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Príspevky/Papers



The Tree as a Cognitive Model in Speech

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Abstract

In this paper, the importance of the human body as an auxiliary cognitive model is further elaborated and explored in the vocabulary of widely divergent languages. The body, with its complex internal design, often serves as a hypothetical blueprint or model for the interpretation and structuration of other conceptual domains. Alongside human or animal bodies, other analogous "bodies" exist in our surroundings. It is especially those in the realm of flora that are highly salient. The most ancient and stable lexical expression within the domain of plants is obviously that referring to trees. The chief value of the tree for the cognitive purposes of a perceptive mind lies in its impressive size and intricate articulation, perhaps distantly reminiscent of the human (or animal) body.

The focus of this study is to discuss analogies between human (animal) body and tree, which find reflections on the lexical level in quite a few languages. The merits of the tree as a model are different from those of the human (animal) body. Thus, the most significant characteristics of the tree are identified and illustrated. In this article, I further discuss a variety of functions of the tree as a link joining various spheres of the cosmos (e.g. as encoded in the Maori mythical episode of raising the sky from the earth; the function of the tree in the Promethean story of Maui, etc.) The tree also mediates between gods and people as a metaphorical angling rod (e.g. a widespread Polynesian custom in the Marquesas, Society Islands).

Key words

An auxiliary cognitive model, human and/or animal bodies, the tree as a model, cognitive purposes, lexical identity, processual characteristics, mythological

In several recent papers I tried to highlight the importance of the human (and to some extent also the animal) body as an auxiliary cognitive model (e. g. Krupa 1993 and 1995) in the vocabulary of widely divergent languages. The body (especially its outer and visible parts) incessantly enters into interaction with its surroundings, and is a major source of our elementary and fundamental knowledge. It is therefore not surprising that the body, with its complex internal design, often serves as a hypothetical blueprint or model for the interpretation and structuration of other conceptual domains, especially in those instances where functionally different and yet complementary (more important versus less important, central versus peripheral, superordinate versus subordinate) components ought to be distinguished and labelled.

Thus the human body often furnishes the background and material for constructing models of hierarchization and for internal arrangement of other conceptual domains -- whether it is space, a house or some kind of social unit. The question if personification is just a by-product in this transfer or if the communicants are aware of this connotation will remain open. After all, this may be a matter not only of the originator of a metaphor but also of the individual sensitivity and disposition of its recipients.

Alongside human or animal bodies, other analogous "bodies" exist in our surroundings. It is especially those in the realm of flora that are highly salient. The most ancient and stable lexical expression within the domain of plants is obviously that referring to trees, not those designating grass, weeds, lianas or bushes (cf. Brown 1980: 1). The chief value of the tree for the cognitive purposes of a perceptive mind lies in its impressive size and intricate articulation, perhaps distantly reminiscent of the human (or animal) body, except the former's seeming inertia behind which, however, mighty force is hidden.

Analogies between human (animal) body and tree find reflections on the lexical level in quite a few languages. For example, identical terms may be used to denote skin and bark. Thus Indonesian kulit means both human skin and tree bark (Echols -- Shadily 1963: 203)

and the same holds for Japanese kawa (Konrad 1970: I: 298). Along the same line, both hand (or arm) and branch may be assigned the same lexeme, cf. Hawaiian mana meaning both branch and limb (Pukui -- Elbert 1957: 217), just as the English lexeme trunk refers to the bulky part of both tree and human body (Hais - Hodek 1985: III: 2451) in a perfect analogy to the Maori term tumu (Williams 1957: 453). The basis of this lexical identity is obviously found in functional analogy in the case of skin/bark and trunk and in shape in the case of branch/hand. On the whole, however, the merits of the tree as a model are quite different from those of the human (animal) body.

The tree is, in addition to the human body, the most frequently employed model of a different type of the organization of its components. Thus, for example in the lexicon and oral literature, flower often symbolizes beautiful woman, cf. Indonesian bunga desa, literally the village flower, could be translated as the village beauty (Echols -- Schadily 1963: 67), Japanese shakókai no hana, literally, the flower of the fashionable society, i. e., a beauty from the good society (Konrad 1970: II: 428). Likewise, fruit may also mean child, e. g. Hawaiian and Maori hua "fruit" and "progeny" (Pukui -- Elbert 1957: 78; Williams 1957: 64).

The metaphorical usage of "tree" for cognitive purposes is widely known from literature. Wilhelm von Humboldt resorted to a botanical metaphor when he remarked that "... an individual is related to the nation as a leaf to the tree". Ranke in his turn compared mankind to a tree and Mommsen wrote that the Roman state of the imperial era is similar to a spreading tree (Demandt 1978: 107).

Archaic myths as well as metaphor-derived phraseology, and vocabulary confirm that the tree has attracted the "naive philosophers of language" (on the naive image of the world in language see Apresian 1995) in the first place thanks to the predominance of processual characteristics in its semantics, to its vital rhythm, in a word to such phenomena as growth, blooming, ripening, bringing fruits, falling of leaves, winter sleep and, at last, a seemingly miraculous rebirth. Some tree species are obviously more salient

for purposes of this kind than other trees. Among the former ones are mentioned long-lived species such as maple, larch, sycamore, oak, etc. (Tokarev 1980: 396). The causes of cyclic changes undergone by tree are not necessarily obvious, which no doubt gives them a dose of mysticism and mysterious force, besides their significance as a donor of food and raw materials for construction and handicraft.

Another significant characteristic of the tree is given by the fact that it represents an intuitive vertical link between the basic cosmic spheres. The tree sprouts from the earth which is viewed as mother in many religions of the world -- and grows toward the fatherly heaven. People live in the beneficial shadow of its crown and thanks to its fruits. Its branches reach toward heaven if not straight into it. And from this observation it is not too far to the idea that the heaven is actually supported by those branches. Birds sit and nest there, fly from them. The birds are a kind of natural mediators between earth and heaven and if we observe them from the ground, they sometimes soar to such a height that they disappear from our sight -- and who knows if they do not even visit heaven? At other opportunities they are believed to bring us messages from the higher spheres. From this idea it is not so far to the avian conception of the soul. Its home is no doubt in the heaven, at least according to many religions. And we know from the New Testament that the Holy Spirit appeared to Jesus in the shape of a dove (Matthew III, 16 but also elsewhere).

The opposite of the crown of the tree are its roots hidden in the depth and growing from the earth. The roots are inaccessible and mysterious just as the causes of so many things and that is why they so often become a rewarding subject for our contemplations and speculations. Thus the "cause" (origin or beginning) of the tree is hidden in the entrails of the earth -- earth that receives the dead, their bodies return to it and it is far from surprising that the nether world is frequently situated somewhere in the depths. The world of the living people is localized somewhere in between, below the crown and above the roots. These two spheres (above and below) are external or at least remote to humans. Here the ternary conception (division) of the world overlaps with the binary conception. The latter may be characterized as the antithesis of the upper and lower worlds. The upper world is the realm of light, the lower world is the realm of darkness. The parallel of these two worlds with the opposition of day and night is far from perfect. The day may temporarily give way to darkness and, on the other hand, night has a light of its own -- in the moon. The earth gives birth to plants and it is very easy to impute it a feminine, maternal essence. The earth which gives life, receives it back after the death. According to Maori phraseology, the dead body is put into the "belly of the earth" (*koopuu o te whenua*). The donor of life takes it back. On the contrary, the tree towers ever upwards to heaven and the light, to the sky which fertilizes the earth, being a male. Male is an escape to the heaven, being above while the earth is below. "Above" is a privileged characteristic even in the animal world, being associated with triumph, victory, majesty and power. This disengagement, however, is transient and is terminated by a return down.

The semantic domain of the tree comprises both metonymic links (tree -- birds, tree -- heaven, tree -- nether world) and metaphoric relation (tree -- male, tree -- cosmos). Probably the most ancient reference to the tree is found in the Sumerian myth of Gilgamesh. This tree (maybe a weeping willow or an oak subspecies, cf. Epos o Gilgamešovi 1997) was growing in the vicinity of the Euphrates. At the time when the sky rose above the earth, a storm uprooted the tree by the river but the

goddess Inanna carried it to Uruk, planted it again and took care of it. A snake was living in its roots and in its crown the storm bird Anzu.

In the Old Testament the tree of wisdom bore forbidden fruits (Genesis 2, 9). The symbolism of the tree is also familiar to Christianity. Christ's cross is an embodiment of the hope of salvation for mankind. In the text of a Slovak hymn the cross is metaphorized as a tree and bears fruit in the shape of the crucified Jesus: "Oh, holy cross, you sweet and precious tree bearing a splendid fruit, our dear Jesus Christ tortured for ourselves" (in Slovak: "Ach, kríž svätý, ty strom vzácny, sladký nesieš plod krásny, Jezu Krista milého, pre nás umučeného"). The fruit of this tree, Jesus Christ is a counterpoint to the perilous fruit of the paradisiacal tree. The cross of Golgotha is a means and its value resides in its fruit, i.e., in Christ, who is suffering on it. The link connecting mankind with heaven is not the cross as a tree but Christ himself.

The symbolism of the tree is rich and varied. It exists in several varieties -- as a tree of the world, of life, wisdom, etc. Its morphology consisting of a top, middle and base correlates with the morphology of the cosmos (heaven -- the world of the living -- the nether world). The plethora of other components including branches, flowers or fruits represents a basis for prospective functional analogies utilized in word formation and phraseology.

Mythological conceptions of the world sometimes enforce modifications of the image of the tree. Its roots in the earth may seem mythologically inadequate and therefore they may be turned over so that they sprout from heaven, not from the earth -- if the cause of being is looked for in heaven and not in the earth, this metamorphosis may seem logical within this framework of thinking. This reversal is supported by the apparent symmetry of the tree along its vertical: A well developed crown of most trees is reminiscent of their root system and both take their nutrients from outside -- the roots from the earth, the branches from the air and sun.

The cult of trees is linked to their symbolic charge and the range of eligible trees may include not only lime tree or oak known to us but many other trees as well, just as for example in Mongolia (Ujiyediin 1997) where the cult of trees has survived till this day. Sacred trees are also familiar to the Slavs. One of such trees is the lime. Could we speculate about the motivation of this cult? Is it to be looked for in the fragrance of its blooms? Or in the mysterious hum of the insects that sounds as an enigmatic voice of that tree or of the gods residing in it?

The tree is an important object in the realm of Oceania too. Among the Australian aborigines the tree was viewed as a kind of ladder leading from the earth to the sky world (Mudrooroo 1994: 163) where the ancestors departed. That is why corpses were placed in the branches of trees in Australia (or, for that matter, on elevations of other kind as in Iran, Tibet, etc.) and the souls departed to the sky world via the trees. Man made poles sometimes serve as substitution trees or, as in the Arnhem Land, wooden coffins containing the remains of the dead are not interred but set up vertically upon the ground.

In Polynesia, the tree is usually viewed upon as a link between the different vertical levels of the cosmos connecting the world of humans with the nether world and the sky, that is, the world of the living with that of the deceased and the gods.

The genealogical tree is no doubt the tree linking the ancestors with their subsequent generations of descendants, a tree that is ever alive. It grows from the past where it is hard to distinguish the ancestors from gods and the living descendants are its last offshoots.

In Kiribati myth, Nareau created a tree of ancestors from the backbone of his father. Its branches represent the individual ancestors, which is a symbolism known from many parts of the world.

The tree may be integrated into the cosmic creation process. According to the Yapese a huge tree grew in the beginning of the world. It was rooted in heaven and its branches touched the ground. In the crown of the tree a woman was born. She got sand from the goddess Jelaiaz and when she dispersed it in the sea, land was created (Dixon 1964: 248-250). The awareness of the unity of creation is supported by the myths of the origin of man from a tree occurring in Indonesia (in Wetar, in northern Sulawesi, with the Kayans in Borneo) but also outside the Austronesian realm, for example in Mongolia (Ujiyediin 1997).

Cosmogonic myths recorded by W. W. Gill in the Cook archipelago mention the soul leaving the human body shortly before the death, and travelling to the cliffs at the western shore of the island where there is a marae of the god Rongo and the pua tree rooted deep in 'Avaiki (Gill 1876). 'Avaiki (in other Polynesian islands Hawaiki, Havaiki, Hawai'i, etc.) is both the nether world and the ancient homeland of the ancestors -- and thus the souls of the deceased seem to be destined to return to their forefathers.

A tree is part of the scene in the Tongan myth about the celestial origin of the rulers of Tonga (quoted from Gifford 1924: 25-27):

"A large casuarina tree grew on the island of Toonangakava, between the islands of Mataaho and Talakite in the lagoon of Tongatabu. This great casuarina tree reached to the sky, and a god came down from the sky by this great tree. This god was Tangaloa Eitumatupua (correctly 'Eitumatupu'a).

When he came down there was a woman fishing. Her name was Ilaheva and also Vaepopua. The god from the sky came to her and caught her, and they cohabited. Their sleeping place was called Mohenga...

The god returned to the sky, but came back to the woman and they cohabited. The woman Ilaheva became pregnant and gave birth to a male child...

The god returned to the sky, while the woman and child remained on earth... The woman and son lived together until the child Ahoitu ('Aho'eitu) was big...

One day he told his mother: "I want to go to the sky, so that I can see my father..." His mother instructed him: "Go and climb the great casuarina, for that is the road to the sky; and see your father."

Ahoitu climbed the great casuarina tree and reached the sky."

The two-way traffic between heaven (or the nether world) and earth is only considered feasible just in exceptional cases. Mortals can proceed along it only in one direction. According to the beliefs of the Mangaiians the souls of the dying leave the body before the last breath and travel to the western coast of the island, to the cliff at Araia near the marae Orongo. If a friendly spirit meets the soul and tells it to go back and live, the joyful soul at once returns home, again enters the abandoned body and the person awakens. If the soul does not meet with a good ghost, it walks on to the cliff. A huge wave rises and at the same moment a gigantic pua tree (*Besleria laurifolia*), covered with fragrant blossom springs up from 'Avaiki or the nether world and receives on its far-reaching branches human souls. Then the pua goes down and when the horrified soul looks down, it sees a large net spread out to catch the souls of the deceased. When the soul falls down to the net, it is at once submerged in a lake of fresh-water right below the pua tree. The captive souls exhaust themselves wriggling like fish and then the net is pulled up and the souls enter the presence of the inexpressibly ugly Miru, the master of the nether world.

Her four daughters give the souls stupefying kava and then their victims are brought to a burning oven and cooked (Gill 1876: 161-162).

A similar motif is known from New Zealand. Above the cliff at the northernmost cape of the North Island an old pohutukawa tree was growing. The souls climbed the branches of this huge tree with red blossoms, looked down and waited. As soon as the waves ebbed and the entrance to an underwater cave opened, the souls leapt down from the "leaping-stone" (Orbell 1985: 77-83). In New Zealand, just as in Mangaiia, the souls enter into the nether world after having climbed down the tree. It is reminiscent of the tree of life; the downward movement leads to death, for death is the opposite of life and of growth. Maui himself tried to obtain immortality for mankind by retracing the passage of birth -- and his attempt was abortive. However, he managed to descend to the nether world and even to return back.

Above the western shore of the island of 'Upolu in the archipelago of Samoa there was a so-called leaping-stone. From this stone the spirits in their course leapt into the sea, swam to the island of Manono, leapt from a stone on that island again, crossed to Savai'i and went overland to the Fafā (at the village of Falealupo), the entrance to Hades. Near the entrance there was a coconut tree called Leosia (literally "watcher"). If the soul struck against it, it could return to its body. Before entering Pulotu, the exhausted souls took a bath in the lake of Vaiola (literally "living water") to freshen themselves. This is a widespread motif known also from New Zealand. The Maori of Rotorua believed that the souls had to cross a stream called Te Wai Ora o Tane, "the living water of Tane" on its way to the nether world (Orbell 1985: 83).

The tree is an important cognitive model for the Maori cosmogonic genealogies. According to one version the world can be traced back to the state labelled Te Kore ("nothing") which possibly has the meaning of chaos. "Nothingness" is followed by Te Pu ("root"), Te More ("The chief root"), Te Take ("root"), and Te Weu ("thin root"). All of them are parts of the cosmogonic or cosmic tree. The genealogical tree has roots in the past (in the case of Polynesia in the ancient homeland, i. e. East Polynesian Hawaiki and West Polynesian Pulotu) and has been growing into the present/future and territorially into the various archipelagoes and islands inhabited by Polynesians today.

The function of the tree as a link joining various spheres of the cosmos is encoded in the Maori mythical episode of raising the sky from the earth when this feat is achieved by a tree personified as the god Tane. Less conspicuous is this function of the tree in the Promethean story of Maui who has managed to acquire fire for mankind. It is true that the grandmother Mahuiki has granted fire to Maui but he deliberately extinguished it several times. Mahuiki has luckily concealed several sparks in a tree and wood has become both source and food of fire. The tree mediates between gods and people as a metaphorical angling rod. In accordance with a widespread Polynesian custom (e. g. in the Marquesas, Society islands), a human sacrifice, typically called a fish ("ika") was hung in a tree near the cult place -- this metaphorical fish was caught with the metaphorical angling rod = tree, connecting the world of mortals with that of gods, but also the world of living people with that of the deceased.

