway” (A1/6.1.14.3), meaning “I am ready to set sail/depart”, occurs in nine sentences in the SMCP. It has to be learned by heart as its meaning might not be elicited at first hand by word-for-word translation. To this end, by using a concordance search as seen in Illustration 1, students can better overcome “problematic distinctions between words and phrases that cause learners problems more effectively than by relying on (brief) descriptions offered in language manuals” (Wilson et al., 2014:217).

The verb “to make” is a transitive activity verb that, together with the verb “to get”, belongs to a group of the most common phrasal verbs in each register. Besides its lexical meaning as in “make a lee”, “make a boarding speed” generated according to a simple verb pattern verb + noun phrase, this verb produces idioms that nautical students must learn by heart. Interesting phrases with the verb “to make” found in the SMCP phrases are “make fast” found in six sentences meaning “to tie” or “secure” (ropes to bollards, for instance). For example: “Your vessel is in position – make fast” (A1/6.2.3.3.14). My classroom work with each generation of students has confirmed that the phrase “make fast tug” is interpreted as something like “increase the speed of the tug” rather than “fasten the tug”. Another example is “make water” in the sentence “Making water in ...” (B2/3.2.6.4) meaning taking in water on board ship.

Taken that an idiomatic point of view offers a new way of grasping logical and rationalistic rules, it can be said that an analogy between the real world and language conventions can be easily grasped with the help of language intuition and creativity (Gavioli, 1996: 51). In light of this, in the context of the situation

on-board, seafarers might easily guess that the phrase “make water” is associated with an ingress of water or flooding on-board ship. This means that an understanding of conceptual knowledge is interrelated with pragmatic knowledge or specialised knowledge.

The verb “to give” also forms idiomatic phrases in the SMCP phrases. It occurs in the idiomatic expression “to give way” in seven sentences and means “to be at a distance” or “keep out of the way” of another vessel. The phrasal verb “to give way”, as in “the vessel will give way” (B1/1.2.2.1), by means of conversion has given rise to the noun compounds “give-way vessel”, in analogy with the verb “to stand on” and the noun “stand-on vessel”. In addition, the idiom “give a wide berth means” “to keep clear of” or “to avoid” something, as in “wide berth requested” (A1/3.2.5.3.2). The first possible scenario is that a particular ship needs a large mooring space at the quay. The second and correct interpretation of the phrase “wide berth requested” is that other ships in the vicinity have “to keep clear” of a certain part of the fairway (due to danger, obstruction or any operation such as diving, dredging and so on).

5. Conclusion

The focus of this paper was on the verbs making up the core of the SMCP phrases. Firstly, the most frequent SMCP verbs are classified according to semantic domains (Biber et al., 1999). It is shown why activity verbs have the greatest prominence in the SMCP and why the use of modals is avoided. After this classification, the aim was to show which verb patterns (Francis et al., 1996) are formed by these verbs in generating SMCP phrases. In light of that, it was established that SMCP phrases mostly use a verb phrase pattern making the phrases easy to memorise by students and officers. Of the explored verbs, it was found that the existential verbs “to be”, “to do” and “to have” are extensively employed to express many conditions and logical relations on board ship and at sea. Furthermore, the verbs “to report”, “to check” and “to require” are also frequent in the SMCP phrases, and are used to achieve a rhetorical function in the maritime context – to maintain control over the situation on board, to have everything checked and reported. This military environment is also visible in the structure of helm orders, and in the repetition and redundancy in verbal communication.

Frequent phrasal verbs and idioms examined in the paper include phrasal expressions with the verbs “to make”, “to get” and “to give”, as in “make fast”, “make water”, “get underway” and “give a wide berth”. Although the application of such phrases may be questionable from the viewpoint of proper interpretation, Maritime English is decipherable within its discourse community and by the members of that community.

Future students and seafarers might benefit from the research carried out in this paper as a supplement to practical work or textbooks on the SMCP. Given that seafarers have insufficient time to learn English as the main language of maritime communication, integration of formulae and pragmatic insight into the use of verbs can be integrated into the syllabus in the Maritime English classroom. Finally, integration of computer-processed language analysis results can valuably help seafarers’ in becoming familiar with specialized lexical items through production of e-lexicography lists, concordance lines and word patterns.

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Oleksandr Kapranov¹

Received 17 May 2017

Reviewed 18 June 2017

Accepted 21 June 2017

UDC 811.111:373

DISCOURSE MARKERS IN ACADEMIC WRITING IN EFL BY SWEDISH PRE-SERVICE SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

Abstract: *The present paper involves a quantitative investigation of discourse markers identified in academic writing in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) by pre-service secondary school teachers of English, whose first language (L1) is Swedish. The main focus in the present study is on the role of discourse markers in the pre-service teachers' acquisition of the genre conventions of academic writing in English. The hypothesis in the present investigation is based upon an assumption that academic essays written by the pre-service secondary school teachers of English would be characterised by a quantitative difference involving discourse markers over the period of time, specifically at the start of the semester (i.e., the essay draft) and at the end of the semester (i.e., the final essay). Following this assumption, a quantitative investigation of the pre-service secondary school teachers' academic writing is carried out by means of the software program WordSmith (Scott 2012). The materials of the present study involve the draft essays and the final essays written by the pre-service secondary school teachers in English. The results of the quantitative analysis reveal a tendency to employ DMs associated with the formal register of English in the final essays. These DMs appear to be typically represented by however, furthermore, therefore, etc. These findings are discussed in conjunction with pedagogical implications of teaching academic writing in EFL to the pre-service secondary school teachers of English, whose L1 is Swedish.*

Keywords: *academic writing, discourse markers (DMs), EFL, pre-service secondary school teachers*

1. Introduction

This paper involves a quantitative investigation of discourse markers (further in the article - DMs) identified in academic writing in EFL by pre-service secondary school teachers of English, whose L1 is Swedish. Academic writing in EFL combines cognitive, communicative, discursive, and individual features (Negretti and Kuteeva 2011). These features are involved in an EFL student's ability to write in academic

¹ Post-doc researcher at the University of Bergen, Norway.

English. Academic writing in English is critical for EFL tertiary students to be successful in college and their future professional careers (Lim et al. 2016: 32). It is inferred from previous research that future professionals, in particular, future teachers of English, are bound to encounter the critical role of writing in the English language in international professional organisations and networks, such as, for instance, TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages), and in the body of professional literature published in English (Cramarenco et al. 2015; Dontcheva-Navratilova 2016). Extending the argument of the role of writing in English in globalised academia, Matthisson (2012: 24) notes that “In a world where the majority of research results are published in English, it is important that students master the conventions of academic writing in English”. However, few EFL university students are adequately equipped with writing skills in English necessary for academic success at tertiary levels (Goldfinch and Hughes 2007). EFL university students often experience problems with academic writing in English ‘due to their unfamiliarity with aspects of academic genre papers, such as lexico-grammatical features, rhetorical functions, and genre structures’ (Liou et al. 2008).

Amongst a range of potential problems associated with the conventions of academic writing in English, previous scholarship emphasises the lack of an adequate repertoire of DMs and their stylistically appropriate usage in academic writing in English by EFL university students (Povolna 2012). Paraphrasing Yeh (2015: 479), it can be argued that an EFL student’s academic writing skills require a conscious development of specific genre knowledge, such as text structures, rhetorical functions and genre appropriate DMs.

The present study seeks to address the issue of the repertoire and the appropriate use of DMs in academic writing in EFL by pre-service secondary school teachers of English (further in the text referred to as participants). It is argued in this study that the usage and the word frequency of DMs in academic texts produced by the participants may provide an indication of the participants’ learning trajectory associated with the acquisition of the conventions of academic writing in English. Following this assumption, the present research involves a quantitative investigation of the DMs frequencies and their occurrence computed by software program WordSmith (Scott 2012).

The novelty of the investigation further described in this article involves the focus on the academic essays written in English by the Swedish L1 participants who will work as specialist teachers of English in the Swedish secondary school educational context. Another novel aspect of the present study is associated with the juxtaposition of the first drafts of the academic essays in English written by the participants at the beginning of the semester with the final academic essays written after the teacher's feedback, and the peer-group feedback provided by the dyadic study group, where the dyad provided feedback and proof-reading of each other's academic essays prior to the final submission of the essays onto the student portal.

In view of the afore-mentioned novel aspects, the present article is structured as follows: First, previous research involving DMs in the genre of academic writing will be outlined. Second, the present study will be introduced. The study involves DMs in academic writing in English by a group of Swedish L1 pre-service secondary school teachers. Third, the conclusions of the present study will be presented in conjunction with the possible didactic implications to EFL academic writing instruction in tertiary educational settings.

1.1. An Outline of Previous Research Involving DMs in the Genre of Academic Writing

There are several approaches to the definition of DMs, e.g. pragmatic, functional, and structural. For instance, in light of the pragmatic approach DMs are theorised to involve particles and structures that are used in locating the utterance in an interpersonal and interactive dimension, in connecting and structuring phrasal, inter-phrasal and extra-phrasal elements in discourse (Bazzanella 2006:456). DMs are deemed to involve a word or phrase, e.g. a conjunction, adverbial, comment clause, or interjection (Aijmer 2002; Redeker 1991), which do not have propositional meanings (Aijmer 2002). Whilst DMs lack denotative aspects of lexical meaning, they, nevertheless, possess connotative meaning (Megela 2014:17). Viewing DMs from a functional approach, Jones and Carter (2014:40) define DMs as lexical items or phrases, which are i) optional, ii) multifunctional, iii) not drawn from one grammatical class and are not a closed grammatical class, iv) have a procedural but not propositional

meaning, and v) function at referential, interpersonal, structural, and cognitive levels. The present study follows the definition of DMs by Fraser (2015), who regards DMs as typically occurring in S2 sentence-initial position in a S1-S2 combination, and signaling a semantic relationship between the two sentences.

It should be mentioned that whilst the role of DMs has largely been explored on the four language skills (Jones and Carter 2014; Loewen 2014), there is a growing tendency to study DMs in academic writing in English (Kapranov forthcoming; Povolná 2012; Šimčikaitė 2012). In academic writing, every text is written to be both understood and accepted (Hyland 2007:267). Arguably, the acceptance of an academic text written in English by EFL learners critically depends on its conformity to the genre of academic writing. According to Hyland (2004:4), genre is regarded as “a term for grouping texts together, representing how writers typically use language to respond to recurring situations”. A widely accepted view of the term ‘genre’ involves the notion of a staged goal-oriented social process associated with the cultural purpose of a text (Eggins 2004; Martin and White 2005). Genre is deemed to designate the realisation of discursive activity in terms of recurrent textual patterns (Homerberg 2011:33).

Central to the present research is the definition of genre as a class of communicative events with a shared set of purposes, i.e. the rationale for the genre, which is associated with the constrained choices of content, structure and style (Swales 1990:58). The definition of genre by Swales (1990) has gained currency in EFL (English as a Foreign Language) and in ESP (English for Specific Purposes) studies (Paltridge 2014). Guided by the above-mentioned view of genre, the genre of academic writing is defined as:

“the written form of academic communication characterised by its exact definition of topics and clear way of linguistic expression; by its intellectual mode of presentation; by the use of carefully chosen vocabulary including an acceptable portion of defined terms of the sublanguage; by a certain preference given to the accepted means of expression; and by a logical use of graphic illustrations and figures” (Lar 1997:131).

In the context of academic ESP and EFL writing, genre refers to a class of communicative events or textual types, such as

academic essays, research articles, theses and dissertations (Lazar and Ellis 2010; Paltridge 2014). As indicated by Hyland (2008:543), the concept of genre can be successfully applied to the teaching of academic writing in many contexts, since it illuminates the constraints of social contexts on language use. Whilst each genre possesses its own fields of language characteristic (Andrew and Romova 2012), the genre of academic writing is associated with complex ways of thinking about the content and, consequently, it is significantly different from everyday language (Gee 2004:3). Ellis et al. (1998) suggest that the students' genre awareness facilitates the composition of academic texts, as well as the correct and genre-appropriate use of conjunctions, connectivity, and topic shifts in the texts. Following this line of argument, the genre conventions in academic writing are marked by the presence of genre-specific features, for instance DMs therefore, aforementioned, subsequently, etc., which are typically associated with the formal register of the English language usage. This contention is echoed by previous research, for instance Kapranov (forthcoming) indicates that academic writing in English by the pre-service primary school teachers is marked by the presence of informal and formal DMs. In particular, it has been found that informal DMs tend to be associated with the mid-course essays (e.g., like, OK, besides), whilst the DMs in the corpus of the final course essays written by the same participants are characterised by a more formal register, e.g. hence, initially, thereafter, thereby, etc. (Kapranov forthcoming).

The genre conventions demanded by academic writing in English involve, amongst other features, DMs, which contribute to the creation of coherent and reader-friendly texts (Loewen 2014). It is inferred from previous research that a cohesive and coherent academic text 'emerges from the distinctive social exigencies associated with a particular genre' (Omizo and Hart-Davidson, 2016:486). Several scholars (Crossley et al. 2016; Khatib 2011; Schiffrin 1987; Tyler and Bro 1992) indicate that the presence of DMs (e.g., however, accordingly, for example) facilitates the coherence of an academic text. Specifically, Crossley and the colleagues (2016:2) indicate that DMs, for instance, because, therefore and consequently, contribute to cohesion in the text by providing linguistic cues that allow the reader to establish connections between the ideas in the text.

This contention appears to be in concert with Jones and Carter (2014:39), who posit that DMs help make discourse coherent. Similarly to Jones and Carter (2014), Tåqvist (2016) indicates that DMs facilitate cohesion and coherence in academic writing by advanced EFL students.

It should be reiterated that academic writing is characterised by a variety of linguistic elements used for cohesion within the text. Among these elements, the use of DMs creates connections between stretches of discourse (House 2013:58). Hence, it can be assumed that DMs in academic writing i) connect, organise and interpret the text with regard to the understanding and values of a particular discourse community (Hyland 2000); and ii) create coherence and structure within a discourse by coordinating speech acts, and propositional contents (Bu 2013:30). This observation is also found in Schiffrin (1987) and Smith-Christmas (2016), who suggest that DMs as sequentially dependent elements of discourse facilitate discursive coherence.

2. The Present Study. DMs in Academic Writing in EFL by Swedish Pre-Service Secondary School Teachers

Based upon the view of genre as a set of constrained choices of structure and style (Swales 1990) and upon the definition of academic writing by Laar (1997), it is assumed in the present study that academic writing in English is associated with a certain set of genre-specific DMs. The usage of formal DMs (e.g. aforementioned, therefore, subsequently, etc.) is deemed to be one of those constraints. Hence, it is argued in the Hypothesis in this study that the usage and the word frequency of DMs in academic texts in English produced by the participants may provide an indication of the participants' learning trajectory associated with the acquisition of the conventions of academic writing in English. Specifically, it is assumed that quantitative difference in DMs usage is bound to occur after a series of feedback interventions resulting in the decrease of informal DMs (e.g. like, you know, well, etc.) and the increase of DMs associated with the formal register of the English language (e.g. aforementioned, therefore, subsequently, etc.). The present study involves the following specific research aims: i) to identify DMs frequencies and their occurrence computed by means of a computer-assisted analysis in software program WordSmith

(Scott 2012) and ii) to juxtapose the to-be-identified DMs in the first essays drafts written prior to the teacher's and the peer-group's feedback with the final academic essays submitted by the participants after the feedback provided by the teacher and the peer-group.

2.1. The Context of the Present Study

The present study is set within the context of the course English II for teaching English in upper secondary schools offered at Stockholm University by the Department of English and the Department of English Education. The course consists of the following course units: Literature and Culture, Linguistic Survey course, Language education, Academic Reading and Writing, and Language Proficiency. The course unit Academic Reading and Writing aims at developing students' competence in reading and writing academic English as well as their genre awareness (further information involving detailed course description is available at www.english.su.se). As a part of this course unit, students are expected to write an academic essay and submit it by the end of the semester.

The students who take the course unit Academic Reading and Writing are taught the IMRAD (i.e., Introduction, Methods, Results and Discussion) structure of research papers. The students are made aware of the precise and objective language of a scientific article. As far as academic essay is concerned, students are explicitly taught to avoid jargon, omissions, overstatements and distortions. The course unit Academic Reading and Writing typically involves seven seminars with a lecture component in them (i.e., the so called lecture-seminars), which start at the beginning of the semester and finish at the end of the semester. The first four seminars are delivered weekly, and afterwards there is a hiatus of approximately two months between Seminar 4 and Seminar 5 due to the students' practice placements at school. An outline of the course unit is summarised in Table 1 below.

#	Seminar	Activities
1	Seminar 1	An introductory seminar to academic writing in English. The genre of academic writing in English. The choice of a topic of the academic essay. Explanation of which topics to choose in English linguistics, English literature and/or in teaching English as a foreign language (EFL). Home assignment for the next seminar: To reflect upon a possible topic of the academic essay.
2	Seminar 2	How to do background reading for an academic essay. Home assignment for the next seminar: To write a summary of two academic articles in English which are relevant to the academic essay. Home assignment for the next seminar: to write the first draft of the academic essays comprised of the title, abstract, key words and the introduction. The minimal word count of the draft is 500 words.
3	Seminar 3	How to write the following parts of an academic essay: Abstract, key words and introduction. An overview of academic vocabulary in English. Home assignment for the next seminar: To bring the first draft to class and to send it to the teacher via e-mail.
4	Seminar 4	How to write the main body of an academic essay: Hypothesis, materials, participants, procedure and methods, results and discussion sections. An overview of academic vocabulary in English. Home assignment for the next seminar: on-going academic essay writing.
5	Seminar 5	Making an academic essay better: The concepts of cohesion and coherence. Home assignment for the next seminar: on-going academic essay writing.
6	Seminar 6	Making an academic essay better: Proof-reading. The convention of the APA style of referencing. Home assignment for the next seminar: To discuss the final draft in a small study group.
7	Seminar 7	Individual oral presentations of the essay. The final version of the essay is due. The minimal word count of the essay is 1500 words exclusive of references and appendices.

Table 1. An Overview of the Course of Academic Writing for Pre-Service Secondary School Teachers of English

As evident from Table 1, the students are expected to write an essay draft of at least 500 words by Seminar 3. The teacher's feedback associated with the essay draft is communicated in writing after Seminar 3. Prior to Seminar 7, the students are expected to proof-read their essays in a small study group, usually comprised of two people. They are asked to provide each other with feedback as far as the final draft of the

essay is concerned. The final essay is due on Seminar 7. On that day the essays are to be submitted on Mondo, the student portal at Stockholm University.

2.2. Participants

21 participants (12 females and 9 males) took part in the study. At the time of the study, all of the participants were enrolled in a secondary teachers programme at Stockholm University (Sweden). The participants were asked to fill out a socio-linguistic questionnaire associated with the study. 20 of the participants indicated that Swedish was their L1 and English was a foreign language. One participant identified himself as an unbalanced Swedish/English bilingual, with the stronger language being Swedish. In total, six participants indicated that in addition to Swedish, their stronger L1, they were speakers of other languages. The participants' real names were coded to ensure confidentiality. The codes used in the study involved the abbreviation PSSST, which stood for Pre-Service Secondary School Teacher. The PSSST code was followed by a number from 1 till 21. The socio-linguistic statistics were compiled in Table 2 below:

#	Partici- pant	Age/ Gender	First Lang.	Second Lang.	Status of English
1.	PSSST1	21/f	Swedish	-	Foreign lang.
2.	PSSST2	22/m	Swedish	-	Foreign lang.
3.	PSSST3	21/f	Swedish	-	Foreign lang.
4.	PSSST4	23/m	Swedish	-	Foreign lang.
5.	PSSST5	25/m	Swedish	German	Foreign lang.
6.	PSSST6	23/f	Swedish	Romanian	Foreign lang.
7.	PSSST7	22/f	Swedish	Wolof	Foreign lang.
8	PSSST8	21/f	Swedish	-	Foreign lang.
9.	PSSST9	23/f	Swedish	-	Foreign lang.
10.	PSSST10	22/m	Swedish	-	Foreign lang.
11.	PSSST11	26/m	Swedish	-	Foreign lang.
12.	PSSST12	23/f	Swedish	-	Foreign lang.
13.	PSSST13	25/m	Swedish	Spanish	Foreign lang.
14.	PSSST14	31/m	Swedish	-	Foreign lang.
15.	PSSST15	29/m	Swedish	-	Foreign lang.
16.	PSSST16	22/m	Swedish	English	Unbalanced

					Swedish/English bilingual
17.	PSSST17	23/f	Swedish	-	Foreign lang.
18.	PSSST18	24/f	Swedish	-	Foreign lang.
19.	PSSST19	23/f	Swedish	Estonian	Foreign lang.
20.	PSSST20	25/f	Swedish	-	Foreign lang.
21.	PSSST21	26/f	Swedish	-	Foreign lang.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics of the Participants' Socio-Linguistic Background

2.3. Materials

The materials of the present study involved i) a corpus of the academic essay drafts submitted by the participants by Seminar 3 and ii) a corpus of the final academic essays submitted by the participants at the end of the semester. The minimal word count for the essay draft was set at 500 words, whilst the minimum number of words in the final academic essay was set at 1500 words. The descriptive statistics of the draft and the final essay data were compiled in Table 2 below.

#	Mean Group Values	Draft Essays	Final Essays
1.	Mean number of words	621	2019
2.	Mean number of paragraphs	6	19
3.	Mean number of sentences	25	75

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics of the Corpus of the Draft Essays and the Final Essays

2.4. Procedure and Method

The procedure involved the following steps: First, the essays drafts were expected to be sent electronically to the author of the article, who was teaching that course, by Seminar 3. Second, the participants were instructed to send the final essays via email after Seminar 7, when detailed oral feedback was provided by the course teacher and the written feedback by the same teacher was sent to the participants via e-mail. Additionally, after Seminar 7 the participants received both oral and written feedback from their respective peer-group partners.