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Linguistic Characteristics of Europe and the Role of English Language

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Abstract

The key adjectives, which can be used to characterize Europe, are multilingual and multicultural. Languages of Europe show a great variety concerning their genetic affiliation, number of speakers and status. Besides official languages, there is a great number of regional and minority languages as well as local dialects. With such a variety, it is necessary to resort to a limited number of intermediary languages, often designated as world languages to ensure communication among various language communities. Despite the quantitative prevalence of Slavonic languages in their number and the total number of native

speakers, it is English, which is used as the most frequent foreign language even in comparison with the other five world languages. Reasons for its success have to be looked for in the historical, political and economic success of the English speaking countries.

Key words

Multiculturalism, multilingualism, official language, national language, state language, language families, foreign language, native speaker, second language

Introduction

Europe is a continent characterized by multiculturalism and multilinguality. Such variability is the consequence of its historical development and the constant longing of Europeans for traveling, business and a search of novelty.

1. Languages of Europe

Contemporary Europe is divided into 50 officially acknowledged independent states, 5 partially acknowledged states, 1 unacknowledged state and 7 dependent territories with specific status¹. The number of languages used in that area amounts to 234, but some of them appeared in Europe only relatively recently due to immigrants from other continents (Vietnamese, Chinese) (Lewis, 2009.). In addition to the officially acknowledged languages there exists a great number of dialects, but the distinction between them is a question of politics rather than linguistics. As an example, we could mention Serbian and Croatian languages which until recently existed as one Serbo-Croatian language, but under the pressure of turbulent political conflicts they have been established as independent languages. On the other hand, the difference between German and Swiss German is quite extensive but they are both considered German language. Languages are used in a variety of contexts of a private, official or public character. We can divide them according to the mode, occasion and extent of use into several groups; state, official, minority or regional languages.

A "state language" is a language, which is appointed by a special Language Bill, has precedence over any other languages used in the state and fulfills the role of the official language as well. (SR, 2009) An "official language" is a language which has a special status secured by law in the territory of a state, with the aim of ensuring conditions for fluent and effective

execution of state authority, administration and self-government. (SR, 1990) The difference in interpretation of these two terms seems to be minimal but it has important political and legal consequences. As an example, heated disputes in the National Council of SR as well as in the media concerning the change of status of the Slovak language from an official to a state language in 2009 can be mentioned.

In an English context, the term "official language" is used for a language with a specific status on the given territory which is used in judiciary, state administration and government. The term "national language" is in use too, but it is interpreted as a language which in a unique way represents a specific national identity and is determined by a government. In fact, this can even be a minority language (Irish in Ireland). (Lewis, 2009.)

Out of the total of 234 languages, 43² are used as a state or official language, while some of them like German, French or Swedish have such a status in several states. Besides those official languages, in many states there are officially acknowledged regional languages used as official ones within specific regions (Basque and Catalan in Spain), then acknowledged minority languages use by minorities in public (Swedish and Russian in Estonia) and a great number of small languages and dialects without legal status. Russia is the country with the highest number of local languages with various statuses, in addition to Russian; there are 27 regional official languages and 60 other local languages used just in the European part of Russia.

Several states use more than one official language. In 6 European countries 2 official languages are used (Belarus, Cyprus, Finland, Ireland, Kazakhstan and Malta), in 3 states 3 languages (Belgium, Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Luxembourg) and in only 1 country, Switzerland, as many as 4 languages have the status of an official language.

The majority of European languages, immigrant languages excluded, belong to the Indo-European

¹ Various sources state a different number of European states. Discrepancies occur concerning Azerbaijan, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Russia and Turkey as their territories belongs to both Europe and Asia, and Cyprus and Armenia, which belong geographically to western Asia but politically to Europe, the number shifts between 45 – 50 states

² For political reasons Moldova uses the term Moldovan language, though linguistically it is identical with Romanian and Montenegro uses the term Montenegrin, though again, linguistically it is Serbian but they use both Latin and Cyrillic script (Lewis, 2009.)

language family. Out of the 43 official languages, as many as 35 belong to the same family.

European official languages				Total 43					
Indo-European languages	35	Caucasian ¹	1	Uralic	3	Afro-Asian	1	Altaic ⁴	3
Albanian	1	Georgian	1	Finn-Ugric	3	Semitic	1	Turkic	3
Armenian	1 ⁵								
Baltic	2								
Germanic	8								
Hellenic	1								
Italic									
Romance	8 ⁶								
Celtic	1								
Slavic	13								

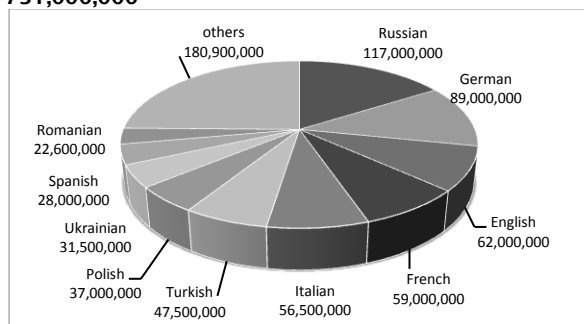
Table 1 Genetic classification of European languages

Quantitatively, the Slavonic languages prevail over Germanic and Italic ones. If we have a look at the number of people speaking the particular languages as their mother tongue we may again notice great differences. The most spoken language is Russian with 117,000,000 native speakers and the least spoken one is Rhaeto-Romance with only 35,100 native speakers. Table 2 and Graph 1 show the 10 most spoken European languages.

Number	Language	Total	Type of Language
1.	Russian	117,000,000	Slavonic
2.	German	89,000,000	Germanic
3.	English	62,000,000	Germanic
4.	French	59,000,000	Romance
5.	Italian	56,500,000	Romance
6.	Turkish ⁷	47,500,000	Turkic
7.	Polish	37,000,000	Slavonic
8.	Ukrainian	31,500,000	Slavonic
9.	Spanish ⁸	28,000,000	Romance
10.	Romanian	22,600,000 ⁹	Romance

Table 2 European languages with the highest numbers of native speakers

The total number of European population is 731,000,000



Graph 1 European languages with the highest number of native speakers and their share in Europe

The top ten includes 4 Romance, 3 Slavonic, 2 Germanic and 1 Turkic language.

Language Family	Number of Languages	Number of speakers
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³ Considering Georgia a European state

⁴ Considering Turkey, Kazakhstan a Azerbaijan European states

⁵ Considering Armenia a European state

⁶ Romanian and Moldavian languages are here considered as two separate languages, compare note 2

⁷ This number applies to whole Turkey as data for the European part was not available separately

⁸ In Spain, part of the population has a different mother tongue (Catalan, Basque)

⁹ Here we consider the linguistic rather than political aspect, compare notes 2 and 6

Romance	4	166,100,000
Slavonic	3	186,500,000
Germanic	2	151,500,000
Turkic	1	47,500,000

Table 3 Top ten most used languages according to their genetic origin

Tables 1, 2 and 3 prove that Slavonic languages are best placed considering both the number of languages and the number of native speakers. They serve as state or official languages in 13 countries of Europe.

Having such a variety of languages, the question of possible communication among different language communities kept occurring naturally throughout history, whether within one state or among different states. In areas where various language communities met multilingualism naturally developed, as it enabled trouble free cohabitation and mutually advantageous cultural and economic exchange (traditional trilingualism in old Presburg). In other cases, as a consequence of historical development, one or another language established itself in certain regions of Europe as a dominant one and was used instead of local languages or concurrently with them (Russian in former socialist countries). Such a language served in the given area as lingua franca.

2. English in Europe

There is only one state in Europe, The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland together with the British overseas territory of Gibraltar, that uses English as the only official language. Two more states, The Republic of Ireland and Malta, as well as British crown dependencies the Bailiwick of Jersey and Guernsey, simultaneously use another official language with English. It means that out of the 50 European states, in only 3 of them English serves as an official language and out of the total population of 731,000,000 Europeans English native speakers constitute about 8.5%. Though Russian leads as the top mother tongue with 16% of all Europeans, English, not Russian is the most used foreign language in Europe.

To describe the status of English we can compare it with other leading languages of Europe. According to the Eurobarometer pole *Europeans and their Languages*, carried out for the European Commission in 2005 and published in 2006, out of the total population of European Union (495,000,000) 38%, which is approximately 188,000,000, stated English as their foreign language, compared to only 14% speaking German or French, which presents more than 69,000,000 people and only 6% stating Spanish or Russian, i.e. nearly 30,000,000 people. (Comission, 2006) Comparing those figures we can establish that within the EU three times more people use English as a foreign language than as a mother tongue and the total speakers of English whether as mother tongue, second or foreign language constitutes nearly 51% of the EU population and nearly 34% of the whole of Europe.

Language	As mother tongue in EU + 2		As a foreign language in EU + 2		Total in EU + 2	
	Total	%	Total	%	Total	%
English	58,500,000	13%	188,000,000	38%	246,500,000	50%
German	85,000,000	19%	69,300,000	14%	154,300,000	31.2%
French	54,000,000	12%	69,300,000	14%	123,300,000	24.9%
Russian	4,500,000	1%	29,700,000	6%	34,200,000	6.4%
Spanish	40,500,000	9%	29,700,000	6%	70,200,000	14.1%
Italian	58,000,000	13%	14,900,000	3%	72,900,000	14.7%

Table 4 Summary of top 6 languages' users (Europeans and their Languages)

The following table shows the results of the above mentioned 6 most spoken foreign languages in the EU and the two countries in the accession process. The respondents were asked to name any foreign language they were able to lead a conversation in. The number of languages was not restricted, they could name as many as they wished. We have chosen the results of the 6 European languages that are usually designated as "world languages".

Language Country	English	German	French	Russian	Spanish	Italian
Austria	58%	x	10%	-	-	-
Belgium	9%	7%	8%	-	-	-
Bulgaria	3%	2%	-	5%	-	-
Cyprus	6%	%	2%	-	-	-
Czech Republic	4%	8%	-	0%	-	-
Denmark	6%	8%	2%	-	-	-
Estonia	6%	2%	-	6%	-	-
Finland ¹⁰	63%	18%	-	-	-	-
France	36%	8%	x	-	13%	-
Germany	56%	x	15%	-	-	-
Greece	48%	9%	8%	-	-	-
Holland	87%	70%	29%	-	-	-
Hungary	23%	25%	-	-	-	-
Ireland	x ¹¹	7%	9%	-	-	-
Italy	29%	-	14%	-	-	x
Latvia	39%	-	-	70%	-	-
Lithuania ¹²	32%	-	-	80%	-	-
Luxembourg	60%	88%	90%	-	-	-
Malta	88%	-	17%	-	-	66%
Poland	29%	19%	-	26%	-	-
Portugal	32%	-	24%	-	9%	-
Romania	29%	6%	24%	-	-	-
Slovakia	32%	32%	-	29%	-	-
Slovenia ¹³	57%	50%	-	-	-	-
Spain ¹⁴	27%	-	12%	-	x 10%	-
Sweden	89%	30%	11%	-	-	-
United Kingdom	x	9%	23%	-	8%	-
Croatia	49%	34%	-	-	-	14%
Turkey	17%	4%	-	-	-	-

Table 5 Most frequently spoken foreign languages in EU + 2 (Europeans and their Languages)

Let us consider the languages separately. In the case of Italian, only two countries are relevant, Malta and Croatia, both in the close neighborhood of Italy, and so there have always been intensive commercial relations due to rich Italian cities like Venice or Genoa.

As for the Spanish language, three countries show a stronger presence, Portugal, France and the UK. Again, it is a well-defined geographical area, and at the same time the factor of language kinship may be taken into consideration. Spain even appeared among the countries indicating Spanish as an important FL, as part of the minority population considers Spanish a foreign language. Russian appeared among the influential foreign languages of the EU after 2004 when several former socialist countries entered the EU.

Russian shows relevance in 7 countries of Central and Eastern Europe, especially in the Baltic States, as they used to be part of the former Soviet Union and Russian was the official language of the whole territory.

¹⁰ Second most frequent language named was Swedish 41%

¹¹ X - official language of the country

¹² Third most frequent is Polish 15%

¹³ First FL is Croatian 59%

¹⁴ Some minorities indicated Spanish as a foreign language

In comparison with the previous three languages, French has a much higher representation. It appears as an important FL in 16 states, predominantly in Western Europe and in countries speaking Romance languages.

The second most wide-spread language, German, was noted in 21 countries, Germany and Austria naturally excluded. The countries, where German is an important foreign language, are either countries with historical ties with the German speaking countries or again, Germanic language kinship proved relevant.

English is the only language that appeared in all of the 29 countries, besides the UK and Ireland, where it is the mother tongue of the majority of the population. At the same time it is the top foreign language in 19 countries. Even in the lowest representation, it is still a two-digit number, a result which German as the second best cannot compete with. There is only one state, Luxembourg, where German beat English, as German is one of the three official languages and a great proportion of the population has a good command of it. We can identify three major factors which could influence the choice of foreign languages. They could be:

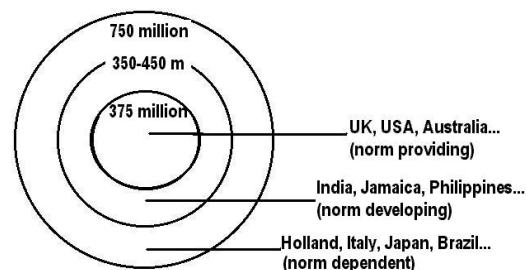
Common history (Austrian-Hungarian monarchy, Swedish kingdom)

Close neighborhood (Iberian peninsula, Mediterranean area, border areas)

Language kinship (Romance languages, Slavonic languages)

Evidently, English does not fit into any of these categories. But still we can claim that English is indeed the dominant foreign language within the European Union despite the fact that the number of native speakers of the chosen 6 languages is comparable. Its position has to be explained by some other factors.

Braj Kachru, suggested a schematic representation of various English speakers, dividing them into three concentric circles. (Kachru, 1982)

**Figure 1 Classification of English as a World Language**

The inner circle represents the English speaking countries, where English is the mother tongue of the majority of the population. The second circle consists of countries where English is used as a second language and we can include into this group mostly the former colonies of the 1st circle countries like India or many African states. The third, expanding circle includes all the countries where English is used as a foreign language, which means that according this division nearly the whole of Europe falls into the third category, which shows the greatest potential for growth. But it is strongly dependent on the economic and political status of the inner circle.

The linguistic complexity of the European environment constitutes a challenging task for the top political and governmental institutions within the European Union as well as for the whole of Europe. It is the question of future development, whether the dominance of English will be considered as a common communication tool or a threat for the other languages, big or small.

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English Converted Terms Combined with Prefixation in Mathematics and their Translation into Ukrainian and Slovak

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Abstract

The article is concerned with a comprehensive study of class-changing prefixes, converted terms combined with prefixation in Mathematics, and ways of rendering their meaning into Ukrainian and Slovak. It gives an overview of the problem from a historical perspective.

Keywords

Term, terminology, prefixation, converted term combined with prefixation, translation, term formation, mathematical term, Ukrainian, Slovak.

1. Introduction

Terminology has a two-fold meaning; it is (1) the science of terms, the discipline concerned with the principles and methods governing the study of concepts and their designations (terms, names, symbols) in any subject field, and (2) a system (set) of terms belonging or peculiar to a specific subject (RHWCD, 1990). Terminology of a language consists of many systems of terms. It forms the greatest and most intensely developing part of every language vocabulary. Hundreds of thousands of words belong to specialized scientific terminological systems and are not used or even understood by people outside the particular speciality. A term is usually defined as 'the element of the word-stock naming a concept determined by a definition and a place within a system of concepts of an objective branch of science, technology, economy and other activities' (Masàr, 1992: 280).

'Terminology is the study of and the field of activity concerned with the collection, description, processing and presentation of terms, i.e. lexical items belonging to specialised areas of usage of one or more languages' (Sager, 1990: 2) There is, however, no clear dividing line between general and specialist vocabulary. A common everyday word can have a technical application. Conversely, there is nothing to prevent a technical term from being used in the general vocabulary, for instance quadrature, triangle have gradually lost their qualities as terms and have passed into common usage. But the overwhelming majority of terms do not undergo this process of de-terminization and remain scientific. The difference between a common word as an element of the general vocabulary and the same word as part of a terminological system can be explained only by applying the criterion of definability. Terms are definitional words. The words of everyday language are not based on definition (Akhmanova, Agapova, 1974: 127).

Terms are endowed with a special form of reference, namely that they refer to discrete conceptual entities, properties, activities, or relations which constitute the knowledge space of a particular subject field. There are terms which have special reference within a particular discipline, and terms which function in general reference over a variety of subject fields (Sager, 1998: 261).