The methods in the present article followed the methodological guidelines described in Povolna (2012), who investigated the frequency of DMs in academic writing by university students of English by means of the software program WordsSmith (Scott 2012). Following Povolna (2012), the

software program WordSmith (Scott 2012) was deemed to be reliable and suitable for the purposes of the present study.

The frequency and occurrence of DMs in the corpus of the draft and final essays, respectively, were calculated per 1000 words. The cut-off of 1000 words was set to enable cross-comparison between the two sets of data, i.e. the draft and the final essays, respectively.

2.5. Results and Discussion

The application of the software program WordSmith (Scott 2012) to the data yielded descriptive statistics involving the occurrence and frequency of DMs per 1000 words. Those statistics were compiled and presented in Table 4.

#	DMs	Occurrence in Draft (per 1000 words)	Frequency in Draft (%) per 1000 words	Occurrence in Final Essay (per 1000 words)	Frequency in Final Essay (%) per 1000 words
1.	Actually	0	0	0,05	0,005
2.	Additionally	0	0	0,5	0,01
3.	And	6,3	1	7	1,1
4.	Alas	0	0	1	0,01
5.	Also	0,6	0,06	1,7	0,2
6.	Although	0	0	0,3	0,03
7.	As	0,6	0,08	3,1	0,4
8.	Assuming	0	0	0,1	0,01
9.	Because	0,1	0,01	0,2	0,02
10.	Besides	0	0	0,1	0,01
11.	But	0,4	0,04	0,7	0,1
12.	Essentially	0	0	0,1	0,01
13.	Finally	0,05	0,004	0,1	0,01
14.	First	0	0	0,1	0,01
15.	Furthermore	0,3	0,03	0,6	0,06
16.	Generally	0,1	0,01	0	0
17.	However	0,5	0,05	2,6	0,4
18.	If	0,4	0,04	0,7	0,1
19.	In addition	0	0	1	0,01
20.	Indeed	0	0	0,2	0,02
21.	It follows	0,1	0,1	0,2	0,02
22.	It seems	0,1	0,01	0,1	0,01
23.	Just	0,1	0,01	0	0
24.	Lastly	0,1	0,01	0	0
25.	Later	0,1	0,01	0	0
26.	Like	0,3	0,03	0	0

27.	Moreover	0,2	0,02	0,1	0,01
28.	Nevertheless	0	0	0,1	0,01
29.	Or	0,8	0,08	2,7	0,4
30.	Possibly	0,1	0,01	0,1	0,01
31.	Presumably	0,1	0,01	0,1	0,01
32.	Probably	0,1	0,01	0	0
33.	Rather	0	0	0,1	0,01
34.	Similarly	0	0	0,1	0,01
35.	So	0,1	0,01	0,1	0,01
36.	Still	0	0	0,1	0,01
37.	Such	0,1	0,01	0,3	0,05
38.	Surprisingly	0	0	0,1	0,01
39.	Then	0,2	0,02	0,3	0,03
40.	Thereafter	0	0	0,1	0,01
41.	Thereby	0	0	0,1	0,01
42.	Therefore	0,6	0,06	1,4	0,1
43.	Though	0,3	0,01	0,3	0,01
44.	Thus	0,1	0,01	0,2	0,1
45.	Usually	0,1	0,01	0	0
46.	Well	0,1	0,01	0	0
46.	Whereas	0,1	0,01	0,1	0,01
47.	Whether	0,1	0,01	0,2	0,02
48.	While	0,4	0,04	0,6	0,06

Table 4. The Mean Occurrence and Frequency of DMs in the Draft and Final Essays per Group

As evident from the data summarised in Table 4, there is a group of DMs that are associated exclusively with the essay drafts and are not identified in the final essays. These DMs are generally, just, lastly, later, like, probably, usually and well. In contrast to the aforementioned DMs, the results of the present quantitative analysis reveal that there is another group of DMs associated only with the final essays, for instance, actually, additionally, alas, although, assuming, besides, essentially, first, in addition, indeed, nevertheless, rather, similarly, still, surprisingly, thereafter, and thereby. As seen in Table 4, however, there is yet another group of DMs which exhibit stable distributions across the sets of the essay drafts and the final essays, respectively, for example it seems, possibly, presumably, so, and whereas.

It has been assumed in the hypothesis that quantitative difference in DMs usage would occur after a series of feedback interventions resulting in the decrease of informal DMs and the increase of DMs associated with the formal register of the English language. The findings summarised in Table 4 have revealed the

dynamics of DMs usage contrasted between the set of essay drafts data and the final essays data. Specifically, the results of the quantitative data analysis in the software program WordSmith (Scott 2012) appear to support the hypothesis as far as the increase of the usage of formal DMs is concerned. It should be noted that the increase is not statistically significant. A pair-sampled t-test has been conducted on the mean values of DMs occurrence and the results of the test have indicated that they are not statistically significant. Whilst no statistically significant results are reported, it is, nevertheless, possible to observe the participants' tendency to employ DMs associated with the formal register of English in the final essays. These DMs appear to be typically represented by however, furthermore, therefore, etc.

It follows from the present findings that the participants tend to over-use some of the formal DMs in their final essays. This observation is exemplified by Excerpt 1, which is marked by a rather excessive presence of the DMs however and therefore, respectively:

(1) Lalander and Johansson (2007) refer to the construction of what is essentially feminine and what is essentially masculine as an everyday discourse. Current research indicates that men and women use language differently (Lalander & Johansson, 2007). However, de Klerk (1990) suggests that the usage of slang might be a distinction of speech used by men and female. De Klerk (1990) also indicates that there is a common stereotype that males are slang-users while females try to avoid slang. However, de Klerk (1990) posits that although slang is more frequently used by male, the gap between the amounts of slang words between males and females are likely to reach a more even balance and therefore leaving the notion of slang as a male dominated domain as a notion of the past. Therefore, this essay will argue that the use of slang is no longer a male dominated domain. Slang is frequently used among males as females to an equal extent and use of slang is determined by social context in order to further establish a belonging to certain groups in which a language containing slang words is being sustained (de Klerk, 1992). (Participant PSSST10, male)

The overuse of DMs by EFL university students has been previously observed by Povolna (2012) and Šimčikaitė (2012), who report an over-extensive usage of DMs in academic writing in English by the university students. The present findings also

lend support to the study by Martinez (2002), where an overuse of DMs by EFL university students is discussed. It should be mentioned that similar findings concerning the overuse of DMs by the EFL pre-service primary school teachers are reported in Kapranov (forthcoming). In particular, it has been found that the future teachers of English at primary schools who are enrolled at Stockholm University overuse DMs in their academic essays.

Whilst the overuse of DMs associated with the formal register can be regarded as a problem, it is suggestive of the participants' awareness of the genre requirements of academic writing in English. This assumption can be partially supported by the decrease of the use of informal DMs by the participants. The overuse of the formal DMs with the concurrent decrease of the informal DMs can be taken to indicate that the participants' genre awareness has increased. Arguably, their genre awareness has not mapped onto well-balanced and well-written academic essays, but it, nevertheless, indicates a learning curve the participants have been experiencing from their first essay draft until the final essay submission.

This observation is supported by the present data. For instance, participant PSSST16 uses DMs and (1 %), and then (0.1%) in the draft, but in the final essay the participant expands the repertoire of DMs and includes then (0.3%), besides (0.3%), therefore (0.2%), and alas (0.1%). The appearance of DMs therefore and alas in the final essay can be attributed to the participant's attempt to exhibit awareness of the elevated style of the English language. This assumption is supported by the participant's usage of the DM alas, which is normally associated with formal or poetic styles of writing in English. Whilst the use of alas is too poetic for an academic essay in linguistics and EFL didactics, it is, nevertheless, indicative of the participant's attempt to conform to the style conventions of academic writing.

As far as the participants' genre awareness is concerned, it should be emphasised that academic genres require both extensive practice and explicit instruction (Correa and Echeverri 2017:50). Concurring with previous scholarship (Correa and Echeverri 2017; Kostrova and Kulinich 2015; Negretti and Kuteeva 2011), the present analysis of EFL academic writing reveals problems in their lingua-pragmatic and didactic aspects. Specifically, these problems are manifested by some of the participants' draft essays, where the presence of the genre-

appropriate DMs is concurrent with the informal DMs. For instance, in the participant's PSSST13 draft essay neutral and formal DMs and, as, however, usually, therefore, thus are used simultaneously with more informal DMs, e.g. just, like, and so.

Echoing Correa and Echeverri (2017), it can be postulated that enhancing an EFL student's academic writing skills requires further development of specific genre knowledge, such as the genre appropriate usage of DMs. Following the corrective feedback interventions by the course teacher and the small student group, the final essay by the participant PSSST13 is marked by the presence of stylistically neutral and formal DMs in contrast to the first draft, e.g. and, but, however, therefore, such, and thus. In this regard, it should be mentioned that the presence of neutral style DMs, especially and, forms a characteristic feature of the majority of the final essays. A typical example of the final essay is provided in Excerpt 2, where the formal DM therefore appears to be embedded into stylistically neutral DMs and, and as:

(2) The definition of bilingual is broad and the definition of bilingualism in this report is, therefore, defined as being bilingual from birth. Being bilingual from birth means that before the baby is born it will learn to recognize the two languages being spoken by its mother or/and father (Kluger, 2013) and the brain of a bilingual child is "proven to be more flexible" (Kluger, 2013) which indicates that bilingual children have references from two languages to explain themselves. An additional previous study (Kapa & Colombo, 2013) defines bilingualism in "early childhood bilingualism" (Kapa & Colombo, 2013: 235) when the children become bilingual between birth and the age of three, and "later childhood bilingualism" (Kapa & Colombo, 2013: 235) as becoming bilingual after the age of three. (Participant PSSST 18, male)

The frequent occurrence of and, as well as of but and as in the final essays can be indicative of the participants' writing strategies. These strategies involve semi-parallel relationships between the sentences (e.g., and), a comparison based upon the preceding sentence (e.g., as), and the contrast with the previous sentence (e.g., but). These findings lend support to Martinez (2002), who analyses academic essays by seven Spanish L1

university students of English and reports the usage of DMs analogous to the present findings.

3. Conclusions and Didactic Implications

The present paper involves a quantitative investigation of DMs identified in EFL academic writing by pre-service secondary school teachers of English, whose L1 is Swedish. The focus of the study involves the role of DMs in the acquisition of the genre conventions of academic writing in English by the pre-service secondary school teachers of English. Guided by the view of genre as a set of constraints to be met by the novice writer, this study has examined a learning curve undertaken by the participants in their endeavor to master the style appropriate usage of DMs in their academic writing. The usage of DMs by the participants has been contrasted across two sets of academic writing tasks, the academic essay drafts and the final academic essays.

The identification of DMs by the software program WordSmith (Scott 2012) has revealed a tendency to employ the formal register DMs in the final essays (e.g., however, furthermore, therefore, while, etc.). This tendency is concurrent with the decline in informal DMs (like, usually, just, etc.). Additionally, the present data analysis has revealed that the formal register DMs appear to be embedded into the frequently used neutral style DMs (and, as, but, or).

Based upon the present findings, it seems possible to formulate the following didactic implications, which might be relevant to the teaching of academic writing in English to the pre-service secondary teachers of English: First, the corrective feedback interventions by the course teacher should be supplemented by the corrective feedback by the small student group to ensure the genre appropriate usage of DMs in academic essay writing. Second, the awareness of the genre appropriate DMs in academic writing should be raised concurrently with cautioning EFL students about the excessive usage of formal register DMs. Third, the students should be provided with an essay template with a list of DMs associated with scientific writing in English to facilitate the style-appropriate academic essay writing.

Acknowledgments

I want to acknowledge 21 pre-service secondary school teachers from Stockholm University (Sweden), whose participation in the present study is invaluable. I want to acknowledge post-doctoral funding from the Norwegian Research Council and the University of Bergen which enabled me to write this article.

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Dragana Čarapić¹

Received 1 May 2017

Reviewed 10 June 2017

Accepted 21 June 2017

UDC 811.163.4'367.623

MEANING EXTENSION AND GRAMMATICAL GENDER IN NEAR SYNONYMY ANALYSIS: A CORPUS BASED STUDY

Abstract: *Contrastive analysis of descriptive adjective hrabar-a-o in Montenegrin and descriptive adjective brave as well as their near synonyms in English and Montenegrin will be employed in this paper in order to prove the presence of the descriptive adjectives' prevailing idiomatic meaning in both languages. The results of the analysis indicate that the semantic (and grammatical) aspects of words are reflected onto and within their collocational framework. Furthermore, it is expected that the collocational framework of the adjective hrabar-a-o in Montenegrin will change depending upon the grammatical gender implied (masculine, feminine, neutral), as well as the sequence of its near synonyms. The same changes are not expected to occur in English due to its lack of grammatical gender. The methodology of the research comprises the frequency of the primary and idiomatic meaning analyses of descriptive adjective hrabar-a-o, and its near synonyms based on the framework of the Contemporary Serbian language electronic corpus, (Faculty of Mathematics and Natural Sciences, University of Belgrade), and the descriptive adjective brave and its near synonyms analyzed on the British National Corpus data (BNC) and the Words Bank: English database.*

Keywords: *descriptive adjective, near synonyms, idiomatic meaning, grammatical gender, the most frequent collocational framework*

1. Introduction

Early lexical semantic studies investigated the degree to which metaphor could be used to account for meaning extension; similarly the concept of radial categories allowed for new insights into linguistic organization and the related mental representation of polysemy and to a lesser extent of near-synonymy (Divjak – Gries 2006). Recently, there has been a gradual shift in the analyses from intuition-based, corpus-illustrated work to corpus-based analyses (cf. Gibbs – Matlock, 2001; Kishner – Gibbs, 1996 and the papers in Gries & Stefanowitsch, 2006 and Stefanowitsch – Gries, 2006). The analysis is corpus-based as well, analyzing the descriptive adjectives and their near-synonyms within two

¹ PhD, senior lecturer at the University of Montenegro.

electronic corpora. Research on extensions of meaning were undertaken by Dragičević (2010), who noticed transitivity of meaning in the following analyzed lexemes and phrases:

“Presently, the most conspicuous example of meaning transitivity is reflected through the verb *pričati* (Eng. *talk*), which is, in everyday conversation, used in the specific meaning: *govoriti* (eng. *speak*) and *razgovarati* (eng. *communicate*), as illustrated in the following sentences: *Ne pričam više s njim (= govorim)* (eng.= *speak*) eng. *I don't speak with him any more*; *Ona dobro priča španski (= govori)*², eng. *She speaks Spanish well*; *Sve vreme smo pričale (= razgovarale)*. eng. *We talked all the time.* (= *communicate*). Similar to these examples, the verb *polomiti* eng. *crash* is often used in the context implying the meaning *slomiti* and *razbiti*, eng. *break*; e.g. *polomiti nogu / ruku (= slomiti)*, *polomiti nekom nos (= razbiti)*, *polomiti prozor / staklo / vazu (= razbiti)*, obviously under the influence of single definition and understanding of the English verb *break*³ while translating it almost always with the same word and in the same way“ (Dragičević 2010).

The illustrated example of meaning transitivity should be taken into consideration and criticised as such.

According to the stated examples it is noticeable that transitivity of meaning stems from various foundations. Namely, besides the frequency of the use of a certain expression within a specific collocational framework, it has been noticed that loan words from foreign languages can influence extensions of meaning in the source language.

Stockwell and Minkova (2006: 149-161) claim that semantic changes derive from many internal and external factors. Technological progress is considered to be the major external factor affecting semantic changes, whereas the use of lexemes based on the analogy principles and generalization propensity is

² The illustrated example of meaning transitivity should be taken into consideration and criticised as such.

³ “Examples of synonymy suppression are obvious in phrases loaned from a foreign language or phrases greatly influenced by words from the foreign language: *egzil, izgnanstvo; reptil, gmizavac; keš, gotovina; informacija, obaveštenje; demantovati, opovrgnuti; kratka priča* (a literal translation of the English phrase *short story*), *pripovetka; ohrabrivati* (an inadequate interpretation of one of the senses of the English verb meaning *encourage*), *podsticati*“ (Dragičević 2010).

considered to be the internal factor influencing these changes. Dragičević (2010: 135) deems that secondary meanings of lexemes evolve, being aligned to several principles (metaphor, metonymy and synecdoch) , but she emphasizes that there are “many cases when meaning can not be predicted as such and it results out of a specific extension of meaning.” Therefore, in the next section of a paper we will give a short overview of major causes of both meaning extension and the narrowing of meaning.

2. Semantic changes (extension⁴ and narrowing of meaning)⁵

The founder of modern semantics, Breal, and his predecessor Reisig carried out a scientific investigation of the laws that influence the course of semantic changes. Until 1930, all the analyses in this field had bifurcated in two directions: the classification of semantic changes and the disclosure of semantic laws (Ullman 1962). However, according to Ullman (1962) in spite of many complexities of these processes, it is possible to outline several major semantic causes of semantic changes:

1. Linguistic causes – Some semantic changes may occur as a result of relations among words. Common collocations may have a long term influence on the meaning of an expression through the meaning transfer of a certain lexeme onto another word, due to their frequent co-occurrence in the same context.⁶

2. Historical causes – Objects, ideas and specific concepts change over time, though their name stays the same, maintaining the tradition and their continuity.⁷

3. Sociological causes – When a word from the standard language becomes a part of a professional language of trade, craft or of any other social group, that word acquires a limited meaning. Contrary to this, words loaned from the language of a

⁴ Radić-Bojanić and Silaški (2012) examined the metaphorical conceptualizations of the lexeme-notion *glava* in Serbian and the notion *head* in English.

⁵ For a detailed insight into the issue of semantic changes see Shindo (2009) and Dirvens – Porings (2006).

⁶The stated linguistic causes of semantic changes (meaning the extension of lexemes) are the main focus of our research.

⁷ For example, the word *pencil* derives from the Latin meaning *feather* or *thin brush*; however, the same word was retained even when people started using wood for making these devices for writing, and therefore we still have word *pencil* in common use.

particular social group, gain a wider meaning when passing into standard language.⁸

4. Psychological causes – Semantic changes often occur as a reflection of the author's state of mind or as a consequence of an enduring trait within his mental framework. A coincidence may draw the speaker's attention or a witty thought may create a certain image, a presentation which, due to its expressive intensity, become commonly used. For example, the idea that a certain image and notion is in a way related to a *horse*, has inspired many graphic and humorous metaphors and idioms: *clothes-horse*, *horse-fish*, *horse-tail*, *horse-play*, *to flog a dead horse*, *to mount the high horse*, *to look a gift horse in the mouth*, and so on.

In semantic research, special attention has been paid to the psychological causes of semantic changes, among which we would highlight the following: emotional factors and taboo.⁹

After reviewing a selection of the causes of extensions of meaning and defining near-synonymy, we will present our methodological approach to the research in which we aim at indicating the dominant idiomatic meaning of the adjective *hrabar,-a,-o* and its near synonyms in relation to their grammatical gender in Montenegrin. The same analysis will be carried out in English, while analysing the descriptive adjective *brave* and its near synonyms.

3. Near synonyms

Cruse (1986: 270) claims that “natural languages abhor absolute synonyms just as nature abhors vacuum,” as the meanings of words are constantly changing. Clark (1992)

⁸ Nyota and Mareva (2012) illustrate the influence of street jargon on the standard language while describing a great number of urban dialects, which represent combinations of the standard language of Zimbabwe and English as a second language.

⁹ Quite often, the feeling of awe dedicated to supernatural beings has imposed certain prohibitions related to the utterance of their names. The Jewish people were never allowed to address God directly; we have noticed a similar situation in English in which people use the expression *Lord*, as well as in French, where the word *Seigneur* is used. There are many euphemistic expressions related to *death* and *sickness*, therefore words such as *disease* and *undertaker* show that these changes became closely related to the very forbidden tabooed idea, having lost their euphemistic value and being exposed to immediate replacement in order to mitigate the impression of discomfort they convey (Gareearts 2009).

displays her principle of contrast, stating that “every two forms contrast in meaning”, supporting the previous contention related to the natural elimination of absolute synonymy in languages.

Therefore, words are rather close in meaning, similar but not identical, not completely interchangeable varying in their nuances of denotation, connotation, implication, emphasis or register (DiMarco, Hirst and Stede 1993). These words are called near-synonyms (or plesionyms).¹⁰

Cruse (1986) differentiates cognitive synonyms and plesionyms; cognitive synonyms are words that, when inter-substituted in a sentence, preserve its truth conditions but may change the expressive meaning, style or register of the sentence (e.g., *violin : fiddle; misty : foggy*) (Edmonds and Hirst 2002: 115-116).

However, Edmonds and Hirst (2002) oppose to such coarse-grained definitions of plesyonisms and cognitive synonyms, claiming that definitions of near-synonymy that do not take granularity into account are insufficient.¹¹

Murphy states that synonymy and similarity are firstly described from the author's meta-lexical perspective, thus being considered "a relation between our conceptualizations of words, rather than between their lexical entries [in the mental lexicon]" (Murphy 2004:134). She claims a synonym ensemble "includes only word-concepts that have all the same contextually relevant properties, but differ in form" (Murphy, 2004: 134).

Though collocations can often be unexpected, they are of the utmost importance regarding the lexical structure of the language and therefore they tend to be recurrent. Sinclair (1991: 170) defined collocations as “thoccurrence of two or more words within a short space of each other in a text” and suggested a span of four to five words on either side of the node (Sinclair 1968: 105-6).¹²

¹⁰ Cruse 1986.