Every branch and every school of science develop a special terminology adapted to their nature and methods. Its development represents an essential part of research work and is of paramount importance, because it can either help or hinder progress (Arnold, 1973: 210).

2. Material and methods

Work on terminology standardization has been going on in almost all branches of science since the beginning of the 20th century. 'Scientists are aware that they ought to have a common language, and they keep modifying their terminology according to recommendations from national and international bodies and committees' (Klasson, 1977: 193). Every system of terminology is nowadays fixed in glossaries approved by authorities, special committees, and eminent scholars. There are three main ways of term formation: (a) creating new forms (word formation), (b) using existing forms, and (c) interlingual borrowing (borrowing from other languages). New forms are lexical items that did not exist before. Considering both the quantity of terms needed and the qualities expected of them, processes of word formation are of central importance (Gramley, Paetzold, 1992: 252). Terminology uses mainly the following processes of word formation: derivation and conversion.

It is evident that few if any words are made up of novel phoneme combinations. The reason for this is presumably that a lack of associations would make such completely new words difficult to retain and liable to misunderstanding. Instead of coining novel lexemes, scientific English draws on existing lexical items by extending their semantic range. This development is economical partly because familiar lexical items can be more easily called to mind, and partly because it holds back the proliferation of lexemes (Klasson, 1977: 192). New terms can be formed by using existing forms via the following procedures: terminologization - is a general procedure through which a word or phrase from general language is transformed into a term designating a concept in a special language (metalanguage); transdisciplinary borrowing, also known as internal borrowing, refers to situations where a designation from one specific subject field is used in another one in order to represent a different concept; and semantic transfer within a special language, this is the process by which an existing term in a special language is used in order to designate a different concept by an analogous extension.

Also, the language of science has been considerably influenced by borrowings from Latin and Greek. They form the core of an international scientific vocabulary. A number of the earliest scientific concepts were first expressed in Latin or Greek. The change from Latin to English in scientific writing seems to have begun in the 18th century. But scientists felt the loss of Latin as the international language of science, and the change took a long time. Scientists have never ceased to look to Latin and Greek for internationally current word-

material (Klasson, 1977: 17-18; Dyakov, Kyvak, Kudelko, 2000).

Terms existing in one language can be introduced into another language by direct borrowing, this is full adaptation of terms from other languages during the process of second term formation. The borrowed form can differ in the borrowing language from that in the source language in terms of pronunciation, spelling, declination, etc. In addition to direct borrowings, such as morph, comma, cacology, or iteration, this involves morphological elements, including prefixes (anti-, de-, hyper-, inter-, intro-, macro-, meta-, micro-, mono-, multi-, -poly-, post-, pre-, pro-, proto-, re-, etc.) and suffixes (-graph, -ology, -morph, etc.) which are adopted and adapted over and over again in various combinations, more or less along classical patterns (Gramley, Paetzold, 1992: 252).

One important difference between Slovak and English affixes is the easiness with which the latter enter into combination with roots of the opposite origin, i.e. domestic ones with those of foreign origin and vice versa, which results in a large measure of hybridization and in comparison with their Slovak counterparts, English prefixes show a greater degree of autonomy, for instance: pre-war, post-war, ex-king (Miššiková, 1993: 58). Scientific English has made few acquisitions through this method. As a rule, it is nowadays the English term that spreads to other languages. There is a powerful export of English terms to other languages, including Ukrainian and Slovak.

The terminology of Mathematics comprises several subfields: Algebra, Arithmetics, Geometry, Electronics and Cybernetics. Our research is based on 156 terminological units from the field of Mathematics. Converted terms combined with prefixation in Mathematics are coined with the help of eight class-changing prefixes of native origin such as: all-, off-, out-, over-, short-, un-, under-, up-. Terms with these prefixes comprise only 26% of all analysed units. Mathematical terms are mainly formed by 18 class-changing prefixes borrowed from other languages, generally from Greek and Latin: a-, anti-, co-/con-, contra-, de-, dis-, em-/en-, im-/in-, inter-, intra-, multi-, non-, poly-, pre-, re-, sub-, super-, uni-. Among native prefixes over- and un- tend to be more productive than others. All-, under- and up- have limited productivity. Class-changing borrowed prefixes a-, contra-, dis-, intra-, poly-, pre-, super- do not appear to be productive in Mathematics (Table 1).

Table 1 Productivity of class-changing prefixes in Mathematics

Prefixes	Amount of terms
all-	2
off-	5
out-	6
over-	8
short-	6
un-	8
under-	3
up-	3
a-	2
anti-	4
co-/con-	8
contra-	2
de-	7
dis-	4
em-/en-	9
im-/in-	8
inter-	6
intra-	3
multi-	26
non-	8
poly-	1
pre-	3
re-	11
sub-	7
super-	1

uni-	5
Всього	156

The class-changing prefix a- forms adjectives mainly from forms which are ambiguous between nouns and verbs: ablaze, astir, awash. This prefix is still productive. The class-changing prefix be- forms transitive verbs from adjectives, verbs or, more frequently, nouns. For example, becalm, befriend, bewitch. The class-changing prefix en- forms transitive verbs, mainly from nouns, as in entomb, ensnare, enslave. It is marginally productive. Other prefixes in this class are de- (debark), dis- (disbar), non- (non-stick), un- (unhorse) (Miššiková, 1993: 59).

The borrowed prefix multi- is added to nouns and is extremely productive in Mathematics (17%). Denominal verbal and adjectival terminological coinages were found to prevail over other motivating roots (84%) with the deverbal nouns and deadjectival verbs concluding the productivity scale. The most frequent are instances of the uses of five native (all-, off-, over-, short-, un-) and twelve borrowed prefixes (anti-, co-, contra-, in-, inter-, intra-, multi-, non-, poly-, pre-, sub-, uni-) in denominal adjectival terms formation in Mathematics (47%).

Among adjectival terms we have found 2% of polysemantic units, for instance: antitone, adj, multiplace, adj, off-axis, adj. Polysemy involves the multiplicity of meanings attached to a single lexical item. An ideal term should be monosemantic. Some scholars claim that polysemantic terms lead to misunderstanding, and it is a serious shortcoming in professional communication. Although mathematical terms tend to be monosemantic, there are, in fact, numerous polysemantic terms. I. Arnold suggests that polysemy may be tolerated in one form only, namely if the term has various meanings in different fields of science (Arnold, 1973: 210).

The class-changing prefix all- forms adjectives mainly from nouns and denotes the total entity or the whole number: all-pass, adj - "ширококумговий", Slov. "širokopásmový"; in the word combination all-pass filter - "фазовий фільтр", Slov. "fázovací filter". There are several ways to translate terms with all- into Ukrainian and Slovak: 1) words with the semi prefix все-, úplné, celo-, (all-rubber, adj "celogumový"; all-inertial, adj "úplné inerciálny"); 2) terms with words like "mnoho, багато" (all-channel, adj "mnohokanálový", "багатоканальний"); and in a descriptive way: all-wave receiver "prijímač na všetky pásma".

The group of negative prefixes is numerous in Mathematics. They are: anti-, contra-, non-, off-, un-. These prefixes give negative, reverse or opposite meaning to substantival adjectives: antihunt, adj - "протикопивальний, стабілізуючий", Slov. "stabilizujúci, stabilizačný"; contravariant, adj - "контрваріантний", Slov. "kontravariantný"; non-zero, adj - "ненульовий", Slov. "nenulový, rôzny od nuly"; nonvector, adj - "скалярний", Slov. "skalár"; nonvariant, adj - "неінваріантний", Slov. "nonvariantný" (Chem.); off-axis, adj "1) неосьовий, 2) (утворюваний) з віссю", slov. "mimoosový"; off-base, adj - "необґрунтований"; off-centre, adj - "нецентральний", slov. "výstredný; mimostredový"; off-line, adj - "автономний", slov. "nezávislý"; uncut, adj - "нерозрізаний", slov. "neskrátený, nebrúsený, neodrezaný, neporezaný, neposekaný"; unrival, adj (about hypotheses) - "неконкурентний", slov. "bez konkurencie, jedinečný, neprekonaný". Terms with negative prefixes are translated into Ukrainian and Slovak in several ways: 1) terms with the prefix "не-", "ne-"; 2) words with the prefix "анти-", "anti-"; 3) word combinations with "проти, без", "proti, bez".

The borrowed prefix co- (con-) is added to nouns. In that case it denotes "with or together": concurrent, adj – "такий, що має спільну точку, паралельний", slov. "zbiehavý; súbežný" (geom.); "to the same extent or degree", "subordinate or assistant": covariant, adj – "коваріантний", slov. "kovariantný"; "complement of an angle": cotangent, adj – "ко-дотичний, котангенсійний", slov. "kotangensový". Nouns with co- (con-) are translated into Ukrainian and Slovak with the prefix "ko-", "ко-" and descriptively.

The prefix inter- is productive when added to nouns (pref + N → Adj) and also occurs in many neologisms. It expresses the general idea of "between, among; in the midst of, within". For instance, interblock, adj – "міжблоковий", slov. "medzi blokmi" (Cybernetics). These terms are translated with the semi-prefix "між-" into Ukrainian and into Slovak using word combinations with "medzi".

The prefix intra- is of limited productivity and it forms adjectives with noun stems. Examples are: intrablock, adj – "усередині блока"; intraclass, adj – "усередині класу"; intraplot, adj – "усередині ділянки (факторного експерименту)". They convey the meaning "inside, within something expressed by a stem". Mathematical terms with the prefix intra- are translated with the prefix "інтра-", the word "усередині" into Ukrainian and with the semi prefix "vnútro-", the prefix "intra-" into Slovak (intranuclear, adj – slov. "vnútrojadrový"; intramolecular, adj – slov. "intramolekulový, vnútramolekulový").

A very frequent prefix multi- with a great combining power in the formation of adjectives denotes "many, much, multiple; more than one, more than two": multicircuit, adj – "баратоконтурний", slov. "mnohoobvodový" (cybernetics); multidecision, adj – "з альтернативними гіпотезами", slov. "úloha o mnohoalternatívnom rozhodovaní"; multiloop, adj (Cybernetics), meaning "баратоконтурний", slov. "viacobvodový; viacslučkový". Another prefix with the same meaning "many, much, excessive" is poly- but it has a limited productivity: polyphase, adj – "баратофазний", slov. "viacfázový, niekoľ'kofázový" (Electronics). Terms with multi- and poly- are translated into Slovak and Ukrainian with the help of their counterparts in these languages "барато-, мульти-, поли-", "poly-, mnoho-, viac-, niekoľ'ko-, multi-".

The prefix over- forms adjectives mainly from nouns, as in overhead, adj – "верхній, повітряний, накладний", slov. "nadhlavný; nadzemný; stropný, nástropný; s horným rozvodom". It denotes an excessive degree or a higher level of something denoted by a stem and is translated into Ukrainian with the prefix "над-" and into Slovak with the same prefix "nad-".

The prefix pre- is added to nouns to denote "earlier, before, prior to": prelimit, adj – "передграничний"; "preparatory, preliminary": preset, adj – "заздалегідь заданий" ← preset, v – "задавати заздалегідь", slov. "prestavit', vymenit'". Terms with pre- are translated into Ukrainian and Slovak as word combinations with "заздалегідь", "vopred" and with the Ukrainian prefix "перед-" and Slovak "pred-".

The prefix short- is added to noun bases and is marginally productive. Terms with short- render the meaning of "lacking in length, scope or amount": shortcut, adj – "скорочений, неповний", slov. "neúplný, čiastočný, čiastkový"; short-form, adj – "короткий", slov. "krátky, úsečný, nedostatočný"; short-period, adj – "короткочасний", slov. "krátkoperiodický"; short-range, adj – "короткодійний", slov. "krátkodobý"; short-time, adj – "короткочасний", slov. "krátkodobý"; short-wave, adj – "короткохвильовий", slov. "krátkovlnný" (Radio Engineering). Terms with short- are mainly translated into Slavic as word combinations with initial Ukr. "коротко-", Slov. "krátko-".

The prefix sub- is the most productive in the formation

of adjectival terms with the meaning "below, under, beneath; subordinate; less than completely". Terms with sub- can undergo conversion: subcompact, adj – "smaller in size than a compact" ← subcompact, n – "a car smaller in size than a compact" (N → Adj). Terms with sub- are translated into Ukrainian with prefixes "суб-", "під-" and word combinations with "допоміжний" and into Slovak with the same prefix as the English "sub-" and its Slovak equivalent "pod-" (sublevel, adj – "podobzorový", sublunar, adj – "sublunárny").

The prefix uni- forms adjectival terms (unitrope, adj, unifactor, adj), mainly from nouns and they can undergo conversion, as in: univariant, adj – "одномірний", slov. "univariantný, s jedným stupňom voľ'nosti"; univalent, adj – "1) одномісний, 2) одновалентний", slov. "jednomocný". The meaning "single, one" is still productive. These terms are translated with the prefixes "uni-, jedno-" into Slovak and mainly with "одно-" into Ukrainian.

Denominal verbal terminological coinages in Mathematics appear to be productive (35%). Four native prefixes out-, over-, un-, under-, and nine borrowed ones (co-, de-, dis-, en-, in-, inter-, re-, sub-, un-) form verbs from adjectives or, most frequently, nouns. For instance, the stem able in the term disable, v – "робити неспроможним, унеможливити, блокувати", slov. "robit' neschopným, nespôsobilým"; and in the term enable, v – "відкривати, давати можливість функціонувати", slov. "umožňovať, oprávňovať, splnomocňovať" (Cybernetics); the adjectival base large in the term enlarge, v – "збільшувати(ся), розширювати(ся)", slov. "zväčšovať(sa), rozširovať(sa)"; the adjectival base new in the term renew, v – "відновлювати, замінювати новим", slov. "obnovovať, vymieňat'".

The prefix co-/con- is of a limited productivity, meaning "joint, together with": concentre, v – "мати спільний центр, сходиться в центрі". This prefix is translated into Slavic descriptively or with Ukr. "ко-" and Slov. "ko-".

Prefixes de-, dis-, un- are often in competition when added to verbs. The verbs produced by de- prefixation may subsequently be nominalized (Bauer, 1991, 218). This group (de-, dis-, un-) has also been classified as prefixes giving a negative, reverse or opposite meaning. The meaning "delimit, remove sth." is rendered by negative class-changing prefixes. Examples are: debug, v – "полагодити", slov. "odstraňovať chyby, ladiť, odhmyžiť"; deform, v – "змінювати форму, деформувати", slov. "deformovať, pretvárat', krivit'"; delimit, v – "визначати границі, обмежувати", slov. "stanovit', obmedzovať". Term discard, v is from game theory, meaning "1) скидати карту, 2) відкидати, відмовлятися", slov. "odhodit', znehodnotiť, odložiť, vyčarknuť, vzdať sa, vyradiť"; discourage, v – "1) розвантажувати, витікати, 2) розряджатися", slov. "vykladať, vyliat'"; dismember, v – "відділяти (елементи фігури)", slov. "rozobrať"; unbalance, v – "порушувати рівновагу", slov. "zmiast', vyviest' z rovnováhy, vychýlit'"; unveil, v – "роз(від)кривати", slov. "sňať(si), odhalit'". Verb with negative prefixes are translated into Slavic with prefixes Ukr. "роз-, від-, де-, дис-", Slov. "roz-, od-, de-" and also descriptively.

Prefixes em-/en-, in- form verbs with the meaning "to endow, to give, to put into the thing or condition mentioned", are mainly formed by nouns: embark, v – "вантажити, приступати", slov. "nalodiť, nalodiť sa, vrhnúť sa, pustit' sa do"; embody, v – "втілювати, зображати", slov. "obsahovať, zahrňovať, vyjadrit'"; encode, v – "закодувати", slov. "zakódovať, zašifrovať"; encourage, v – "підтримати, стимулювати", slov. "podporovať, odporúčať, posmeľovať"; entitle, v – "називати, давати право", slov. "oprávniť, nazvať"; infringe, v – "порушувати", slov. "nedodržať, porušiť"; inswap, v – "завантажувати", slov. "načítať". Terms with these prefixes are translated into Slavic mainly

descriptively. The verb interspace, *v* with the prefix *inter-* – means “робити інтервал, розташовувати з інтервалом”. This prefix is often added to nouns, verbs and adjectives. It is also a class-changing prefix and has its counterparts in Ukrainian “між-”, “інтер-” and in Slovak “inter-”, “medzi-”.

Prefixes *out-* and *over-* indicate “exceeding, overcoming, or outdoing”: *outmatch*, *v* – “переважати, перевершувати”, *slov.* “prekonať, prekonávať, prevýšiť, prevyšovať”; *outnumber*, *v* – “переважати (переважити) кількісно, перевершувати (перевершити) чисельно”, *slov.* “prevyšovať počtom, mať početnú prevahu, byť vo väčšine, prekonať”; *overbalance*, *v* – “виводити (вивести) з рівноваги, переважати, перевершувати”, *slov.* “stratiť rovnováhu, prevrátiť, prevrhnúť”; *overlap*, *v* – “покривати, перекриватися (у просторі і часі)”, *slov.* “prekrývať(sa)”. Verbs with *out-* and *over-* are translated into Slavic descriptively with words like Ukr. “переважати, перевершувати, покривати” and *Slov.* “prevyšovať, prekrývať, prekonať”.