¹¹ Having taken granularity into account, we can create a much more useful definition of near-synonymy, because we can now characterize the difference between **essential** and **peripheral** aspects of meaning (Edmonds and Hirst 2002: 117).

¹² Sinclair advocated a *statistically oriented approach* in the mid 1960s, as he was the first to regard computer-based corpora as a very useful tool for analysing collocations (Sinclair 1966. 428). He he considered that the "patterns perceived by a trained linguist examining a text are unreliable and usually extremely tentative" (Sinclair 1966: 413).

Consequently, a great number of synonymy analyses are context-dependent, being focused on collecting data on contextual factors that substantially differentiate semantic nuances among words sharing a similar denotation, as well as on objective factors that determine which word within a group is selected for a certain context. This line of scientific research represents a complete reversal of the traditional introspective approach and such concepts as the synonymy span of use (Zgusta 1971).

4. Methodology and goals

The methodological diversity of this approach features the use of the collocational method (Hlebec 2008; Hlebec 2012), followed by a componential analysis of the collocates of the extracted descriptive adjectives' and, then, as the final step of the research, applying contrastive analysis. The very process of contrasting (or analysing) presupposes the comparison of nominal collocates of descriptive adjectives, not the comparison of descriptive adjectives in isolation.

This approach is, though only partially¹³, in accordance with the collocational method originally applied by Hlebec (2011). Hlebec (2011: 122) elaborates the specificity of the collocational approach through the analysis of the descriptive adjective *wild* (Hlebec 2008; Hlebec 2012).

As one of the precursors of the collocational approach to semantic word analysis, Palmer (1976: 76) quotes Firth, who claims: "you shall know the word by the company it keeps"¹⁴ emphasizing the importance of the collocational framework to word analysis.

The aim of our research is to show the dominant presence of the idiomatic meaning of the contrasted descriptive adjectives and their near synonyms in English and Montenegrin. Furthermore, it is expected that the collocational framework of

¹³ We have to emphasize that there are certain differences regarding the collocational method we have devised for the purposes of this paper compared to the collocational method originally presented by Hlebec. Namely, in his collocational method, Hlebec insists on an exhaustive polysemantic account of the lexeme analysed whereas we have focused only on the most frequent collocational framework of the lexeme which, to a certain extent, restricts the number of possible meanings of the lexeme under analysis. However, the range of this analysis was bound to be confined to certain limits as such.

¹⁴ Firth (1957: 11).

the adjective *hrabar*, -a, -o in Montenegrin will change with the grammatical gender implied (masculine, feminine, neutral), as the sequence of its near synonyms will change, too. Consequently, we claim that there are inflectional selectional differences among synonyms in a morphologically rich language such as Montenegrin. On the other hand, our results show that the same changes do not occur within the analysis applied to the English language, due to its lack of grammatical gender.

In the long term, we expect that the results of the analysis will shed light on grammatical gender in Montenegrin as an influential generator of the extensions of meaning.

5. Analysis of descriptive adjective and their near synonyms in Serbian. The descriptive adjective *hrabar*-a,-o

The following four synonyms can be considered to be the near synonyms of the descriptive adjective *hrabar*: *herojski*, *odvažan*, *smion*, *junački*, after having analyzed the first ten synonyms (extracted from the dictionary of synonyms: *Rečnik sinonima*, Pavle Ćosić i saradnici (2008:293)) through their co-occurrences within the most frequent nominal collocations of the node word *hrabar*.

Table 1 Near-synonymy samples of the adjective *hrabar*. The most frequent four collocates of the descriptive adjective *hrabar* analysed on the corpus data of the Contemporary Serbian language of the Faculty of Mathematics in Belgrade.

<i>HRABAR</i>	<i>Potez</i>	<i>Čovjek</i>	<i>Korak</i>	<i>Čin</i>	<i>TOTAL</i>
Concordance no. of collocates analysed on the corpus data of <i>Google Search</i> (pages from Montenegro)	27300	16200	11600	11000	66100
<i>Near-synonymy samples of the adjective hrabar</i>					
<i>Herojski</i>	934	36	100	39800	40870
<i>Odvažan</i>	10800	3	/	/	10803
<i>Smion</i>	193	9	/	/	202
<i>Junački</i>	2	/	/	/	2

At the second stage of the research, frequency analysis of the four¹⁵ most recurrent collocates of the adjective *hrabar*

¹⁵ Sun, Huang & Liu (2011) in their near synonymy analysis point out that it is enough to extract four collocations in order to avoid all existent collocations'

(~*potez*, ~*čovjek*, ~*korak*, ~*čin*) En. (~*move*, ~*man*, ~*step*, ~*act*)¹⁶ was carried out within the collocational framework of the suggested near synonyms (*herojska*, *odvažna*, *smiona*, *junački*) (see table 1). Having examined the results, we can conclude that the near synonyms of the adjective *hrabar* are: *herojski* (40870), *odvažan* (10803), *smion* (202), *junački* (2) (www.google.com, *pages from Montenegro, taken on December 02, 2015*¹⁷). The semantic component of the seme *hrabar* is *having no fear*. One nominal collocate has a concrete meaning (~*čovjek*) whereas the other three nominal collocates bear an idiomatic meaning (~*potez*, ~*korak*, ~*čin*).

analysis entirely. Consequently, we have decided to restrict the analysis to four most frequent collocations, thus trying to get as valid results as possible.

¹⁶ Piits (2010) confirms the hypothesis that the existence of mutual collocations of the selected node words implies the following semantic relations: synonymy, antonymy, hyperonymy. Using the Estonian language corpus analysis, they collected the 30 most frequent word left and right from the node word by applying the WordSmith Tools programme. Hence, we have analysed collocations right from the node word as we focused on descriptive adjective analysis.

¹⁷ A great number of researchers have used the internet as a corpus of analysis. Inkpen (2004) used the internet as a corpus when devising the statistical model for near synonymy choice. Grefenstette (1999) used the web for machine translation analysis; Kilgariff (2001) analysed different noises by using web data; Mihalcea and Moldovan (1999) as well as Agirre and Martinez (2000) used the web as an additional source for analysing nuances in meaning among different words; Resnik (1999) used the web for bilingual texts' analysis. Keller and Lapata (2003) showed that web data are aligned with other relevant corpus data. For our research we needed to use the web corpus in order to compare the results from the web to the results from the corpus of Contemporary Serbian language, Faculty of Mathematics, University of Belgrade.

Table 2 Near-synonymy samples of the adjective *hrabra*. The most frequent four collocates of the descriptive adjective *hrabra* analysed on the corpus data of the Contemporary Serbian language of the Faculty of Mathematics in Belgrade.

HRABRA	Žena	Odluka	Djevojka	Igra	TOTAL
Concordance no. of collocates analysed on the corpus data of <i>Google Search</i> (pages from Montenegro)	23600	11400	6720	5640	47360
Near-synonymy samples of the adjective <i>hrabra</i>					
Herojska	368	235	1	1420	2024
Odvažna	1600	189	921	9	2719
Smiona	120	272	123	78	593
Junačka	58	118	29	1140	1345

The third stage of the research includes frequency analysis of the four most recurrent collocates of the adjective *hrabra* (~žena, ~odluka, ~djevojka, ~igra); En. ~woman, ~decision, ~girl, ~game) within the collocational framework of the suggested near synonyms (*herojska*, *odvažna*, *smiona*, *junačka*) (see table 2). The results of the analysis suggest that the near synonyms of the adjective *hrabra* are: *odvažna* (2719), *herojska* (2024), *junačka* (1345), *smiona* (593) (www.google.com, pages from Montenegro, taken on December 02, 2015). The mutual semantic content of the seme *hrabra* would be *bold*, *fearless* (Table 2). Two nominal collocates have a concrete meaning (~woman, ~girl), and the remaining two collocates have an idiomatic meaning (~decision, ~game).

Table 3 Near-synonymy samples of the adjective *hrabro*. The most frequent four collocates of the descriptive adjective *hrabro* analysed on the corpus data of the Contemporary Serbian language of the Faculty of Mathematics in Belgrade.

HRABRO	Srce	Suočavanje	Novinarstvo	Svjedočanstvo	TOTAL
Concordance no. of collocates analysed on the corpus data of <i>Google Search</i> (pages from Montenegro)	18900	746	565	370	190681

<i>Near-synonymy samples of the adjective hrabro</i>					
Herojsko	1610	/	1	334	1945
Odvažno	154	8	21	81	265
Smiono	2680	5	1	/	2687
Junačko	6620	4	4	4	6632

The final stage of the research involves frequency analysis of the four most recurrent collocates of the adjective *hrabro* (~*srce*, ~*suočavanje*, ~*novinarstvo*, ~*svjedočanstvo*); (En.~*heart*, ~*coping*, ~*journalism*, ~*testimony*) within the collocational framework of the suggested near synonyms (*herojsko*, *odvažno*, *smiono*, *junačko*) (see table 3). The results of the analysis suggest that the near synonyms of the adjective *hrabro* are: *junačko* (6632), *smiono* (2687), *herojsko* (1945), *odvažno* (265) (www.google.com, pages from Montenegro, taken on December 02, 2015). The overall semantic content of the seme *hrabro* would be *bold* and *fearless* (table 3). All nominal collocates have an idiomatic meaning.

5.1. Analysis of the descriptive adjective *brave* in English

A frequency analysis of the four most recurrent collocates of the adjective *brave* (~*man*, ~*face*, ~*attempt*, ~*fight*) was carried out within the collocational framework of the suggested near synonyms (*courageous*, *bold*, *fearless*, *dauntless*) (see table 4). The results of the analysis suggest that the near synonyms of the adjective *brave* are: *courageous* (90), *bold* (73) and *fearless* (18), (www.WordBanksOnline:English, taken on December 2, 2015).

Table 4 Near-synonymy samples of the adjective *brave*. The most frequent four collocates of the descriptive adjective *pale* analysed on the corpus data of following website: www.justtheword.com

BRAVE	Man	Face	Attempt	Fight	TOTAL
Concordance no. of collocates analysed on the corpus data of <i>Word Banks online: English</i>	553	523	64	40	1180
<i>Near-synonymy samples of the adjective brave</i>					
Courageous	70	1	9	10	90
Bold	18	17	38	/	73
Fearless	14	1	1	2	18
Dauntless	/	/	/	/	/

5.1. Componential analysis

Further research comprises of the componential analysis of the descriptive adjective *hrabar,-a,-o* and its near synonyms *herojski,-a,-o*, *junački,-a,-o*, *odvažan,-a,-o*, *smion,-a,-o*. Throughout this analysis we intend to distinguish the semantic features of the abovementioned adjective and its near synonyms, which is why we have analyzed them in the selected collocational framework (the most frequent collocates of the adjective *hrabar,-a,-o* are as follows: ~*potez*, ~*čovjek*, ~*korak*, ~*čin*, ~*žena*, ~*odluka*, ~*djevojka*, ~*igra*, ~*srce*, ~*suočavanje*, ~*novinarstvo*, ~*svjedočanstvo*; En. (~*move*, ~*man*, ~*step*, ~*act*, ~*woman*, ~*decision*, ~*girl*, ~*game*, ~*heart*, ~*coping*, ~*journalism*, ~*testimony*)

Componential analysis includes the descriptive adjective *brave*, as well as its near synonyms: *courageous*, *bold*, *fearless*, *dauntless*. The descriptive adjective *brave* and its near synonyms have been analyzed in the collocational framework of the adjective *brave* (~*man*, ~*face*, ~*attempt*, ~*fight*).

5.2. Contrastive analysis

In the process of contrastive analysis application we have undertaken a comparison of the semantic features of the adjective *hrabar,-a,-o* and its near synonyms (*herojski,-a,-o*, *junački,-a,-o*, *odvažan,-a,-o*, *smion,-a,-o*) according to the frequency of their most recurrent collocates: ~*potez*, ~*čovjek*, ~*korak*, ~*čin*, ~*žena*, ~*odluka*, ~*djevojka*, ~*igra*, ~*srce*, ~*suočavanje*, ~*novinarstvo*, ~*svjedočanstvo*.

The most frequent semantic features of the adjective *hrabar,-a,-o* in Montenegrin and the adjective *brave* in English, as well as their near synonyms analyzed in the range of their most frequent collocates, are:

a) the most frequent semantic components of the adjective *hrabar* and its near synonyms (*herojski*, *odvažan*, *smion*, *junački*) analysed in the following collocational framework (~*move*, ~*man*, ~*step*, ~*act*).

[+MALE±ANIMATE±ADULT]
[+KURAŽAN] 7: Eng. [+BOLD] 7
[+NEPOKOLEBLJIV] 4: Eng. [+RESOLUTE] 4
[+VITEŠKI] 4: Eng. [+CHIVALROUS] 4

b) the most frequent semantic components of the adjective *hrabra* and its near synonyms (*herojska, odvažna, smiona, junačka*) analysed within the given collocational framework *~žena, ~odluka, ~djevojka, ~igra*):

[-MALE±ANIMATE±ADULT]
[+SRČANA] 8: Eng. [+STOUT-HEARTED] 8
[+KURAŽNA] 5: Eng. [+BOLD] 5
[+NEUSTRAŠIVA] 5: Eng. [+FEARLESS] 5

c) the most frequent semantic components of the adjective *hrabro* and its near synonyms (*herojsko, odvažno, smiono, junačko*) analysed in the range of the following collocates (*~srce, ~suočavanje, ~novinarstvo, ~svjedočanstvo*):

[±MALE±ANIMATE±ADULT]
[+NEUSTRAŠIVO] 10: Eng. [+FEARLESS] 10
[+NEPOKOLEBLJIVO] 5: Eng. [+RESOLUTE] 5
[+VITEŠKO] 4: Eng. [+CHIVALROUS] 4

d) the most frequent semantic components of the adjective *brave* and its near synonyms (*courageous, bold, fearless, dauntless*) analyzed in the following collocational framework (*~man, ~face, ~attempt, ~fight*):

[-MALE±ANIMATE±ADULT]
[+MUŠKO±ŽIVO±ODRASLO]
[+NEUSTRAŠIV] 8: Eng. [+FEARLESS] 8
[+SRČAN] 6: Eng. [+STOUT-HEARTED] 6
[+NEPOKOLEBLJIVO] 4: Eng. [+RESOLUTE] 4

At the same time, the most frequent semantic components of the adjective *hrabar -a, -o* in Montenegrin and the adjective *brave* in English are as follows:

[-MALE±ANIMATE±ADULT]
[+FEARLESS]
[+STOUT-HEARTED]
[+RESOLUTE]

Further analysis includes the most frequent collocates of the descriptive adjective *barve* near synonyms collected from the British National Corpus (112,181,015) (table 5). Their common collocates have been written in bolded letters:

Table 5

COURAGEOUS	MAN (11)	DECISION (9)	PEOPLE (6)	EFFORT (5)
BOLD	MOVE (21)	STEP (15)	STATEMENT (16)	ATTEMPT (12)
FEARLESS	PATRIOT (2)	INVENTORY (1)	CREATIVITY (1)	HUNTER (1)
DAUNTLESS	JAVELOT (4)	CAVALRY-MAN (1)	CONVERSATION (1)	BOY (1)
BRAVE	MAN (94)	FACE (75)	WORLD (63)	ATTEMPT (29)

The common collocates of the descriptive adjective *brave* near synonyms (table 5) are:

courageous/brave man
bold/brave attempt

Out of the most frequent collocates of the descriptive adjective *pale* and its near synonyms, the following ones have a transferred meaning (table 5):

courageous decision/effort
bold move/step/statement/attempt
fearless inventory/creativity
dauntless conversation
brave face/world/attempt

Similar analysis has been carried out regarding the most frequent collocates of the near synonym *hrabar-a,-o* (*herojski,-a,-o*, *junački,-a,-o odvažan,-a,-o*, *smion,-a,-o*) endorsing the corpus data of the Contemporary Serbian language, Faculty of Mathematics, University of Belgrade (113,000,000) (table 6).

Table 6

HEROJSKI	OTPOR (24)	NAROD (11)	ČIN (9)	PODUHVAT (5)
JUNAČKI	PODVIG (3)	OTPOR (2)	ČIN (2)	POKLIČ (2)
ODVAŽAN	ČOVJEK (3)	PODUHVAT (3)	MOMAK (2)	VOJSKOVOĐA (2)
SMION	/	/	/	/
HRABAR	ČOVJEK (39)	POTEZ (38)	KORAK (13)	ČIN (13)
HEROJSKA	DJELA (9)	BORBA (9)	ODBRANA (8)	POBJEDA (4)
JUNAČKA	DJELA (10)	KRV (3)	SMRT (3)	PJESMA (2)
ODVAŽNA	DAMA (2)	DJEVOJKA (1)	TINEJ- DŽERKA (1)	STARICA (1)
SMJELA	/	/	/	/
HRABRA	ŽENA (21)	ODLUKA (12)	DJEVOJKA (11)	IGRA (5)
HEROJSKO	DJELO (12)	DOBA (10)	VRIJEME (2)	SAMOŽRTVO- VANJE (5)
JUNAČKO	DJELO (12)	DRŽANJE (10)	ZDRAVLJE (7)	SRCE (4)
ODVAŽNO	DJELO (2)	ZAUZIMANJE (1)	SUČELJA- VANJE (1)	SRCE (1)
SMJELO	/	/	/	/
HRABRO	SRCE (30)	SUOČAVANJE (2)	NOVINARSTV O (1)	SVJEDO- ČANSVO (1)

The common collocates of the descriptive adjective *hrabar,-a,-o* near synonyms are (table 6):

*herojski/junački otpor*¹⁸
*herojski/junački čin*¹⁹
*odvažan/hrabar čovjek*²⁰
*herojska/junačka djela*²¹
*odvažna/hrabra djevojka*²²
*herojsko/junačko/odvažno djelo*²³

¹⁸ *heroic/resistance*

¹⁹ *heroic act*

²⁰ *bold/brave man*

²¹ *heroic feats*

²² *bold/brave girl*

²³ *heroic/bold feat*

*odvažno/hrabro srce*²⁴

Among the most frequent collocates, the following ones have transferred meaning: (30) (see table 6):

*herojski otpor/čin/poduhvat*²⁵

*junački otpor/čin/poklič*²⁶

*odvažan poduhvat*²⁷

*hrabar potez/korak/čin*²⁸

*herojska djela/borba/odbrana/pobjeda*²⁹

*hrabra odluka/igra*³⁰

*junačka krv/smrt*³¹

*herojsko djelo/doba/vrijeme/samožrtvovanje*³²

*junačko djelo/držanje/zdravlje/srce*³³

*odvažno djelo/zauzimanje/sučeljavanje/srce*³⁴

*hrabro srce/suočavanje/novinarstvo/svjedočanstvo*³⁵

The stated samples of collocates indicate a metaphorical³⁶ and metonymic meaning extension³⁷ of the adjective *hrabar,-a,-o*

²⁴ *bold/brave heart*

²⁵ *heroic resistance/act/attempt*

²⁶ *heroic resistance/act/cry*

²⁷ *bold attempt*

²⁸ *brave move/step/act*

²⁹ *heroic deeds/battle/defense/victory*

³⁰ *brave decision/game*

³¹ *heroic blood/death*

³² *heroic deed/age/time/self-immolation*

³³ *heroic deed/attitude/health/heart*

³⁴ *bold deed/commitment/confrotation/heart*

³⁵ *brave heart/coping/journalism/testimony*

³⁶ Metaphor and metonymy are significant sources of extension of meaning. (Szathmári 2001).

³⁷ Metaphorical extensions of meaning have been researched by Persson (1989) in his analysis of differences in meaning between the near synonyms *deep* and *profound*. It has been concluded that these adjectives have different meaning when analysed in different collocational frameworks. *Deep* collocates with the words expressing affection, conviction, feelings, sorrow, satisfaction, regrets and the like, whereas *profound* collocates with the words expressing distaste, failure, influence and so on. Bearing in mind their metaphorical meaning, they may imply either position on one hand or depth on the other. Only *deep* contains the metaphor of position, while depth can be expressed by both terms.

and its near synonyms when analysed in the most frequent collocational framework.

6. Conclusions

The interdisciplinary approach to the research presented in this paper incorporates the collocational method (Hlebec 2008; Hlebec 2012), as well as componential analysis of the extracted collocates of the adjectives and the semantic content of their near synonyms in the English and Montenegrin languages.

The first significant result of the method concerns the specific method of selecting near synonyms. The following valid result of the analysis highlights the influence of the grammatical gender (male, female, neutral) on the various most frequent collocates of the analysed descriptive adjective, when seen from the perspective of each gender.

For example:

hrabar: *potez* (27300); *čovjek* (16200); *korak* (11600); *čin* (11000) (table 1)

hrabra: *žena* (23600); *odluka* (11400); *djevojka* (6720); *igra* (5640) (table 2)

hrabro: *srce* (18900); *suočavanje* (746); *novinarstvo* (565); *svjedočanstvo* (370) (table 3)

Besides the influence of most frequent collocational framework of the adjective on the choice of its near synonyms, we found out that this interrelation depends on the adjective's grammatical gender and also on the choice of near synonym, especially regarding the near synonyms proximity-of-meaning order.

Namely, we discovered that this proximity-of-meaning order of near synonyms varies with the gender implied (masculine, feminine, neutral), for example:

- Near synonyms of the adjective *hrabar* are: *herojski* (*herojski* (40870), *odvažan* (10803), *smion* (202), *junački* (2)
- Near synonyms of the adjective *hrabra* are *odvažna* (2719), *herojska* (2024), *junačka* (1345), *smiona* (593)
- Near synonyms of the adjective *hrabro* are: *junačko* (6632), *smjelo* (2687), *herojsko* (1945), *odvažno* (265)

The same interrelation between the word order of near proximity-of-meaning synonyms and grammatical gender is not

noticeably present in the English language, presumably because grammatical gender does not exist in English.