Re- prefixed to verbs denotes “reversal, withdrawal or repetition” of action and process: *rerank*, *v* – “перерангувати”; *relabel*, *v* – “змінювати позначення, нумерацію”; *retrace*, *v* – “рухатися у протилежному напрямку”, *Slov.* “stopovať, vracat sa po stopách, obkresliť, znovu nakresliť, rekonštruovať, rekonštruovať, znovu vybaviť, nahraďiť, zopakovať, zopakovať: v duchu si zopakovať, zrekapitulovať, vystopovať, pripomenúť, odčiniť, obťahnúť, napraviť”; from game theory *reshuttle*, *v* – “перетасовувати”. *Re-* is translated into Ukrainian as the prefix “пере-” and these terms are also translated descriptively with “знову”. In Slovak they are translated as “re-, pre-” (*reradiation*, *v* “prenašat”) and descriptively.

Under- prefixed to mathematical terms indicates “lesser amount or degree, insufficiency, incompleteness”: *underrate*, *v* – “недооцінювати”, *Slov.* “podceniť”; *underscore*, *v* – “підкреслювати”, *Slov.* “podčiarknuť”. The prefix *under-* is mainly translated into Ukrainian as “недо-, під-, до-” and descriptively with words “неповний, недостатний” and in Slovak “pod-, nedo-, ne-” and terms with words like “nedostatočný, neúplný” respectively. The term with prefix *sub-* – *subgroup*, *v* means “to perform a series of operations forming part of a larger group”. Among verbal terms 8%, four units are polysemantic: *discard*, *v*, *discourage*, *v*, *replot*, *v*, *reshape*, *v*.

Mathematical substantive terms comprise only 16% of all examined units. They are formed with the help of ten class-changing prefixes, four of them are of native origin: *off-*, *out-*, *over-*, *up-*, □ and six are borrowed: *co-*/*con-*, *in-*, *inter-*, *pre-*, *sub-*, *super-*. Substantive terms with prefix *co-* render the meaning “of the complement or complement of” in Slovak and Ukrainian: *cojoin*, *n* – “коз’єднання”.

Converted terms combined with the prefix *in-* indicate “in, within, internal”: *income*, *n* – “дохід, прибуток, заробіток”, *Slov.* “plat, príjem, dôchodok”; *inlet*, *n* – “вхід, повітрозбірник”, *Slov.* “zátoka, vstup, prívod”, antonymous to it is term *outlet*, *n* – “вихід, виведення”, *Slov.* “otvor, odtok, otvorenie, východisko, východ, výtok, výbeh, výpusť, priepust, priechod: voľný priechod, predajňa, obchod, filiálka, odbytisko, zásuvka, ventil, publikačné možnosti, výstup”; *input*, *n* – “1) Сиб. вхідний сигнал, 2) споживний фактор”, *Slov.* “vstup, prívod, príkon, pomoc”, antonym *output*, *v* in Cybernetics renders the meaning “1) вихідний сигнал”, in Engineering it indicates: “2) віддача”, *Slov.* “výkon, výnos, výstup, výťažok, výstupný údaj”. The polysemantic pair of antonyms *input* (*n*) – *output* (*n*) is found in the sphere of Mathematics and Cybernetics.

Nouns with prefixes *inter-*, *pre-*, *sub-*, *super-* indicate names of appliances, mechanisms, apparatuses from Mathematical terminology, for instance: *interlock*, *n* –

“блокування, блокуючий пристрій”, *Slov.* “blokovanie, západka”; *subnormal*, *n* – “піднормаль”, *Slov.* “podnormál”.

Nouns with prefixes *off-*, *out-* are used for naming of mathematical actions and processes, for example: *offset*, *n* – “зміщення”, *Slov.* “ofset, odstup, odchýlka, protihodnota, nepomer”; *overlay*, *n* – “накладання”, *Slov.* “vrstva, prekladanie, prekryvanie”; *outset*, *n* – “початок, відправлення”, *Slov.* “začiatok”; from the sphere of Statistics: *upcross*, *n* – “зміна знака членів часового ряду з мінуса на плюс”; from Engineering: *upkeep*, *n* – “ремонт, обслуговування”, *Slov.* “údržba, vydržovanie”; from Mechanics: *upright*, *n* – “стійка”, *Slov.* “zvislosť, kolmost, pilier, podpera, stĺpik”.

Adverbs with prefixes *a-*, *in-* are not frequent in Mathematics: *aside*, *adv* – “окремо”, *Slov.* “bokom, nabok, stranou”; *atilt*, *adv* – “під кутом”, *Slov.* “naklonený”; *inside*, *adv* – “досередини, всередині”, *Slov.* “vnútri, dovnútra”. It is the smallest group and it consists of only several units (2%).

3. Conclusions

The etymology of Mathematical terms is diverse. Terms hybrids occupy over 75%. They are mainly of a Greek, Latin and French origin. The Greek and Latin languages have been the source of linguistic terms for centuries up to the present. Greek word-forming patterns, words and word elements were adopted into Latin and passed through it into many European languages. Many Greek Mathematical terms were converted into English via Latin. Nowadays the English term and derivation patterns spread to other languages including Ukrainian and Slovak.

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The Slovak Language in Danger?

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Abstract

In the article *Slovak Language in Danger?* the author polemizes with the attitudes of some laymen and professionals who claim that it is necessary to take radical measures for the protection of the Slovak language because it obviously needs them. The Slovak language exists in its own, so-called, "normal sociolinguistic situation" and it fulfils all the functions required. The specifics of the Slovak situation (in comparison with Czech) are that not only laymen or amateurs, but even the professional linguists speak about a gloomy future for Slovak language (e.g. in various manifestos). Nowadays Slovak is quite developed and it is neither

in typological nor in qualitative endangerment. On the contrary, it has never been in such a good condition as it is now.

Keywords

Slovak language, endangerment of languages, sociolinguistics

Global Endangerment of Languages

Let's start this essay with a comment on the languages of the world. Typological literature states that approximately 6800 languages are spoken today. Still, this is just an estimate – so far attempts to distinguish languages from dialects, or at least to set generally accepted principles according to which they can be distinguished, have not been successful (compare, for example, with Krupa – Genzor, 1996 – neither David Crystal's effort in *Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language* can be considered as definite, 1997)¹⁵. In fact, as a result of globalisation (to put it more precisely, globalisation, i. e. globalisation along with localisation) and integration processes taking place nowadays as well as the results of many other circumstances a lot of languages are on the verge of extinction. The situation is so urgent that while the optimists estimate that during the 21st century, i. e. during a hundred years, 30 % of all languages worldwide will be extinct, the pessimists claim it will be 90 %. According to many authors the situation is dramatic, but it is important to emphasise that the measurement of language endangerment varies.

Although linguists cannot concur on the number of existing languages in the world, they all agree with the fact that this number constantly decreases, which the general public is not sufficiently aware of. It is well-known that a lot of animal and plant species are on the verge of extinction or have already become extinct (it is estimated that only 8 % of all animal species that existed on the Earth have survived till today), but it is less known that world languages are in similar situation. Many of them are really under threat, but it is necessary to distinguish among different degrees of endangerment:

a) *potentially endangered*. Languages have a relatively large number of speakers including child speakers but are without an official or prestigious status. They are not usually learnt in schools in the countries where they are used. This group includes, for example, *Kurdish, Tibetan, Quechua, Aymara language*. Sometimes *Belarusian language* is also included which

can be considered to be a curiosity since Belarusian president Alexander Lukašenko denied it in his public speech as a poor language and he claimed that here are only two rich languages in the world – English and Russian.

b) *endangered languages*. These languages are also acquired by younger generations, but only in particular areas of their existence: *upper Sorbian, Sardinian, Aramaic, Nahuatl language* etc. Sometimes *Romani language* is included.

Seriously endangered languages. These are languages with a quite substantial number of speakers but with practically no children among them: *lower Sorbian, Breton language*.

moribund languages. They are spoken only by a small number of adult semi-communicants. The number of speakers is so low that they are likely to become extinct: *Livonian, a lot of indigenous languages in America and Australia*. (For more information see: Ethnologue-Report)

The category of endangerment is probably more serious in relation to regional languages. A lot of languages that are stable in their homeland and are often spread to suppress minority languages can be seriously threatened in other countries where they are non-dominant. For example, German in France (in Alsace), Slovenian language in Austria, Spanish in Philippines, or Slovak in Hungary, Poland, Austria and in other countries. The conditions of the Slovak language differ in its homeland and abroad. According to sociolinguists the Slovak language does not need protection in its homeland (it just needs refinement and attention) while its foreign varieties require protective precautions (compare with our article Ondrejovič, 2004).

The extinction of languages is caused by different factors. From history we know that a lot of languages or even language families became extinct after the European colonisation of America and Australia. It is reported that from hundreds of Australian indigenous languages existing before European settlement only 10 or 20 have remained. The situation in America (North and South) is similar. Most of the indigenous languages ceased to exist after colonizers came there. As it is known they were displaced by four European languages: English, Spanish, Portuguese and French. Similar changes occurred in Africa as well. South of the Sahara there were older languages replaced by the Bantu language family while in North Africa older languages including, for example, culturally significant Coptic, were replaced especially by Arabic. Papua New

¹⁵ The fact that from time to time information about the discovery of new communities or tribes in inaccessible areas of Brazilia or Peru living in utter isolation from the outside world (recently in May 2008), or that new languages arise from "division" (compare, for example, with situation in Balkan region) appears in newspapers is considered to be less important.

Guinea represents a special area with a large number of threatened languages but the reason is completely different than in other continents. It is caused neither by colonisation, nor by spread of dominant languages, but by the geographic isolation of tribes. From 900 to 1000 languages are still used in Papua New Guinea most of which are threatened because of the small number of their users and isolation. In fact, Europe is poor in languages in comparison with the rest of the world (it represents only 3 % from total number of languages in the world), maybe this is why they have a greater chance of retention. Besides colonisation, political persecution (so-called ethnocide) and a missing education system, the negative factors causing the extinction of languages include mobility of inhabitants, the missing media (press, radio, television, though there are examples of when media caused the end of language) and the already mentioned globalisation (to put it more precisely glocalisation) pressure.

It is necessary to remember that 52 % of all existing languages are spoken by less than 10 000 speakers, 28 % are spoken less than 1000 speakers and 10 % less than 100 ones. Only languages that are spoken by more than 100 000 people which represent only 10 % of all languages have a real chance to survive (languages spoken by more than a million speakers have an even better chance to survive). From these facts we can surmise that a great number of languages will become extinct in the course of a few hundred years. Many of them face a shaky future because of a non-established literacy tradition, moreover, they do not have language's "base country" and they are not described precisely. On the other hand 11 dominant languages in the world (Mandarin Chinese, English, Hindi/Urdu, Spanish, Arabic, Portuguese, Russian, Japanese, German and Javanese) are spoken by more than a half of the world population.

Nowadays a lot of institutions, foundations, associations and organisations monitor the situation of endangered languages. They search for their native speakers, they learn these languages and edit grammars, dictionaries and collect texts (for more information visit web sites of Endangered Languages and Gesellschaft für bedrohte Sprachen). Some lists and classifications of endangered languages were elaborated on, including probably the best-known called the Red Book of Endangered Languages published by UNESCO. It reports 13 extinct, 9 nearly extinct, 26 seriously endangered, 38 endangered and 10 potentially endangered languages (compare with Red Book...). Naturally, the Slovak language is not among them.

Some people consider the extinction of languages to be something natural, as the Bible says it is a curse put on the human race for its recklessness. Moreover, there is an increasing demand for common language in our globalized society. In fact, the extinction of languages means a loss of cultural diversity for the human race comparable to a loss caused by the extinction of animal and plant species for the world. Language is closely related to our culture, our reception of the world and our ability to think. In this sense we are all in the shadow of the Babel tower. In spite of the fact that there is no literacy tradition in a lot of languages, there is a cultural tradition, their own conceptualization of the world and a practical sense. Beyond dispute a language is an important means of identification that participates in creating of esprit de corps.

And How Is It with the Slovak Language?

Even though the Slovak language was not included in the list of endangered, nor in the list of potentially endangered languages, there is no room for

complacency (for more details see: Ondrejovič, 2008, 2009).

The representatives of current sociolinguistics and pragmalinguistics recognize the contemporary Slovak national language as an interesting, fully developed as well as "self-asserting" Central-European language that fulfils all the functions required. From this point of view our language is not threatened by any other language and it exists in its own, so called, "normal sociolinguistic situation". On the other hand there are some authors (mostly laymen) who assert that the Slovak language is endangered (or at least its quality) and it is necessary to take radical measures to protect it. They see the solution as a return to purism in language. It is clear from the words of Július Handžárik who said that the Czechs and their supporters managed to contaminate the Slovak language which would not be easy to get rid of, especially if the purism is not sustained by all. Moreover, he said that in the current mishmash of information and languages every cultural language would change into non-cultural gibberish without the work of the purists. He has somehow forgotten that Slovak as well as other languages developed for a very long time without prescribing institutions and the purists; moreover, similar institutions are still missing in some of these countries even today (though there are dictionaries where the relevant rules and norms are set). As a result, it is not about language interference, but primarily it is about language cognition and the description of its norms and rules.

In Slovakia, there are no research studies of sense of language threat while in Czech linguistics these research studies were carried out in the 1990s by A. Stich (1995), J. Kraus (1996), S. Čmejrková and F. Daneš (1998). They revealed that the sense of language threat is surprisingly frequent especially among laymen who accuse the linguists of an "inappropriate" condition of language and its development. A similar situation exists even in Slovakia, but postures of defence are typical not only for Czech and Slovak linguistic situations. They occur especially in smaller language communities, but sometimes also in those where we would not expect them¹⁶. Recently similar opinions have appeared among speakers of the most successful "top" language of the world - English. But these are mostly laymen, too (e.g. English used in EU institutions and conferences murders Shakespeare's and Chaucer's language). On the other hand, most of professional linguists consider this new situation to be a new challenge for the English language. But there are some linguists with a similar opinion to the laymen mentioned, e.g. R. Filipson in his plenary speech in session of the European Federation of National Institutions for Language in Riga in 2007 used the term 'lingua frankenteiniana' for English instead of the traditionally used term 'lingua franca'. Moreover, there were many other unpleasant comments on English ("killer language") in his speech. A little bit bizarre is the fact that it was presented in English before a international European society.

The specifics of the Slovak situation (in comparison with Czech) are that not only laymen or amateurs, but even professional linguists speak about the gloomy future of the Slovak language. There are no linguists

¹⁶ As an example we can remind words of the President of the Central Committee of German Catholics (ZDK), Hans Joachim Meyer who said that is hardly possible to find in the world any other society which disperse its own language so blatantly and yield it so carelessly as German society does. His opinion was not supported in the following discussion on the internet.

with a similar opinion in the Czech Republic probably thanks to a long tradition of the Prague Linguistic Circle.

In a Slovak literary magazine called *Literárny týždenník* there are some articles which impose a sense of language threat to the readers even in their titles: *Krach jazykového vedomia* ("The Collapse of Language Cognition") (F. Kočiš, 2001/4), *Skaza jazyka alebo Kam sa ísť požalovať* ("The Devastation of Language or Where to Go to Lament") (A. Kret, 2001/10), *Prosba k Samovi Chalupkovi* ("The Supplication to Samo Chalupka") (J. Handžárik, 2001/10), *Súmrak kultúry* ("The Twilight of the Culture"), *Ako sa zbaviť slovakistov* ("How to get rid of the Slovakists") etc. Their authors (especially F. Kočiš) claim that in the mass media our native language is not spoken but that the Czechoslovakian language is used in public as well as in private mass media. It is a frustrating picture of destruction, deterioration and fall. It is a collapse of traditional communication values, their demise and death. It is the crisis of language and communication along with the crisis of statehood, the crisis of thinking of Slovak intelligence and, moreover, the crisis of thinking of the whole nation.

Similar thoughts are presented in some recent manifestos. The manifesto called *Výzva na ochranu národného jazyka* ("Appeal for Protection of National Language" published in *Literárny týždenník* on 22nd March 2006, number 9-10, pp. 1 – 2) was signed by Slovak linguists: Ā. Kráľ, J. Kačala and J. Doruľa as well as by Slovak writers and culture experts (L. Ťažký, M. Rufus, V. Turčány, Š. Moravčík, J. Markuš etc.). We will quote the first paragraph, from which the diction of the whole document is obvious: "The Slovak language has always been a political issue for the Slovaks. Unfortunately, it is still the same today in the independent Slovak Republic when various external interest and pressure groups exploit the *confusion* (highlighted by S. O.) of minds of some Slovaks successfully. As a result, destructive pressure on the Slovak language is carried out by the Slovaks themselves." It is not clearly defined which kind of external interests are mentioned, nor who the Slovaks exploiting other Slovaks unsure in their opinions are. And, finally, we do not know who the confused Slovaks are. The only thing clear is that there is an internal, as well as external, enemy who is not specified.