The research results indicate that certain traits featuring human beings are characteristic for certain concrete and abstract words in English as well as in Montenegrin, respectively.³⁸

Bearing in mind the results of the analysis, indicating a multi-layered morphological features of the adjective *hrabar-a,-o* in Montenegrin and the obvious extension of meaning of the samples analyzed we can finally conclude, thus confirming the starting hypothesis, that grammatical gender generates extension of meaning in Montenegrin to a greater extent (12) compared to analysis of its counterpart in English (4), due to the lack of grammatical gender in English.

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³⁸ According to Apresian (1995) one of the most productive ways of creating synonyms comes out of *secondary meanings of lexemes*, i.e. their metaphorical and metonymic meanings. The secondary meaning of a lexeme can be synonymous with a primary or a secondary meaning of another lexeme (lexemes *zlato(gold)* and *anđeo (angel)* can be contextual synonyms if in their secondary meanings they denote and refer to *dete (child)* (Dragičević 2010).

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Diana Prodanović Stankić¹

Received 2 June 2017
Reviewed 24 June 2017
Accepted 24 June 2017
UDC 811.163.4'25=811.111

HANDLING THE TEXT IN TRANSLATOR EDUCATION FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF COGNITIVE TRANSLATOLOGY: A CASE STUDY

Abstract: *The aim of this paper is to report on the findings of a pilot case study that was done in order to shed more light on the application of cognitive linguistic approaches to translation studies and translation pedagogy. The study aims to identify the extent to which cognitive construal operations such as categorizing according to the prototype effects, and figure-ground reversal may be used in problem solving and decision making tasks related to meaning construction and translating the given texts. It is hypothesized that collaborative-based approach motivates students more to discuss and make use of the abovementioned cognitive construals when aiming at semantic precision in handling the texts. The results of the study indicate a decrease in errors related to word choice in the translated texts.*

Keywords: *translation, cognitive translatology, translator training, translating from Serbian into English*

Introduction

The main aim of this paper is to present the results of a pilot case study that was done in order to shed more light on cognitive linguistic approaches to translation studies, or cognitive translatology (Muñoz Martín, 2010: 145ff). The underlying motivation behind the study was the attempt to bridge the significant gap that exists in the theoretical and practical domains of cognitive translatology on the one hand and translator education on the other. As much as cognitive linguistic approaches to translation studies have been gaining ground recently (Malmkjær 2000, Risku 2010, 2013, Shreve and Angelone 2010, Shreve et al. 2010), this specific field of study is still in need of more empirical research in order to support some of the hypotheses argued for in theoretical accounts.

Cognitive approaches to translation have brought about a major shift not only in the object of study itself but in

¹ Assistant Professor, University of Novi Sad, Serbia.

methodology as well. The radical change in the approach aimed at explaining the mind's hidden complexities as advocated by cognitive linguists (cf. Fauconnier and Turner 2002, Geeraerts and Cuyckens 2007) has resulted in turning the attention to the translator's mind and not only to the end result of the translation process. Hence, as Risku has it "the main goal of cognitive approaches to translation is to explain the development and workings of the mental processes that make complex cognitive behaviour like translation possible" (2013: 1). In that sense, some of the pertinent questions related to the understanding of translation in terms of cognitive approaches to this field are closely related to the construction of meaning, identification of translation problems, problem solving and decision making tasks, and many more, including the applied research in the field of translation pedagogy and machine translation. In that context the understanding of cognition and the relevant aspects related to the process of translation are closely interrelated.

Translation studies (cf. Baker and Saldanha, 2009; Munday 2016) encompass different theories and approaches that aim at accounting for a formal description and application of translation, as well as the problems related to the process and product of translation. An overview of this field is beyond the scope of this paper (cf. Koller 1978, Venuti 1995, Nord 1997), however, as Tabakowska argues, the main problem that the translation studies have had to solve was the question of equivalence (1993: 2), or to use Snell-Hornby's term "the illusion of equivalence" (2006: 17ff). The concept of equivalence, as well as the peculiarities of a specific genre, divided the translation studies into two broad categories, those of literary and linguistic orientation. Without going into details regarding these two, it should be mentioned that this division as well as the given theoretical frameworks have had huge implications on the pedagogy of translation and translator training, in particular at university level. The development of this interdisciplinary approach will lead to the development of didactic methods that can support learning and teaching strategies related to increasing translation competences. The practical aspects of dealing with the process of rendering the equivalence at word level (in terms of Baker (1992: 10ff)) may be solved with the application of the findings of cognitive linguistics, which was the underlying idea behind this paper.

Translator Education

Translator education has undergone many changes in the last decades in order to cater for the needs of the job market and prospective employers in the sense that teachers rethink their approaches in order to develop specific competences of their students in order to prepare them better for the harsh reality of the job market and real-life translation business. Yet, much of the translator education is still “deeply embedded in the transmissionists tradition”, as Kiraly (2000: 23) notes. That tradition implies a teacher-centred approach in which the key didactic method is filling in the gaps in students’ knowledge and providing the final “correct” version of the translated text by the teacher. The teacher selects the texts, students do their assignments as part of their homework and in class they discuss possible correct versions of the translated text. Even though it is not easy to get reliable data from the prospective employers, Kiraly lists the following as the main competence gaps in translator education (2005: 1009):

- a) narrow exposure to culture;
- b) lack of practical training;
- c) difficulty in working independently;
- d) too theoretical approach of the university training.

Another problematic issue related to teaching translation courses is related to teaching L2 translation. As Pavlović highlights, in spite of the so-called “Golden Rule“, which imposes translating only in one's first language (cf. Newmark 1988), translation into the second language (L2 translation) is a fact of life in settings involving languages of ‘limited diffusion’ (2010: 63). In the Serbian setting, the same situation applies: in practice the need exists for both combinations of languages, which results in extensive training in L2 translation at the university-level education in Serbia.

Additionally, in reference to L2 translation research and pedagogy, it has to be mentioned that the motivation for teaching such courses is in the first place related to increasing students’ competences in the domain of translating, but also increasing their awareness of the interaction among languages as well as the contrastive and contact linguistic aspects of this interaction. This is even more pronounced in the multicultural and multilingual environment of the University of Novi Sad, in which more than

ten languages are spoken and officially used in public communication. Following Cook (2010), but other researchers as well (Koletnik 2015, Liao 2016), translation is on the one hand taught as a specific skill on its own, and on the other, it complements language courses, such as *Integrated Language Skills* in this specific case.

As much as the benefits of applying cognitive linguistics to the field of language pedagogy have been supported by a plethora of empirical studies (Boers and Lindstromberg, 2008, Juchem-Grundmann, 2010), it has to be mentioned that there are not enough studies that explore the implementation of cognitive construals (Croft and Cruse, 2004) in translation education. Few research was done in the domain of conceptual metaphors and the way they can be rendered in translation (Schäffner 2004, Maalej, 2008, Monti 2009, Izgarjan and Prodanović Stankić 2015), however, other construals and their reflections in translated texts have not been explored enough.

In this case, the focus of attention is on semantic precision achieved through finding the most appropriate equivalent at the word level, which turns out to be one of the most frequent errors students make while translating either from or into L1. At the same time, it seems that students do not have problems with semantic precision when trying to express their ideas in spoken or written form, especially since most of them are confident and fluent users of English as a Foreign Language (EFL). This problem becomes more noticeable when two languages are contrasted and when the students are exposed to more demanding tasks in the cognitive sense (for example, trying to control the interference of L1 while translating in or from L2).

In this study, the initial premise is based on the work of Risku (2002), specifically the 'situated cognition' perspective, that draws on a dynamic, situationally embedded view of mental processing, focusing on social, physical and emotional phenomena that are not limited by macro- and micro-strategies of the individual mind. (Risku 2002). In other words, as Kiraly (2005: 1102) argues, translation is always "undertaken within a particular physical and social setting and interactional framework, with the translator working together with other actors, and with cultural, technical, documentary and linguistic tools and resources to design and create a text, that is, to 'textualize' a new situation". In that way the translator is no

longer involved in mere transcoding of texts, but rather, while handling the text he/she is to translate, manages the whole communicative situation constructing the appropriate meaning of the source text (ST) and producing the equivalent function and meaning in the target text (TT).

Construal operations

In this paper it will be drawn on Cruse and Croft's taxonomy of linguistic construal operations as instances of general cognitive processes (2004: 46ff). In their list, Cruse and Croft list categorization (according to prototype effects), figure ground reversals and metaphor as subcategories of one of the main cognitive mechanisms: judgment and comparisons. As much as this cognitive mechanism represents a universal feature of human cognition, used in any instance of cognitive operation, when it comes to the instances of reflections of this mechanism on the linguistic level, it seems that translating is an activity in which it is clearly outlined. During the very process of translating, the translator constantly makes judgements and compares and contrast linguistic structures and cultural elements, as well as the effects and functions of the two texts, which has been proved by many studies based on Think Aloud Protocols (TAP) in the field of translation studies (Kusmaul, Tirkkonen-Condit 1995, Bernardini 2001, Pavlović 2009).

Leaving aside metaphor in this context, as a separate topic for research, the attention will be shifted here to categorization and figure ground relations. These operations turned out to be quite significant in the process of problem solving and decision making during the construction of meaning, both when it comes to constructing the meaning of the ST and rendering the appropriate meaning in the TT. If we start from one of the basic tenets of cognitive linguistics, which is the argument that we follow categorizing according to prototype effects while storing the new and old concepts and domains of experience in our minds (Lakoff 1987), then it is more than helpful to employ this principle while learning and memorizing new vocabulary in any language. In fact, this is an approach that is followed in most of the EFL teaching pedagogies, which can be noticed in many teaching materials. For example, language items are organized according to certain schemas and scenarios, lexical fields are taught following the prototype structure, collocations are defined

as the best and most frequent combination of two lexemes, etc. As much as these principles are observed by either acquiring or learning a language, this is not an approach that is widely employed while contrasting the languages in terms of translator education.

The same applies to using the principles of figure ground relation in teaching, in particular spatial relations in a language. This principle was first described in Gestalt psychology, and then later on applied in cognitive semantics and cognitive grammar (Talmy 2000). Basically, this principle is used to explain spatial relations such as location and motion by specifying the position of one object (the figure) in relation to another (the ground). For example: *The star* [figure] *is in the sky* [ground]. The implications of this principle are highly relevant in contrastive linguistic studies, as different languages may use different (or the same) linguistic structures to express this kind of relation. For example, using the abovementioned example, to illustrate the point, it should be stressed that in Serbian, there is a different conceptualization of the ground, which is 'the sky' (Serb. *nebo* in this case), conceptualized more like an open plain by the speakers of Serbian, hence, in Serbian the proposition 'on' is used to express the same spatial relation: *Zvezda je na nebu*. (The star is ON the sky). Thus, focusing on the differences in conceptualizations behind the linguistic realizations of these mental processes in the respective languages might be useful in enhancing students capacities for learning these differences in various aspects of language use, (for example, use of prepositions in English and Serbian), which is particularly relevant for translation.

Methodology

Setting

The case study was carried out in the academic year 2016-2017 at the University of Novi Sad, Faculty of Philosophy, Department of English Studies in the courses *Integrated Language Skills 3 and 4*. The total of 53 (N=53) second-year students participated in the study. Out of this number, there were 4 (N=4) students whose mother tongue was not Serbian, as was the case with the rest of the students (N=48), but Hungarian. Nevertheless, due to specific requirements related to the study

programme, all the students had to participate in the study. These four students have near-native fluency in Serbian, acquired after the primary and secondary school education in Serbian and by living and studying in this particular environment. *Integrated Language Skills* 3 and 4 are obligatory one semester courses that comprise four classes a week of practicing both receptive and productive language skills using an integrated communicative approach and one class of translation from Serbian (L1) into English (L2). These specific requirements are part of the accredited study programme. At the beginning of the course, the majority of students are at B2-C1 level of the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR) and the overall aim is to reach C1-C2 level at the end of the academic year, in all respective skills. In addition to this, this is the first time the students do translation from L1 to L2, and they also have an additional translation course, translating from L2 to L1, which is taught separately.

Research aims

The following aims were outlined in reference to this research:

1. to examine the effects of using theoretical and practical aspects of cognitive operations in teaching translation at the level of language acquisition, specifically in aspects of contrastive and contact text analysis;
2. to determine the effects of using the collaborative task-based approach to handling the potential vocabulary-related problems in the process of translating texts from L2 to L1, in particular in terms of problem solving and decision making;
3. to suggest some theoretical implications for cognitive translatology and translator education.

Data collection

In order to collect the data for this research, a pilot case study was designed so as to incorporate the research aims and test the hypothesis. Both a quantitative and qualitative analysis was done. Quantitative analysis was based on analysing the results of two tests, using simple statistical methods and percentage share. Qualitative analysis was based on analysing students' perception by the means of analysing their responses on open- and close-ended questionnaire.

As it was already mentioned, the study was carried out during the courses *Integrated Language Skills 3 (ILS3)* and *4 (ILS4)*. As these courses are obligatory and last one semester each, in the first semester, during *ILS*, the standard traditional approach to teaching translation was used. That implied focusing on introducing the basic concepts of translation theory, text analysis and dealing with (non)equivalence at lexical and grammatical level. While focusing on semantic precision and dealing with lexical equivalence of different kinds, vocabulary was discussed using standard second language acquisition methodology (cf. Carter et al. 1988, Coady and Huckin 1997). Most of the class and home translations were done individually. The course was followed by Test 1 in which students had to translate the given excerpt (180 words) from the text “Bicikl” (“The Bicycle”) by David Albahari from Serbian into English. The particular text was quite similar to the texts that were assigned to be translated either in class or at home, and it contained the typical translation problems that were discussed and dealt with during class activities. Test 1 was designed as a control test in this study.

In the summer semester, during the course *ILS 4*, a different procedure was followed in teaching. First of all, in the sense of contrasting lexical structures and vocabulary expansion, a cognitive approach was adopted. That implied introducing the students with basic tenets of cognitive linguistics and adopting the cognitive perspective while doing text analysis and comparing and contrasting lexical structures. Also, students were encouraged to work in pairs, as it was corroborated by some studies (cf. Kiraly 2005, Pavlović 2010) that collaborative educational experience had a positive impact on both the learning and translation process. At the end of semester students had to evaluate the approach by filling in a given questionnaire. The great majority of them found the collaborative approach to translating to some extent challenging, as they were not used to discussing different options and finding solutions together with their colleagues. However, once they overcame the initial resistance, they claimed that this approach was beneficial as it empowered them and enabled them to assess their own way of thinking in a different way. Also, discussing text-related problems with their colleagues allowed them to invest much more time in the whole process.

At the end of the semester, Test 2 was done under the same conditions as Test 1: the students had 90 minutes to translate the text; they had mono- and bilingual dictionaries at their disposal, as well as dictionaries of synonyms, collocations and idioms. Test 2 was another excerpt (183 words) from the same short story “Bicycle” written by David Albahari.

Both tests were marked using the same marking scale. In accordance with the objectives of this study, only the errors students made related to vocabulary use were recorded, and they could get either -0.5 or -1 point out of the maximum of 100 points for each vocabulary related error. In this context that implied either problems with comprehension of the ST, which was reflected in using a completely inappropriate word in the TT (-1), leaving a blank space, or a wrong lexical unit as a whole (e.g. collocation/phrase/idiom), a word that was typical of an inappropriate register (-0.5) (e.g. too informal or too formal for the given context), or a word that is semantically imprecise (-0.5) (e.g. using hyperonym for a hyponym), or misspelt (-0.5). In addition to these typically vocabulary-related errors, errors related to the wrong use of articles or word form of a noun were also penalized, as well as the wrong use of prepositions. The reason for this lies in the fact that this specific type of knowledge is closely related to construction of meaning and comprehension of the ST as well as the ability to contrast structures in Serbian and English.

The Results of the Study and Discussion

The results of the study indicate that in general, students achieved a higher level of attainment in the Test 2. The arithmetic mean of their score is 78.5 for Test 1 and 83.07 for Test 2.

Mean value	
Test 1	78.5
Test 2	83.07

Table 1 - The arithmetic mean of the results of both tests

The breakdown of these values indicates that in general, students have improved their language use in reference to word

choice. As much as this can be attributed, at least to some extent, to the fact that they have reached the end of the academic year and in general, they have been exposed to more language input and have been practising their language skills in other courses as well, it is still noticeable that guided practice has resulted in their better control over transfer and interference from one to the other language while translating. According to the comments students gave in the questionnaire, discussing with their colleagues possible problems and comparing different associative and connotative meanings evoked by a given lexeme or lexical unit directed them into being more motivated to find more appropriate solutions. This control over the whole process is mostly evident in their greater awareness of salient and associative meaning of certain lexemes which they have used purposefully in the given context to achieve higher degrees of equivalence. In Table 2 given below, the share of specific errors is given (in percentages) for each test, so that a comparison can be made as regards to students' level of attainment.

	WC	Register	Articles	Prep.
Test 1	31.1	8.4	21.5	14.5
Test 2	24.7	9.1	19.8	10.3

Table 2 –Distribution of errors in Test 1 and Test 2

As it can be seen in the table, the students that took part in the study had most difficulties with finding the most appropriate equivalent at the word level. Even though they had dictionaries at their disposal, and the source text did not contain any specific lexeme(s) that might be above their level, the students were mostly challenged by the use of the given lexeme or lexical unit in the relevant context. The second test showed that they made some progress in that respect, which can be attributed to several variables. In the first place, the change in the perspective applied to teaching and learning vocabulary allowed them to view and contemplate the question of equivalence in a different way and made them more aware of the specific similarities and differences between these two languages on the lexical level. For example, it turned out that when they could not find a specific lexical equivalent, they resorted to finding other ways, for example using grammatical structures or word formation to solve the given problem. It is interesting also that in terms of

register-based errors, students were quite consistent in making these errors. It could be noticed on tests but also during class work, that many students were actually focused most on finding the words with a specific meaning devoid of both the source text and target text context. This became even more prominent in situations in which they had to translate semi-formal, neutral or formal register, because it seems that in the second year of their studies, they still lack more formal vocabulary.

Similarly, when it comes to the intersection of meaning of the given lexical item and the structure of noun phrase in English, around one third of students had problems with using articles, in particular the indefinite article with countable nouns. Along the same lines, they struggled with word forms in many instances when they made errors with word choice. For example, typically, they would use a countable noun in singular form with a zero article, which was interference from the source text.

Furthermore, as regards the use of prepositions, in particular when it comes to fixed collocations or metaphorical uses of prepositions, the results of the study indicate that a change in the theoretical approach towards a cognitive one had a positive impact on the students' level of attainment in the test. This was mostly evident in chunks of text in which there was a distinctive difference in the use of prepositions between L1 and L2. In these instances, students typically made errors lead by the transfer from their mother tongue. This finding has been supported by some previous research into transfer from L1 to L2 in the field of second language acquisition (SLA). For instance, Towel and Hawkins (1984), or Ellis (1985) argue that transfer of L1 patterns to L2 affects all linguistic levels, in particular in situations in which the learner has to use the gained knowledge in a new context. In that sense, raising students' awareness of the existence of different collocation patterns in these two languages made them more aware to revise their knowledge related to the separate language systems or to check and find the right information in the dictionary.

Students' perception of the collaborative task approach was quite positive. They found the theoretical input rather relevant, if not a bit too theoretical. They found some tasks too demanding in that context, especially the ones that focused on developing certain lexical fields and they disliked looking up in

the dictionary and finding the distinctive semantic features of the given lexeme.

As regards the collaborative task-based approach, the majority of students found it beneficial and insightful as it helped them share their dilemmas and doubts that they found in reference to all stages of the translation process, in particular, meaning construction, detecting possible problems and discussing pros and cons of applying a specific translation strategy while translating the text. Overall, the students found the whole approach quite useful but challenging at the same time, as it required quite a lot of work on their side.

Concluding remarks

Apart from providing a systematic theoretical approach to address the most important issues in translation studies, cognitive linguistics can help in shedding more light on some specific problems. This was the main underlying idea behind this study. Understanding conceptual structure and being aware of the cognitive operations that are reflected in linguistic expressions can enable translators with better insight while trying to achieve greater equivalence in their translations. This is even more evident in case of novice translators or the students majoring in translation, as they tend to show signs of transfer and interference of one language into the other in their translated texts. Having in mind the fact that translation studies have long been a heterogeneous discipline, it is clear that cognitive approaches to it can help illuminate some pertinent issues related to different aspects of the whole process. Much needed empirical studies in this field can help in providing a deeper insight into these issues.

Since this case study was preliminary, the aim was to focus only on two cognitive construals and examine the effects which could be obtained by training the students to rethink their learning strategies related to vocabulary use in translating from L1 to L2. It goes without saying that the very process of translating into a language that is not the translators' native language is cognitively demanding per se, especially for students who have not yet reached near-native fluency in the foreign language. However, for that very reason, the attempt to relate the linguistic units with some universal cognitive mechanism should help in providing the translator with specific tools that can affect

the process of comparing and contrasting specific linguistic structures of the source and target language.

The results of this study indicate that this was indeed helpful in case of using more appropriate words in the semantic and pragmatic sense in the given context, as well as in using the right preposition in collocations. Regarding the use of words marked for a specific register or using articles, it must be mentioned that there were no significant differences that were recorded in the control and experimental test.


Nevertheless, it is quite certain that cognitive translology represents an area of study that has the potential to broaden and deepen the scope of translation studies and offer a new perspective and framework, which indeed can offer a better insight into the way translation as a skill is learned and done.

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The background is a solid purple color. It features three prominent lens flare effects, each consisting of a bright white-yellow center with radiating lines and a surrounding pinkish-purple circular glow. There are also several faint, semi-transparent circles of various sizes scattered across the page, some overlapping the lens flares.

ISSN 2336-9884