In the manifesto, there is an appeal to all "responsible institutions and representatives of the Slovak Republic" to protect our language more resolutely, because "the functional spectrum of the Slovak language narrows alarmingly, stability of formal language is disrupted, the function of national language in official communication is purposefully disparaged hiding it behind globalizing tendencies and low joviality. The culture of the Slovak language is being decreased intentionally."

If all the mentioned facts were true, it would be really necessary to take radical measures in the field of language policy. But is it really true that the functional spectrum of the Slovak language narrows alarmingly? From a non-ideologically burdened and non-prejudiced point of view it is not affirmed. On the contrary, the functional spectrum of the Slovak language has never been so wide and as finely differentiated as it is today. Moreover, the Slovak language has never been in such a good condition as it is now which is proven by the latest dictionaries, especially *Slovník súčasného slovenského jazyka* ("The Dictionary of Current Slovak Language"), grammatical, sociolinguistic and some other delineations of the Slovak language. Compared to the puristic period (during the 30s of the 20th century) which is considered by some people to be the "golden

age" of the Slovak language, current Slovak is obviously "better" and "more Slovak". Although in that time the classics of representatives of Slovak realism were published and issues of *Matica slovenská* were of a high linguistic level, ordinary periodicals reached only low linguistic levels in comparison with current criteria. Is the stability of standard language really being disrupted as is claimed in the manifesto? This is hardly the truth. In our opinion, this impression is a result of observing languages from a narrow point of view influenced by a dictated systematization. And we still do not know who and how they purposefully undermine the basis of standard Slovak.

In the manifesto there is a warning against a preference for English as well as against an "indolent introduction of English terms" that is exemplified by an anglicism "hand-out". The signers propose to substitute it for the already existing domestic expressions *príručka*, *pomôcka* and even *rukoväť*, or to substitute it for the newly introduced word *príručník*. This example clearly shows how it is difficult to replace anglicisms with domestic expressions when the anglicisms have already been established in some kind of communication spheres (expression "handout" has been used in the sphere of technical communication for more than 20 years); moreover, it shows how difficult it is because a lot of words were adopted alongside "modern amenities of Western civilisation" and a new life style that we have adopted from Anglo-Saxon countries. Words such as *príručka*, *pomôcka* are already engaged and the expression *rukoväť* bears an archaic trace. After all, attempts to substitute anglicisms for domestic expressions are sometimes successful ("popcorn" was successfully replaced by the Slovak word "pukance", "joint venture" by "spoločný podnik", "speaker" by "hovorca"), but we are not sure if "príručník" is that desired and most appropriate expression.

The signers of the manifesto together with laymen, referring to famous Slovak linguists such as: Ľ. Novák, J. Stanislav, E. Pauliny, blame the Ľudovít Štúr Institute of Linguistics for not fulfilling its task related to language culture. But the question is if these famous Slovak linguists would share the same opinion as they do. All of the linguists mentioned had a critical attitude to assertion about language decay, the alarming situation in language etc. According to research on Slovak usage called "Hovorená podoba spisovnej slovenčiny" ("Spoken Form of Standard Slovak") which was conducted in the 1960s in the whole of Slovakia, Eugen Pauliny confirmed that the use of Slovak was at a higher level than had been expected. It was not in accordance with previous statements about the alarming condition of the language, nor with later statements about the unfavourable state of Slovak, but it is not even in compliance with what is stated in the manifesto nowadays.

Another document similar to the manifesto called *Výzva k zodpovedným štátnym orgánom, ustanovizniám, politikom a slovenskej verejnosti* ("Appeal to the Responsible State Authorities, the Institutions, the Politicians and the Slovak Public") was signed by culture experts of civic associations of *Matica slovenská*, *Spoločenstvo kresťanské Slovensko*, *Bernolákova spoločnosť*, *Spoločnosť Andreja Hlinku* and *Združenie slovenskej inteligencie Korene Slovakia plus* where "misgivings about the constantly deteriorating quality of Slovak" are expressed. Its signers demand, among other things, the founding of a popular – scientific periodical similar to "Slovenská reč" ("Slovak Speech") and „make it available to all schools". *Slovenská reč* is being published today, moreover, *Kultúra slova*, a popular – scientific magazine, has been

added. The signers either do not know this or they do, but they want another kind of magazine similar to, for example, Slovenská reč in the 1930s. But Eugen Pauliny, who the signers of the first manifesto referred to (some people are signed on both documents), clearly formulated thirty years ago that while looking for an efficient means to increase the quality of standard Slovak the greatest mistake would be to imitate procedure successful in the 1930s. (Pauliny, 1979). In his booklet "Norma spisovnej slovenčiny a zásady jej kodifikovania" ("The Norm of Standard Slovak and Principles of its Codification"), published 40 years after he had written it, Eugen Pauliny appreciated the efforts of the purists to establish deviations in phonetic and grammatical norms as well as in dictionaries, but he also observed that the purists had directed care towards the refinement of standard Slovak into a *cul-de-sac*. (Pauliny, 2000, p. 24, compare with his legendary editorial in magazine Slovo a tvar, 1947). "Instead of a refinement of standard Slovak they introduced the terms 'purity' and 'peculiarity'. The method of purgation of standard language suggested and pursued by the purists could have led to an impoverishment of language and it could have become primitive, because it could not be developed and refined." (Pauliny, 2000, s. 23 – 24). By now it is evident that the activity of the purists during the 1930s was reflected as important in at least one part of Slovak linguistics, but with negative implications on the further development in the field of linguistic research.

It is necessary to add that opinions expressed in the two mentioned manifestos have appeared frequently throughout the history of mankind since the Hellenic Period. In the 3rd century B.C. Theophrastus claimed that the "golden age" of Greek was already over and he characterised it as a devastated and barbarized language. Similar opinions have regularly appeared in every subsequent period. The findings of sociolinguistics based on similar empirical research showing that all people demand a higher quality of language from others, not themselves, are also well-known. They are usually focused specifically on the language of mass media. The reason is that printed and electronic mass media have the greatest influence on the development of language norms today. Nowadays the language of belles lettres is not so important for the development of norms of standard Slovak as it was in times of the Slovak classical writers or so-called Martin usage. It is the same with performance speech which was very important for the development of norm of standard language in every country. That is why refined and prestigious Slovak with regard to genre and communication norm should be spoken in mass media. Common practice in mass media is not always in compliance with this requirement but it is necessary to distinguish our approaches to it. In mass media there are a lot of phenomena that differ from the norm e.g. "predať" (to sell) with the meaning "odovzdať" (to submit) or marked intonation of question etc. Generalization does not help to solve the problems mentioned. The only way is to consider the situation competently and with respect to all factors as well as a *patient refinement* of the language.

The sociolinguistic approach to the question of language culture is a little bit different: in comparison to the traditional approach it is characterized by more tolerance, but, particularly, it is more differentiated and it does not focus only on the standard language. In comparison to traditional linguistics it is "more responsible" which means that it does not prefer the easiest way of orders and bans or excluding anomalous or "non-systematic" forms; on the contrary, it tries to understand and explain them (if it is possible). Juraj

Dolník, who introduced intentional differentiation of the so-called reflexological and pragmatological approach to language, claims that systematicness is applied to language from outside (by linguists) which is not always in accordance with systematicness produced by speakers, i. e. by language itself. In a case where some "irregularities" are extremely frequent or are of exclusive use in language it is not appropriate to blame speakers of being incapable of understanding their needs or of being not nationally aware or nationally confident enough. (Dolník, 2002).

Influence of Other Languages on Slovak

Our language has been open to external contacts from time immemorial – contrary to, for example, Hungarian, "the loneliest" European language, or French vying with English for prestige. Slovak has been the least influenced by the purists from all the languages of the Danube region. During its entire history, Slovak (similar to the other languages) has at different levels adopted words and means from other languages, especially from Greek and Latin, but also from German, English, Russian etc. Recently some extralinguistic (political, cultural and economic) factors have made English expressive means the most influential. History teaches us that a language adopts what it needs and refuses, ignores or even dislodges what is redundant. And lastly, particularly the larger languages adopt the means of other languages, for example, English.

In the first volume of Slovník súčasného slovenského jazyka there are expressions adopted from 64 languages. As a result, it is noteworthy that most efforts were focused on "purifying" Slovak from words of Czech origin, partially from Germanisms (those which were adopted earlier and penetrated colloquial language are considered to be peculiar in Slovak today), sometimes from Hungarisms. There have been only a few efforts to exclude the influence of languages like French or Italian, from which a lot of words were adopted, as well as Latinisms. Nowadays English has become an untrustworthy partner.

It is true that the influence of English is so great that every language (including Slovak) coming in contact with English is inevitably influenced by it. In our opinion it is necessary to accept this new trend of transfer from the English language into European languages and to simply learn to "live with English". It means trying to handle it as much as possible, but not to lose access to information and to other important sources which will be "more and more English". We do not consider the proposal from Jazykovo-politická stratégia Slovenskej republiky ("The Language and Political Strategy of Slovakia") a good one, in which the learning of English in schools should be eliminated. On the other hand it does not mean that we should adopt Anglo-American language behaviour blindly and helplessly. That is why it is still important how detailed the description of the system of the Slovak language, its function, its great variability in valid norms and its environment is. The truth is that we can be successful in the refining and protecting of language only if we are aware of its valid norms and tendencies. It is necessary to give linguists more opportunities to express their attitudes to newly adopted words and terms more regularly. Nowadays the inflow of English words resembles an avalanche in some branches because of its uncontrolled development of terminologies. It is connected with attempts to establish a terminological centre where the experts (linguists, translators and specialists from various professions) will observe, assess, harmonise and standardise the inflow of new words. It is possible and necessary that our institute participates in the building

of so-called terminological networks.

Sometimes so-called deflection tendencies are identified in Slovak as a result of English influence: a) the instrumental has been replaced by the nominative in some grammatical constructions, e.g. *XY je spolupracovník redakcie* instead of *XY je spolupracovníkom redakcie*, b) the redundant use of the Slovak personal pronoun "ja", e.g. *Ja myslím* instead of *Myslím* according to English pattern *I think*, c) the transfer of attributive structures from foreign languages such as *Slovenská poisťovňa Cup* instead of *Pohár Slovenskej poisťovne*, d) the use of the nominative in indirect grammatical cases, e.g. *Navštívte IKEA* (Ripka, 2005). Of course, not all of the tendencies mentioned are of English origin. The exchange of the nominative and the instrumental in exemplified verbo-nominal constructions (type a)) has occurred in the Slovak language over a long period of time as many grammatical books prove, e.g. grammar written by Ružička – Pauliny – Štolc in 1968. Nor is the second type, based on the emphasis of the personal pronoun, reliable proof of English influence. Finally, the other examples are based on older patterns, e.g. *RH faktor*, but the fact that they are also spread by means of English is undisputable. Other types of use (e.g. *Navštívte IKEA*, *Autobus ide od Nový Most*, *upútavka firmy Blagbuss*) are perceived as completely non-normative. It seems that despite a lot of adoption in the field of lexis and grammatical structure English does not have much influence on the system of Slovak. Common process of interference (contact), adaptation (assimilation) and finally integration (reception) is not applied to all Anglo-American elements transferring into Slovak. This process is often interrupted in the first stage and the language gets rid of anglicisms completely or cuts them out on the periphery into some marginal sphere of communication. Only some of the elements are adopted and inserted into the system.

Slovak as a unique and original Central-European language, which is well developed and described (there is a constant increase in delineation of current language norms), belongs to the languages of the European Union and the Slovak language law is relatively well-balanced. As a result we suppose that our language defends its position even in the context of integration and globalisation efforts and processes and, moreover, it will be able to cope with anything that may occur within the environment of the European Union. When in the middle of the 20th century Pavel Eisner, the author of the legendary book called *Chrám i tvrz*, was asked if it is likely that the Czech language will cease to exist, this excellent essayist and translator answered that it was likely to be the case, but was not sure when. Only one thing was certain: it would be a little bit earlier than English would (Eisner, 1977). For a long time we supposed that the question of the possible extinction of Slovak could be answered similarly. But today we are a little bit doubtful. The current situation clearly demonstrates that the current conditions of English obviously resemble the situation of Latin which is considered to be a dead language today. English has also become a universal language of the world and it has begun to divide into many geographical types. It is unlikely that the development of the Slovak language will be similar and, moreover, a typological as well as qualitative deterioration of the Slovak language is unlikely, too.

Translated by Ľudmila Adamová

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Computer Enlargement of the Russian Vocabulary

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Abstract

The article is devoted to the problem of the interaction between various cultures including that inside the language systems. As a result, a very complicated and significant problem arises, i.e. revealing the sources of the modern word coinage. In the context of our work we will consider texts from cyberspace. The intrusion of the virtual reality in all spheres of modern culture is an essential attribute of the time. Thus, we have a peculiar virtual sociolinguistic culture with its own distinguishing features and properties. The complexity of this problem is justified

by numerous discussions.

Keywords

Carnival, communication, cybertexts, international medium, jargon, languages for special/ specific purposes, lingua franca, polystylistic culture, tolerance, word coinage

Introduction

The keynote of many works devoted to the modern situation in the linguistic, social, and cultural sphere is the important problem of tolerance/intolerance towards the interaction between various cultures and subcultures at different levels, including that inside the language system. It's in the area of the borrowing of new words (mainly from the English language) which has been enriching the Russian language since the end of the 20th century that the tolerance of the Russian word-building system manifests itself best of all. One can say that the tolerance can be a linguo-sociocultural category for it obtains different comprehension in different social groups interpreting verbal and non-verbal signs differently, depending on their mental attitudes.

For the purpose of the present research we will consider the tolerance as a specific attitude to the modern processes of word coinage within the framework of the Russian vocabulary by means of English borrowings from the computer field of activity.

Why English?

As P. Jesenská (Slovakia) notes, it is estimated that nearly 400 million people consider the English language their mother tongue and almost another 300 million speakers use it as their second language. Hundreds of millions of interlocutors use English in tourism, during business negotiations, in international academic programs and institutions and in many other fields of the 'third sector' where English is used as a lingua franca [Jesenska, 2007].

If a language is a truly international medium it is going to be most apparent in those services which deal directly with the task of communication – the postal and telephone systems and the electronic network.

D. Crystal says that another widely quoted statistic is that 80 per cent of the world's electronically stored information is currently in English. Figures of this kind relate to two kinds of data: information stored privately by individual firms and organizations and information made available through the Internet, whether for sending and receiving electronic mail, participating in discussion groups, or providing and accessing databases and data pages. ... Statistics reflects the pioneering role of the USA in developing and marketing computational hardware and software. In particular, given the American origin of the Internet (as ARPANET, the Advanced research Projects Agency network devised

in the late 1960s), it is not surprising that most Internet hosts – 64 per cent, according to a *Business Week* survey – are to be found in the USA. A further 12.7 per cent were thought to be in other English-speaking countries. ... The dominance of this language was then reinforced when the service was opened up in the 1980s to private and commercial organizations, most of which were already communicating chiefly in English [Crystal, 2007].

In his article "World, Wide, Web: 3 English Words" M. Specter underlines the role of English and in conclusion he says: 'if you want to take full advantage of the Internet there is only one way to do it: learn English which has more than ever become America's greatest and most effective export.' [Crystal, 2007].

As A. Voronov ironically comments, 'it is far easier for a Russian language speaker with a computer to download the works of Dostoyevsky translated into English to read than it is for him to get the original in his own language.' [Crystal, 2007].

So, nowadays computer and information technologies are developing tremendously. Communication by means of the Internet passes all national frontiers and ignores all the cultural differences between the communicating parties.

As a result, a very complicated and significant *problem* arises, i.e. revealing the sources of the modern word coinage in the scope of the Russian or any other language vocabulary.

The *purpose* of the present work is the reviewing of computer texts as rich sources of satiation of the Russian vocabulary.

Materials and **methods**: the analysis of the theoretic base on the issue and the entire selection of computer neologisms followed by their analysis and classification.

Cybertexts

The Internet-space can be considered as a particular communication field, thanks to some specific conditions of communication: voluntary contacts and the interaction of various cultural strata, which results in passing the cultural barriers. The Internet promotes the formation of a completely new, global type of community by proposing a particular type of texts which are based on cultural and spiritual kinship.

As A. Klimchukova (Slovakia) points out, 'Texts may vary by their volume, genre, and style. Facing a text with a great deal of vocabulary units we cannot say that it is more valuable than another one! Neither can we say

about the genre and stylistic rating of this or that text... Each text being created by an author and transforming through time and space attains express features of animation. It becomes a living organism and can continue to exist independently of its creator's reins. On its way, the text undergoes interpretation by philosophers, logicians, psychologists, culture experts, linguists etc. (e.g., by the representatives of various professional and social groups – *the note by T. Kuprina*).

Interpreting a text, we take into consideration its context, as at first we define which relational network it could be associated with, which integral group of texts it belongs to, what semantic levels it has, and how stable it is in the cultural continuum. Therefore, we can say that the language – just like a mirror – reflects various kinds of mental entities (mental, cognitive)... in the process of the cognition of the world.

Nowadays new aspects of the research appear to reveal essential features in different language spheres. A new paradigm in the present-day linguistics is the anthropo-philosophical one, making actual the approach to the language as to an image of space in its real, visible, spiritual and mental aspects [Климчукова, 2004].

In the context of our work, we will consider texts from cyberspace. The intrusion of the virtual reality in all spheres of modern culture is an essential attribute of the time. Thus we have a peculiar virtual sociolinguistic culture with its own distinguishing features and properties.

Language for special purposes

The new phenomenon provokes the creation of the definition area, leads to the terminological explosion, i.e. to the massive appearance of new terms, terminological fields and systems, and brings serious changes into existing ones.

At the beginning of the 1970's the term «languages for special/ specific purposes» appears. They are considered as a functional variety of modern national languages used in special spheres of social relations. Languages for special purposes are a means of communication in every socio-professional sphere.

Among aspects to be studied it is necessary to notice the problem of choice between native and borrowed or international terms, between norms and professional, jargon synonymic definitions.

So, languages for special purposes are stylistically divided into some styles: literary or normative and lower ones: professionally colloquial and professional jargons. Depending on a context any lexical unit can be either normative or, taking into consideration some expressive moments, colloquial or jargon.

Nowadays the modern situation in the Russian language is considered a transition from a monostylistic socialistic culture to a polystylistic one, containing the diversity of interacting cultures and subcultures.

The computer jargon

In particular, computer language appeared, first of all, as a programmers' professional jargon. However, it didn't take it long to pass the boundaries of the professional community and attain the features of a group or corporate jargon with an increasing number of speakers [Виноградова, 2001].

The distinctive features of computer jargon are a prevalence of written speech and a multifunction of the vocabulary units. On the one hand, according to their origin, these units are professionalisms. On the other hand, however, beyond the professional context, they are perceived as neologisms for there are no synonyms in the Russian language naming the corresponding phenomena, while the descriptive translation is often

awkward and doesn't meet the principles of linguistic economy.

The following difficulties of translation can be figured out: the lack of exact equivalents (*браузер* – *браузер*) and the standard of translation. While such units as *принтер* (a printer) have already assimilated into the language, more specific notions, such as *account* and *profile* (the user data being typed-in in the course of registration) can be translated in different ways: *аккаунт*, *профиль*, *профайл*, *учетная запись*; the acronym *ICQ*, or *ICQ-pager* can be translated as *ICQ-пейджер* or *Аська*.

The complexity of this problem is justified by numerous discussions. Thus, in one TV-program devoted to the 'purity' of the Russian language, the issue of the translation of the word combination *e-mail* was discussed. Among others, the equivalent *электронная почта* was proposed. However, after a deeper analysis one can detect that the word *электрон* has originated from the English language descending from a Greek root, and the word *почта* was borrowed from Italian through the Polish language. Thus while such phenomenon exists, it has no native Russian definition. As examples of the definitions, such words as *e-mail*, *электронка* and even *мыло*, the verb *мылить*, i.e. to write or send a message by e-mail, can be used. For example, *Отмыль мне, что там у вас происходит*.

Here is the prospect of another complicated problem i.e. the enriching of the Russian language with jargon in all its spheres. Computer jargon is one of the most widespread. It even serves for creating texts belonging to various genres and being stored in electronic libraries. One can even speak of the whole trend of Internet-literature.

As P.V. Likholtov points out, computer jargon is a new phenomenon in the Russian language. Its novelty is determined by the fact that its speakers and creators are the representatives of a comparatively 'young' profession – they are programmers. Computer jargon not only allows the specialists in programming to understand each other easily, it also helps them to feel like members of a certain closed community separated from the 'ignorant'. The phenomenon of such language separation is a characteristic feature of all professional groups, not only programmers [Лихолитов, 1997].

Indeed, on the one hand, access to the texts written in this jargon is less accessible, they are 'blackened out' for the 'ignorant'. So, the task of 'secrecy', characterizing any jargon, is implemented. There are even special words with negative connotation denoting a layperson in computer issues (*ламер*, *чайник*). However, this sort of jargon is completely 'free' for adaptation and it is even becoming fashionable to use such texts both in written and in oral speech.

Carnival can be considered a specific emotional and expressive function of computer jargon. It consists of an almost indispensable, obligatory introduction of ironic and/or humorous connotative elements in the semantics of jargon units. A new unit is included in the computer jargon not only on the thematic ground, but also depending on the presence of a certain grain of irony [Виноградова, 2001].

Thus the duality of computer jargon manifests itself. To know it is rather prestigious. However, learning the part of the jargon bordering on computer technologies is most laborious and is intelligible to some people. As a result literary words and professional terms obtain carnival, ironically lowered synonyms.

Besides, computer jargon often contains words denoting new phenomena of the computer sphere that don't have any counterparts in the Russian literary language. In this case 'carnival' is also an essential condition, and sometimes even grounds, for a new

coinage. For example, the coinage *Аська* (the computer program ICQ designed to have a simultaneous polylogue in the Internet). The English borrowing ICQ being a homophone to the phrase 'I seek you' was associated with the Russian female name and transformed into the word *Аська*. This association and the corresponding combinability attach to this coinage a distinctive 'carnival' mode, which has, evidently, been the reason for its formation. For example, *говорит, общаться по Аське (через Аську), найти кого-либо по Аське (через Аську), использовать Аську, входить в Аську* etc.

As for computer jargon thesaurus formation, it is mainly enriched at the expense of the American variant of the English language. A. Voronov has called this phenomenon 'a pure intellectual colonialism'. As computers came from the USA, the people in other countries had either to accept the English language as a necessary linguistic component of this technological structure or to refuse to use it in their activities [Лихолитов, 1997].

This phenomenon might be compared to a sort of speech aggression. Some scholars (L.A. Vvedenskaya, T.V. Zharkova) note that the unrestrained torrent of the English borrowings has caused the calling of the Russian language 'Inter-Russian' or 'English-Russian slang' or, shortly, *русангл* [Жаркова, 2007].

The structure of the terminology

Having reviewed the materials dedicated to this problem, let us give examples of borrowings and word-building.

1. Direct transliteration of the English word: *бай* (bye!) – a common form of valediction; *варнинг* (warning) – the notification of a possible program fault or emergency situation; *девайс* (device) – any mechanism or its functional part.
2. Phonetic mimicry, i.e. phonetic and grammatical 'distortion' of the original: *батон* (button); *гама* (game). Proper names are often used: error – *Егор*; laser printer – *Лазарь*.
3. Ironical and carnival rethinking of an already existing lexeme with a stylistically lowered variant revealing some shocking or indecent, 'carnival' meanings: *блин* – compact disk; *голдэд* or *голый дед* (GoldEd – message editor).
4. Coincidence of word parts, i.e. a Russian jargon word is complemented with an English borrowing: break point – *бракпоинт*; Windows – *виндовоз*.
5. Onomatopoeia at the expense of moving certain sounds in the original English term: MS-DOS – *мздос*; interpreter – *интертрепатор*; Pentium – *пентюх*.
6. Acronyms, i.e. abridgements of English origin and formed using English derivation models not yet included in the process of their adaptation by the Russian language. *AFAIK* – as far as I know; *BTW* – by the way; *FYI* – for your information; *IMHO* – in my humble opinion.

These examples illustrate another important feature of computer jargon. The circumstances of communication involve its participants to the highest possible speed of information transmission, therefore it obviously tends to simplification, minimization and standardization of language means. In combination with 'carnival' it calls into existence such, unusual for the Russian language, words as *3bl* – P.S., post scriptum (the keys of the keyboard are located in such way that Latin letter P corresponds to Cyrillic letter З, and S corresponds to Ъ).

7. The combination of letters and numbers. In the English language, it is a well-known technique that is currently passing to the Russian derivation system: 2 – to; 2U – to you; CU – see you; L8R – later; OIC – Oh, I see.

8. Using other alphabets. For example, in the Internet advertisement they often use the combination of the letters *q* and *π* in the meaning of the Russian imperative form *купи*.

In the following tables we show some peculiarities of Russian computer jargon.

The proper names belonging to the cybertexts		
1	Acer, компьютер	Азер
2	Adobe Illustrator	Люстра
3	AMD Duron, процессор	Дурень, Дурик
4	AutoCAD, система автоматизированного проектирования	Автогад
5	Apple Macintosh	Мак
6	CheckIt Dhrystones and Whetstones	Дристоны и вистоны
7	Cisco Systems, Inc.	Циска
8	Corel DRAW, графический пакет	Дрова горелые, Король дров
9	Counter-Strike, игра	Контра, КС
10	DOS Navigator	Дос Нафигатор

Virtual formulas of communication and their graphical means		
1	:)	улыбка, краткое изображение улыбающегося человека во время текстового общения
2	<3	(англ. Love (a sideways heart) — Любовь (лежащее на боку сердце)
3	10x	(англ. Thanks) спасибо
4	2U	(англ. to you) для Вас
5	3.14	замена слога «пи» (иногда применяется для эвфемизации матерных выражений)
6	4U	(англ. for you) для тебя
7	4YI	(англ. for your information) к вашему сведению
8	AFAIK	(англ. as far as I know) насколько я знаю
9	AFAIR	(англ. as far as I remeber) насколько я помню
10	AFK	(англ. away from keyboard) прочь от клавиатуры (я отойду от компьютера)

Conclusion

The jargon in the Russian language, according to some authors' opinions, is a kind of 'outlet' for it simplifies and quickens the process of adaptation of an English term. Computer jargon, in the majority of cases, consists of English borrowings or phonetic associations; cases of translation are rare.

The existence of computer jargon allows specialists not only to feel like members of a certain closed community but also to understand each other easily. It serves as a means of communication, otherwise they would have to speak English or use awkward professionalisms formed by the model of descriptive translation.

The development of this language phenomenon and its spread among Russian native speakers is mainly conditioned by the implementation of computer equipment in the life of modern society. For example, one elderly woman in a shop said to the other: "Look, what *hacked* apples they sell!" [Лихолитов, 1997].

Nowadays, computer jargon is becoming the object of a thorough linguistic investigation, for there are cases when special vocabulary penetrates into literary language and anchors there for a long period of time.

What is for the tolerant attitude to the word coinages in the Russian vocabulary and socio-cultural processes, it is rather contradictory. On the one hand, this phenomenon is viewed as an aggressive factor. On the other hand, there are some positive features. In particular, some scholars point out the tolerance of the Russian derivation structures towards other language systems (e.g., the one of the English language), the ability to process a large torrent of borrowings. In this connection, some authors give optimistic forecasts concerning the development and enlargement of the Russian language system, namely at the expense of its tolerance [Попова, 2005]. Probably, this process also influences the whole socio-cultural system of our society, which is learning to be tolerant towards various subcultures, both in intra- and cross-cultural spheres.

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Dynamic and Static Semantics of the English Verb in Motion Events: An Attempt at an Integrated Approach

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Abstract

The Firbasian theory of functional sentence perspective (FSP) seems to have vindicated its firm place in the area of theories of information structure. Advocating a dynamic approach to the semantic analysis, FSP represents a logical counterpart of what is usually referred to as static semantics. Innovatively enough, the present paper looks at the role of the English verb acting in motion events from the point of view of both dynamic and static semantics. The authors believe that such an approach may reveal more about the functional character of the transitional verbs operating in Quality and Presentation dynamic semantic scales respectively. To be more specific, the research corpus is made up of sentences containing self-agentive locomotion verbs found within selected narrative and dialogic texts from the New Testament.

Keywords

Dynamic semantics; static semantics; FSP; self-agentive locomotion verbs; dynamic scales



Introduction

In the framework of the Firbasian theory of functional sentence perspective (FSP) the English verb almost prototypically tends to be the mediator (i.e.

transition) between the theme and the rheme. The present paper discusses the semantic characteristics of the English verb operating in the transitional sphere of the clause, with special regard to **self-agentive locomotion verbs**. The theory of FSP – applying naturally above all dynamic semantics – will be amended by the corresponding insights deriving from the area of static semantics of the verb. Current research has shown that outcomes of dynamic semantic analysis may be organically and fruitfully complemented by its static counterpart; as a result, the overall picture of the language under examination is more coherent. The paper aims to show that static semantics – more specifically, verbal semantic content – plays an important role in shaping the resultant dynamic semantic scale of a sentence (the term is used in the Firbasian sense, see e.g. Firbas 1992). The semantic aspects of verbs operating in sentences implementing the Presentation or Quality Scale respectively are examined and exemplified by means of statistical and FSP analysis of a sample corpus based on religious discourse.

1. The Sample Corpus

The sample corpus consists of the following integral, predominantly narrative passages of *The Holy Bible, New International Version* (hereafter abbreviated NIV): six chapters from the *Gospel According to St. Matthew* (sections Mt 1:18-4:25; 5:1-12; 6:9-13); three abridged chapters of the *Gospel According to St. John* (verses J 1:1-9.14; 1:19-28; 3:1-18; 4:1-42); two extracts from the *Gospel According to St. Luke* (Lk 2:1-20; 10:30-34); and, finally, two passages from the *Book of Acts of the Apostles* (Acts 2:1-4; 4:31-35). To sum up, the analysis explores 167 biblical verses containing altogether 404 distributional fields. This makes up a sample corpus of

over 4,200 words (for the corpus in full, see Adam 2009).

2. FSP

The theory of FSP – rooted in the functional-structural teaching of the Prague School and especially of its Brno branch – explores the information structure of utterances and the relationships between the units of information in the utterance in the immediately relevant context. Thus it approaches a piece of language from the dynamic perspective. According to Firbas, who elaborated the theory into its fully-fledged and renowned shape (summarised in Firbas 1992), the sentence is a field of semantic and syntactic relations that in turn provides a distributional field of degrees of communicative dynamism (CD), which is defined as “the extent to which the element contributes towards the development of the communication” (Firbas 1964: 270). The degrees of CD are determined by the interplay of FSP factors: linear modification, context and semantic structure, which are joined by intonation in spoken discourse (Firbas 1992: 14-6). In accordance with the distribution of the degrees of CD, each sentence constituent corresponds to one communicative unit. Units carrying a lower degree of CD form the thematic part of the sentence and those carrying a higher degree of CD form – together with so called transition – the non-thematic part of the sentence.

Every sentence implements one of the dynamic semantic scales, which functionally reflect the distribution of communicative dynamism and operate irrespective of word order. In principle, Firbas distinguishes two types of the dynamic semantic scales: the Presentation Scale and the Quality Scale. In contrast with a static approach towards semantic functions of sentence constituents (e.g. affected participant, agent, instrument etc.), the dynamic semantic functions may change in the course of the act of communication; the same element may thus perform different functions in different contexts and under different conditions. The **Presentation Scale** (Pr-Scale) includes three basic dynamic semantic functions: firstly, there is a scene (Setting) of the action, i.e. typically temporal and spatial items of when and where the action takes place. Secondly, the existence or appearance on the scene is

typically conveyed by a verb (Presentation of Phenomenon) and, thirdly, the major, most dynamic element (Phenomenon) is literally ushered onto the scene. The **Quality Scale** (Q-Scale) represents, in essence, an opposite in comparison with the Presentation Scale. Something new, context-independent (Specification) is said about the subject (Bearer of Quality). The verb usually performs the transitory DSF of Quality. Naturally, all actions typically have a scene and happen at some time and in some place (Setting).

3. The English Verb and FSP: Static & Dynamic Approach

From the point of view of dynamic semantics (as adopted by FSP), the English verb tends to have a relatively empty meaning and serves as a mediator between the subject and other sentence elements. Firbas sees the English verb to be also a transition between the theme and the rheme. Under circumstances, the verb either ascribes a quality to the subject, bridging its specification, or presents something new on the scene if it expresses the existence or appearance on the scene with "explicitness or sufficient implicitness" (Firbas 1995: 65; cf. Adam 2009: 92-4). Elaborating on the dynamic character of FSP treatment of semantics, Firbas claims that "through the interplay of FSP factors, FSP determines the positions of communicative units, i.e. their degrees of CD, in the development of the communication that takes place within the sentence" (Firbas 1991: 89). Also Vachek, observing an analogous tendency of the English verb, argues that "in English the old Indo-European function of the verb i.e. that of denoting some action has been most perceptibly weakened" (Vachek 1995: 23). Apart from that, being a part of an analytical language, "the English finite verb form appears to be much less dynamic in character (...) and frequently ceases to be the unmatched instrument of predication, being often reduced to something that very closely resembles a copula" (Vachek 1976: 342).

As has been mentioned above, from the point of view of dynamic semantics (in the Firbasian sense), verbs typically represent transitional elements (cf., e.g., Firbas 1992 and Adam 2009) in that they are endowed with the function of linking the thematic and the non-thematic section of the sentence (Firbas 1992: esp. 91, and Adam 2009: esp. 92-94). From the point of view of static semantics, verbs represent the main organising elements in the formation of the sentence (it is well known that they shape the sentence in that they play a decisive role in determining participant roles).¹⁷ It may be argued that this formative function of verbs in the static semantic structuration of the sentence runs counter to their (prototypical) transitional status (in terms of the degrees of communicative dynamism as placed on them). This discrepancy between static semantics and dynamic semantics is, however, imaginary only. It can be reconciled by appealing to the fact that the formative function of the verb subsumes the verb's mediating (transitional) role (meant here in terms of static semantics) – in other words, that the verb plays a mediating role both in the dynamic

semantic structuration of the sentence and in its static semantic structuration. An explanation may be offered. As mentioned, in the theory of FSP verbs have (in the majority of cases at least) a mediating position. This position of verbs in the dynamic semantic structuration of the sentence is, in actual fact, in accord with their position in the "static" semantic structuration of the sentence. Let us recall that verbs play a crucial role in determining the type of participant roles. It should be realised that, in doing so, they also determine the nature of the relations holding between the participants (this is only natural because the type of a participant role is constituted also by its relation to the other participants in a sentence). That is, verbs provide the link between the participants and, in this respect, they fulfil a mediating role. It should be added that verbs bring into mutual relationship both participant roles (arguments) and non-participant roles (adjuncts). That is, their mediating role is not confined to participant only but covers also non-participants, which are, as aptly formulated by Frawley (1992: 148), "less structurally attached to the verb". In the case of motion situations, verbs co-specify (together with spatial prepositions) the relation between the moving entity and some spatial point, i.e. they specify the entity's (changing) position. The spatial point in question may be a source or a goal of a motion, or the entity's position on the path.

Before looking into the formation of dynamic semantic scales, a description of the verbs' lexico-semantic content with special regard to their use in biblical texts will be offered.

4. Self-Agentive Verbs and their Use in Biblical Texts

Self-agentive locomotion verbs are commonly classified into two groups, manner of motion verbs and path verbs (Asher and Sablayrolles 1996, Levin and Rappaport Hovav 1992, Miller and Johnson-Laird 1976, Rosen 1984, Talmy 1985, *inter alia*). **Manner of motion verbs** lexicalise the physical modality of motion (*walk, run, swim, dance, strut, wander, stagger*, etc.) but, in contrast to the so-called **path verbs**, are mute about the direction of motion unless they combine with a path phrase (as in *John walked into the room, John ran to the park, John swam towards the shore*). Path verbs have a largely different lexico-semantic content. They do not encode information about the manner of the motion but lexicalise "the configuration and position of the path, often specified in relation to the direction of motion" (Matsumoto 1996: 190), cf. *John came/ left/ went/ arrived/ returned/ appeared*.¹⁸ In the biblical texts under analysis (both narrative and dialogic texts) the overwhelming majority of self-agentive motion verbs are those that belong to the category of path verbs. This fact is undoubtedly part of the encoder's narrative strategy. An explanation will now be offered.

As mentioned, manner of motion verbs lexicalise the physical modality of the mover's displacement. This means that the change in the mover's position is presented as a result of a concrete type of his physical activity (when one walks, for example, one changes location by means of manipulating his body in a specific, concrete way). This fact has an important ramification in the distribution of the semantic weight

¹⁷ It should be added at this point that what also comes into play is the meaning of a given construction. Syntactic constructions are not mere realizations of certain components of verbal semantic structure but are endowed with their own semantic potential. The resultant meaning of the sentence is thus an outcome of the interaction between the meaning of the verb and the meaning of the construction (on this see esp. Croft 2003 and Goldberg 1995).

¹⁸ This strict partition between manner of motion verbs and path verbs has led some writers (e.g., Levin and Rappaport Hovav 1992:252) to the conclusion that 'manner of motion' is in complementary distribution with 'direction'.

as placed on the mover and the movement. More specifically, the presence of meaning components expressing the concrete physical modality of motion distract, to a certain degree, the decoder's attention from the simple fact of the mover's change of location to the physical attributes of the motion, i.e. to how the movement is carried out (on this see also Kudrnáčová 2008: 45). For example, in the motion situation expressed in *John walked to the park* the attention is allocated between the mover, his displacement (including its goal) *and* the manner of the displacement.

In addition, the manner in which the motion is executed may be indicative of the mental and/or physical state of the mover. For example, when one runs somewhere, one may be in an aroused state of mind (the verb *run* may thus be used in situations in which no "running" is carried out). Certain manner of motion verbs are, in this respect, clearly indexical, i.e. they are endowed with the function of pointing to the inner self of the mover (cf. "strutting to a place" or "wandering about a place"). From this it follows that in situations grasped by means of manner of motion verbs it is not only the identity of the mover that is part of the motion scenario but, potentially, also the mover's inner state.

Path verbs, by contrast, are mute about the concrete physical modality of motion and profile the motion as a bare change in the moving entity's localisation. In other words, the change in the mover's position is stripped of aspects of meaning that express the physical modality of motion (and that may also point to the state of the mover's self). This fact has an impact on the distribution of semantic weight as placed on the entity and its displacement. More specifically, the absence of manner components makes it possible to place semantic weight on the identity of the mover (not on his inner characteristics) and on the path of a given movement (including the goal of the movement and/or its source).

At this point in the discussion, a remark concerning the use of path verbs is in order. As mentioned, path verbs present motion as a simple change of location abstracted from components of meanings that characterise the moving entity, including the entity's causal role with respect to the occurrence of the motion.¹⁹ Path verbs are thus well suited to designate abstract movements. Cf. the following two illustrative corpus examples with the verbs *appear* and *enter*, in which no real, physical movement occurs (in ex. [1] the event of appearance occurs in one's inner vision):

[1] *But after he had considered this, an angel of the Lord appeared to him in a dream and said, "Joseph son of David, /.../."* (The Birth of Jesus Christ, Matthew 1:20)

[2] *"How can a man be born when he is old?" Nicodemus asked. "Surely he cannot enter a second time into his mother's womb to be born!"* (Jesus Teaches Nicodemus, John 3:4)

In view of the differences between path verbs and manner of motion verbs as discussed thus far, it does not come as a surprise to learn that in the biblical texts under analysis what is typically expressed is not the

manner of motion but the simple fact of translocation – hence the overwhelming use of path verbs as mentioned above (see also section 4.2 below). This observation only corroborates the findings deriving from recent research into genre specifics of religious discourse: a biblical narrative / dialogue is not a genuine one but a rather stylised text with didactic and theological flavour. As such, it does not primarily depict the characters' qualities or their feelings and experiences, but focuses on the mere fact that they have arrived on the spot and are there; thus, they foreground their existence / appearance on the scene (cf. Adam 2008: 46-47).

4.1 Presentation Scale

Quite expectedly, then, in motion situations that are instantiations of the presentation scale only path verbs are resorted to. Being mute about the concrete physical realisation of the movement, these types of verb help to direct the decoder's attention to the identity of the mover. Cf. the following examples with the path verbs *come*, *appear* and *follow*:

[3] *When a Samaritan woman came to draw water. Jesus said to her, "Will you give me a drink?"* (Jesus Talks with a Samaritan Woman, John 4:7)

[4] *The woman said, "I know that Messiah (called Christ) is coming. When he comes, he will explain everything to us."* (Jesus Talks with a Samaritan Woman, John 4:25)

[5] *Then Jesus came from Galilee to the Jordan to be baptised by John.* (The Baptism of Jesus, Matthew 3:13)

[6] *The tempter came to him and said, "If you are the Son of God, tell these stones to become bread."* (The Temptation of Jesus, Matthew 4:3)

[7] *Then the devil left him, and the angels came and attended him.* (The Temptation of Jesus, Matthew 4:11)

[8] *Large crowds from Galilee, the Decapolis, Jerusalem, Judea and the region across the Jordan followed him.* (Jesus Heals the Sick, Matthew 4:25)

Naturally, a prototypical presentation scale is implemented by means of the verb *appear*. This verb renders the path as strictly bipolar, which means that the processual part of the movement is completely pushed into the background. The upshot is that the mover's 'appearance on the scene' (in the Firthian terminology) has as a markedly contrastive value (cf. Kudrnáčová 2006). This makes it possible to place the greatest semantic weight on the mover, i.e. on the 'phenomenon appearing on the scene'. Cf.:

[9] *Suddenly a great company of heavenly host appeared with the angel, praising God and saying, "Glory to God in the highest, and on earth peace to men on whom his favour rests."* (The Shepherds and the Angels, Luke 2:13-14)

[10] *An angel of the Lord appeared to them, and the glory of the Lord shone around them, and they were terrified.* (The Shepherds and the Angels, Luke 2:9)

[11] *Then Herod called the Magi secretly and found out from them the exact time the star had appeared.* (The Visit of the Magi, Matthew 2:7)

From the point of view of FSP, it follows that the transitional verbs found within the Pr-scale (Pr-Verbs) present something new on the scene; this property is

¹⁹ By this it is meant that, as opposed to situations grasped by means of manner of motion verbs, the mover is not causally related to the occurrence of the movement. One outcome of this fact is the impossibility of forming reflexive constructions (cf. * *John went himself to the door* vs. *John walked himself to the door*) and causative constructions (cf. * *John went Mary to the door*, * *Mary was gone to the door* vs. *John walked Mary to the door*, *Mary was walked to the door*).

defined as an expression of "the existence or appearance on the scene with explicitness or sufficient implicitness (Firbas 1995: 65). Research clearly shows that all the Pr-verbs manifest – to a different extent – at least one of the two qualities examined: existence or appearance. The varying degree of the property is partly reflected by the fact that the property in question may be actually expressed either with explicitness or different degrees of implicitness. The Pr-verbs then, in accordance with their tendency to recede to the background, perform the presentation function, ushering the phenomenon on the scene of the communication. In this way, the observations made from the point of view of static semantics are in full harmony with the conclusions drawn from the dynamic semantic realm of FSP.

4.2 Quality Scale

In this type of scale, both path verbs and also manner of motion verbs are used. In the analysed texts, the following path verbs are used: *come*, *go*, *appear*, *escape*, *leave*, *withdraw*, *return*, *follow*, *hurry off* and *enter*. Cf.:

- [12] *They came out of the town and made their way toward him.* (The Disciples Rejoin Jesus, John 4: 30)
- [13] *Now he had to go through Samaria.* (Jesus Talks with a Samaritan Woman, John 4: 4).
- [14] *As soon as Jesus was baptised, he went up out of the water.* (The Baptism of Jesus, Matthew 3:16)
- [15] *"Get up," he said, "take the child and his mother and escape to Egypt. /.../."* (The Escape to Egypt, Matthew 2:13)
- [16] *So he got up, took his child and his mother during the night and left for Egypt, where he stayed until the death of Herod.* (The Escape to Egypt, Matthew 2:14-15)
- [17] *Having been warned in a dream, he withdrew to the district of Galilee, and he went and lived in a town called Nazareth.* (The Return to Nazareth, Matthew 2:22-23)
- [18] *When Jesus heard that John had been put in prison, he returned to Galilee.* (Jesus Begins to Preach, Matthew 4:12)
- [19] *At once they left their nets and followed him.* (The Calling of the First Disciples, Matthew 4:20)
- [20] *So they hurried off and found Mary and Joseph, and the baby, who was lying in the manger.* (The Shepherds and the Angels, Luke 2:16)
- [21] *Jesus answered, "I tell you the truth, no one can enter the kingdom of God unless he is born of water and the Spirit. /.../."* (Jesus Teaches Nicodemus, John 3:5)

Related to the semantic prominence given to the directionality of motion in these motion situations is the possibility of profiling the purpose of the motion Cf. the use of a final clause in the following example (in FSP terminology, the infinitive non-finite clause performs a dynamic semantic function of a Specification of the verb):

- [22] *"/.../ We saw his star in the east and have come to worship him."* (The Visit of the Magi, Matthew 2:2)

As has already been mentioned, manner of motion verbs are resorted to much less frequently in the biblical texts under analysis. In actual fact, only five (sic!) such verbs can be found within the total of 404

basic distributional fields, namely, *get up* (three times), *throw oneself down* (once), *run off* (once), *walk* (twice) and *sit down* (once) – as can be seen, the number of occurrences is very low. Cf.:

- [23] *So he got up, took the child and his mother and went to the land of Israel.* (The Return to Nazareth, Matthew 2:21)
- [24] *"If you are the Son of God," he said, "throw yourself down. /.../."* (The Temptation of Jesus, Matthew 4:6)
- [25] *They beat him up and ran off, leaving him half dead.* (The Parable of the Good Samaritan, Luke 10:30)
- [26] *But when he saw the man, he walked by on the other side.* (The Parable of the Good Samaritan, Luke 10:31)
- [27] *Jacob's well was there, and Jesus, tired as he was from the journey, sat down by the well.* (Jesus Talks with a Samaritan Woman, John 4:6)

Interestingly, manner of motion verbs only occur in the narrative biblical texts (the only exception is the verb *sit down*, cf. ex. [27] above). Their virtual absence in dialogic biblical texts may be taken as further evidence of the argument presented above, namely, that the presence of manner of motion components in the verbal semantic content induces allocation of the decoder's attention between description of the manner of motion (which may potentially carry information about the state of the mover's self) and the description of the directionality of the motion (on this see also Kudrnáčová 2006). In dialogic texts, what receives prominence is where the interlocutors move and what they say, not in which way they move (and in what kind of state they are). Symptomatically, in these texts motion situations are expressed predominantly by means of path verbs. The reason is quite obvious: path verbs are relatively empty (semantically light), hence they profile the identity of the interlocutors and their displacement, and in this way help to direct the decoder's attention to the content of the dialogue. Cf. two illustrative examples:

- [28] *Then, leaving her water jar, the woman went back to the town and said to the people, "Come, see a man who told me everything I ever did. Could this be the Christ?" They came out of the town and made their way toward him.* (The Disciples Rejoin Jesus, John 4:28-30)
- [29] *He came to Jesus at night and said, "Rabbi, we know you are a teacher who has come from God. /.../."* (Jesus Teaches Nicodemus, John 3:2)

At this point in the discussion it should be added that although dynamic quality scales can be implemented both by path verbs and manner of motion verbs, the two types of verb present motion situations in somewhat different ways. In motion situations rendered by means of path verbs, the relative emptiness of the verb's semantic content ensures that what comes to the fore is the mover and the path of the motion (recall that path verbs carry information about the properties of the path, not about the concrete physical modality of the motion). Cf.:

- [30] *After they had heard the king, they went on their way, and the star they had seen in the east went ahead of them until it stopped over the place where the child was.* (The Visit of the Magi, Matthew 2:9)

[31] *When he saw the man, he felt sorry for him and went over to him.* (The Parable of the Good Samaritan, Luke 10:33-34)

In motion situations grasped by means of manner of motion verbs, the presence of meaning components expressing the concrete physical modality of the motion brings about that the decoder's attention is allocated between the concrete physical realisation of the motion and its direction. In other words, manner of motion verbs necessitate the re-distribution of semantic weight as placed on these individual aspects of a motion situation. Cf.:

[32] *As Jesus was walking beside the Sea of Galilee, he saw two brothers, Simon called Peter and his brother*

Andrew. (The Calling of the First Disciples, Matthew 1:18)

Conclusion

The present article focuses on the English verb (and its semantics) operating on the background of the Presentation and Quality Scale respectively. It has become clear that the application of both the dynamic and static semantic approach to the analysis can be fruitful and revealing, and opens vistas to new dimensions of research into the realm of FSP. Both these approaches appear to be complementary and their simultaneous application sheds more light on the interaction between dynamic semantics and static semantics.

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Metaphoric Collocations in Administrative and Legal Texts and their Translation into Slovak

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Abstract

Administrative and legal texts are a prevailing text type in modern communication. From the viewpoint of lexis, style and workout, they heavily rely on settled conventions and stereotypes with their respective pragmatic functions. Such conventions and stereotypes can be also traced on the lexical (and morphological) level. The present paper will focus on the analysis of collocations in administrative and legal texts written in English and their translation into Slovak. The analysis will be made on the Acquis Communautaire parallel bilingual corpus containing up to one million aligned sentences. It will be focusing on the occurrence of collocations, their prevailing morphological structure, relative fixedness, lexical meaning and metaphoricity, translation into Slovak and pragmatic effect in the original and target language.

Keywords

Collocations, parallel corpus, translation, metaphor



Introduction

Collocations constitute an integral part of the shared linguistic knowledge which is essential for conveying meanings in communication. The ability to arrange words side by side

and in this way produce spontaneous utterances is a result of the subconscious process of mother tongue acquisition. The psychological reasons for using collocations in speech and writing are based on a subconscious endeavor of the speakers to use such linguistic means that will be understood by the listeners/readers and, what is more, combine them into settled combinations to make sure the message is understood. One could make a case collocations create some sort of lexical 'micro co-text'. Collocations belong to our internalized language system. Once fully automated, during the course of communication they emerge naturally. We simply do not pay attention to how we combine words together until we encounter different sets of language conventions. What we have in mind is the fact that collocational patterns vary across languages. For example, the English adjective *brown* collocates with *bread* (*brown bread*), but in Slovak *dark bread* is used instead. Though in both languages it is acceptable to say *white bread*, *black bread*, *dark bread*, depending on the kind of corn bread is made from, in Slovak the collocation with *brown* color sounds unusual. Such restricted cases of collocability of certain lexical items testify to the fact that along with the traditional generative rules, language tends to develop (and generate) settled patterns to convey meaning chunks on a level higher than word level. The above mentioned are examples of common language use, however, there are also specific collocations associated with various registers, for instance law, medicine, computer science, agriculture, art, business etc. The collocations such as *to administer a drug*, *to download a program* are characteristic of some professional discourses. In this article we will analyze English collocations that typically occur in the field of administration and law, contrast them with their Slovak equivalents and discuss some of the collocation-related problems the translator may be confronted with. The

basic theoretical premise also revolves around the problem to what degree our language tends to be a result of randomly generated structures based on the rules of grammar and combination of syntagmatic and paradigmatic patterns on the one hand and formulaic/fixed/settled phrases and collocations on the other.

The concept of collocation

The term 'collocation' is not easy to define, though there are several features that distinguish collocations from other phrases in the lexicon. First, it is **statistical** probability (usually tested by the means of corpus analysis) that some words are found together more often than others. What many linguists (Cruse, 1995), (O'Dell - McCarthy, 2008), (Jackson - Zé Amvela, 2000) emphasize in their definitions of collocation is the frequency, habitualness or at least likelihood of occurrence of certain combinations. In English, for instance, native speakers normally say *rich soil*, not *wealthy soil*, *delicate china* not *brittle china*, a *firm apple* not *solid apple*, *acid rain* not *sour rain*. etc. Despite the fact that the adjectives *rich* - *wealthy*, *delicate* - *brittle*, *firm* - *solid*, *acid* - *sour* have similar meanings, their use is restricted. Sometimes the differences between words that enter a collocation are very subtle and still they are not interchangeable. For instance, both adjectives *thick* and *dense* occur with *forest* with the same meaning (in Slovak *hustý les*), but in the combination with *hair* they are not interchangeable. While *thick hair* is a common collocation, **dense hair* is inadmissible, or at least very unlikely in English. The density of hair is not expressed in terms of closeness of individual hairs, but their quality or width. There are tendencies in everyday language to prefer one or the other to create particular collocations. Therefore, how collocations are composed is not purely a matter of semantics but also a convention.

The combinations that consist of words occurring only with a limited number of other words such as the adjectives in *capricious weather*, *auburn hair*, *pretty woman* are called strong collocations. In comparison, the term weak collocation refers to the words that have many collocates, for example the verbs *make*, *do*, *give*, *get*, *take*. In that case collocations are quite unpredictable. So the actual number of words that can be joined with a particular item increases or decreases

our chances of predicting the collocation. For example, we will probably expect to find the noun *hair* with *comb* because there are not many other alternatives, but vice versa this is not true. *Hair* can collocate with a variety of verbs (*brush, wash, cut, lose, do*).

Some theoretical problems arising from the frequency approach include e.g. the **degree of collocability**, i.e. what the threshold of statistical relevance is for considering two or more words as a collocation. In other words, even combinations that do not stand out as statistically relevant or frequently used can be very plausibly classified as collocations, oftentimes very strong ones. Given the fact that using absolute frequency as the only criterion to analyze texts would result mostly in rendering grammatical collocations (case markers, prepositional phrases, article combinations etc.), we also need to concentrate on the other side of the statistical spectrum – very strong lexical collocations. Another problem arising in the statistical approach to collocations is the **statistical range**. When generating word lists, attributes such as minimum frequency and maximum frequency are used in the statistical software to downsize the search results and focus only on particular statistical ranges. Still another issue connected with quantitative statistical analysis of collocations is the relative **distance** between the collocates. In some languages, collocations can span across a whole phrase or sentence segment and in order to capture them, the statistical software must be adjusted to watch for 'distant' items.

of any contribution due UNDER Article 12 and which is in arrears; activities carried out UNDER Article 2(3) of this Agreement; the expenditure eligible UNDER Article 3 (1) (d) shall, as far as any amendments accepted UNDER Article 33 shall be deposited with the Council for adoption UNDER Article 43 of the Treaty proposed; renewed or renegotiated UNDER conditions agreed mutually between the Commission and the Council before taking a decision UNDER paragraph 1, address to the undertakings are continuing UNDER the Convention for the Protection of the Environment in indirect actions UNDER the framework programme shall be taken by the Commission UNDER the Sixth EC Framework Programme or acquired in any form UNDER this Annex shall be covered by the place and circumstances UNDER which the person concerned has

Figure 2 Sample statistical output of 'UNDER' and its collocates in the analyzed texts

The second criterion refers to the nature of **collocational meaning**. A collocation is a phrase that comprises at least two words, usually in sequence. The meaning of individual words is not acquired in isolation but in company. In Firthian tradition the meaning of a word is influenced by the linguistic context in which it is used (Palmer, 1991). For instance, we need some information, preceding and/or following words, to determine particular meanings of *head* in *to turn one's head, the head of the bed, the head of the stairs, poppy head, head teacher, have a head for* etc. .

Collocational meaning may be compositional, i.e. derived from the meanings of the individual elements (as *white sugar*, for example). But often collocations are only partially compositional; they have unique, metaphorical meanings. In the collocation *a slim chance* the small degree of probability is conceptualized in terms of physical shape. The primary meaning of *slim* is *thin* in an attractive way. When we describe *a relationship* as *fragile* we conceptualize human relationships as brittle objects which can be broken or damaged.

It is important to note that linguistic realizations of metaphorical meanings expressed by particular collocations vary among languages. For example, the primary meaning of *heavy* (to weigh a lot) is the same in English and Slovak, but abstract uses of *heavy* differ.

While in English *heavy rain* and *heavy weather* is usual, in Slovak we speak of *dense/strong rain* (*hustý/silný dážď*) and of *sultry weather* (*dusné počasie*). Similarly, the English collocation *heavy traffic* has a different equivalent in Slovak (*dense/strong traffic*). The translation of Slovak collocations such as *heavy disease, heavy crime* into English involves a different adjective (*serious disease, serious crime*) because *heavy* is not used for conveying metaphorical meanings in these collocations.

What we have discussed so far are lexical collocations which must be distinguished from grammatical types of collocations. The latter involve chiefly syntactic relations between sentence constituents, for example, verb, adjective, noun and preposition combinations. (Jackson – Zé Amvela, 2000).

The issue of collocation meaning can also be tackled in contrast with compounds. Although seemingly similar on the surface level, compounds tend to undergo a meaning shift in which the resulting meaning differs from the meaning(s) of the individual components (i.e. a blackbird need not be necessarily black and a postbox a box, the new meanings are strongly pervading the original ones). The meaning of compounds can be endocentric, exocentric, appositional or coordinate. Collocations, although their meaning may be frequently non-compositional, tend to relate clearly to one of the collocates. By way of example, it is sometimes very hard to say what a particular combination is: e.g. *police investigation*. Is it an investigation, which just happens to be performed by the police, in which case it could be classified as a collocation, or is it a specific type of investigation that can assume the status of a term, in which case it could be a compound.

Finally, the third criterion for identifying collocation is its relatively **fixed structure**. Many collocations do not allow much morphological, syntactic and lexical variation. Those phrases which undergo no or only minimal changes are termed fixed collocations or idioms (Kvetko, 1996). The meanings of idioms, for instance, *spill the beans, white lie, through thick and thin*, are opaque. In this respect idioms resemble multi-word verbs (prepositional, phrasal and phrasal-prepositional verbs), although not all of them have idiomatic meanings. For example, *to insist on, to carry something away, to drive (a car) in* can be translated literally, in contrast to *come across, give up, tell off* or *put up with* whose meanings are non-compositional.

For the purpose of our research we define collocation as a recurrent combination of two (or more words) which describe not define reality. The concept of collocation is broader than terminology peculiar to a scientific subject or profession because it covers words used also outside specialised discourses. At the same time we note that collocations are very similar, but not identical with lexical phrases since these include longer and more complex units of a sentence.

Method and data analysis

The corpus/es we have worked with in our research consist of 7533 words. The sentences for our analysis were handpicked randomly from the *JRC Acquis communautaire* multilingual parallel corpus (<http://langtech.jrc.it/JRC-Acquis.html>) containing 933 341 parallel English-Slovak phrases. *Acquis communautaire* stands for the total body of European law accumulated so far and it includes topics such as free movement of goods, persons and services, company law, competition policies, taxation, energy, science and research, external relations and many

more. Our dataset included 278 English/Slovak sentences varying in length (ranging from full length coordinate clauses to mere sentence fragments) and topicality (European legislation, treaties, law etc.). Our

goal was to include sentences from every possible topic covered by the European law; this is the reason why the sentences were not picked from a single topical area.

Figure 3 JRC Acquis communautaire multilingual parallel corpus downsized to English/Slovak combinations

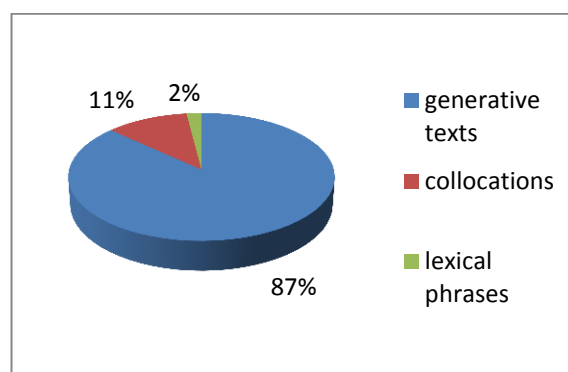
The main pragmatic function of legal texts is to communicate information by means of accurate, comprehensible and coherent language. Legal English, as a discourse type, has many distinctive stylistic, syntactic and lexical features. (Tomášek, 1998). Among others, some features of legal texts include long sentences, uneven word order and complicated subordinate clauses, heavy use of legal terminology (naming units with precise meanings e.g. *special plea*, *criminal law*), Latin and French loans (e.g. *prima facie evidence*), standardized phrases and word combinations (e.g. doublets and triplets such as *execute and deliver*), repetition of lexical elements, use of antiquated prepositions of time and place, capitalization of inanimate and abstract concepts, solemn and high style, high authoritativeness, direct expression, cultural/judicial specificity. As proposed by Risto Hiltunen (Chapters on Legal English: Aspects past and Present of the Language of the Law, January 1990) there exist three different types of legal texts: (a) academic texts which consist of academic research journals and legal textbooks, (b) juridical texts covering court judgments or law reports and (c) legislative or statutory writings consisting of Acts of Parliament, contracts, treaties, etc.

Results and commentary

The categories which emerged from the data analysis include fixed collocations (prepositional and phrasal verbs), strong and weak collocations, collocations with compositional and non-compositional meanings and lexical phrases. Having identified collocations in the

texts, we classified them according to their morphosyntactic structure, fixedness and transparency of their meanings.

The primary statistical analysis showed very interesting results. By comparing the total number of words classified as generative and words classified as collocations and lexical phrases within on single dataset, we conclude that the analyzed texts were 11% collocational and they contained 2% of formulaic lexical phrases. This means that in contrast with standard language generated through the combination of rules and meaning (Chomsky), the analyzed legal texts contained up to 13% of collocations, formulaic phrases, clichés etc.



Frequency of collocations according to their morphosyntactic structure

The most frequent collocations in the analyzed sample appear to be verb + noun combinations (76 times, for example to *fulfil the conditions*, to *enjoy immunity*, to *conclude agreements*, to *breach law*), adjective + noun (76 times, *competent authority*, *full cooperation*,

personal data, official language) and verb + preposition/particle combinations (54 times, *arise from, provide for, carry out, lay down*).

Meanings of collocations

Collocations with compositional meanings (cca 180 times) seem to predominate in the analyzed sample while non-compositional collocations constitute minority (cca 80 times). Our judgment of compositionality or noncompositionality of collocational meanings was verified by a native speaker of English. Some collocations with non-compositional meanings in the analyzed language sample fall under the categories of container and orientational metaphors. For example, *force* and *agreement* in *enter into force* (*nadobudnúť účinnosť*), *enter into an agreement* (*uzatvoriť dohodu*) are abstract notions viewed as physical objects - containers. Literally the preposition *into* reflects destination movement but when accompanied with the verb *enter* it conveys the metaphorical meaning of reaching an aim. Similarly, the preposition *in* (for example in *to be in arrears*) carries the idea of abstract inclusion and therefore it is also an instance of a container metaphor. The spatial preposition *under*, found in numerous English collocations (*under this Annex, under Article, under circumstances, under the framework*), in its metaphorical sense expresses influence over or subjection to some conditions. Another set of collocations whose meanings are not just the composition of their individual parts are light verb constructions (e.g. *take decisions, make an adjustment, make observations* etc.). The choice of a light verb is usually restricted. It means that, for example, *make a decision* and *take a decision* are both possible, but most of the constructions require the use of a particular verb (e.g. we never say **do an adjustment*, but *make an adjustment*). The collocations which we classified as fully non-compositional are the prepositional verbs (*provide for, bring against*) and phrasal verbs (*set up, make up, draw up, carry out, set out, lay down, set down, put forward*). Each of these combinations stand for one semantic unit which has an idiomatic meaning.

Some examples of translation problems

The results of our analysis has revealed several problems that the translator may face while translating collocations from English into Slovak. The first step is to identify a combination of words as a collocation. In the analyzed text, for example, the translator failed to

recognize *terms and conditions* as a collocation which led to an inaccurate translation. Collocations may be also easily overlooked by the translator because, as our analysis has also shown, they do not have to necessarily appear in a consecutive order.

Other common translation problems stem from the mismatches in collocational patterns between the two languages. This often the case of verb+preposition combinations. For example, there are verbs which take no preposition in English (*to enter buildings*), but require one in Slovak (*vstúpiť do budovy*), or vice versa a verb is followed by a preposition in English (*to comply with*), but no preposition is needed in Slovak (*spĺňať čo*). Many verbs are followed by different prepositions in English and Slovak, for example, *result in* - *viest' k*, *vyústiť do*, *apply to* - *použiť, aplikovať na*.

Another source of potential problems is the translation of collocations with metaphorical and idiomatic meanings. As Newmark (1996) rightly points out "...English has the largest common or standard figurative and idiomatic linguistic stock, again making translation more difficult." (p.58) Ideally, the translator must find not only an accurate equivalent in the target language, but also a collocation that will sound natural.

Implications of the study of collocations for the translator and translator training

Since collocations belong to the important components of the English language system it is crucial that translators are able to recognise and interpret collocations in source texts and convey their meanings appropriately in the target language. However, in contrast to native speakers, who acquire collocations as part of their mother tongue acquisition, learning collocational patterns in a foreign language is a more conscious process and therefore translator training should involve a variety of cognitively-oriented activities. Suggested tasks for future translators may include observation, analysis and comparison of collocations in various text types (legal, commercial, scientific, artistic) with the aim of increasing translators' awareness of the differences in collocational ranges between the source and the target language. The emphasis should be primarily laid on the improvement of their study and research skills (i.e. how to use dictionaries, how to investigate collocates of words in corpora) and the development of their memory strategies such as grouping, associating, and semantic mapping.

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Semantics of the Short Passive Form in the English Language

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Abstract

The focus of the paper is the passive voice perceived from a semantic point of view. It deals with the short passive phrase, i.e. the passive without an expressed agent. Semantic features are examined on the grounds of their comparison with the active voice. The main emphasis is laid on the semantics of the English periphrastic passive form, illustrated on concrete examples. The paper deals with the issue of information packaging and examines the factors which favour the choice of the passive transformation over the active one. It discusses the functions

of the short passive in English such as the ability to omit an agent. As the paper draws on fiction, there are two different types of narrative included, dialogues and accompanying characteristics, which must be distinguished. The prevalence of the active voice in dialogues versus imaginative descriptions will be accounted for. Finally, the traditional view of the passive voice as a formal and impersonal choice is dealt with and, consequently, the passive as a means of objective detachment and avoidance of personal involvement is mentioned.

Keywords

short passive, semantics, objectivity, omitted agent, emphasis, functional sentence perspective

The focal point of the analysis presented here is an investigation of the factors that favour the choice of the passive voice phrase over the active one in the English language. I have been interested in the issue of information packaging, especially in the different ways of expressing the same reality in a language: when both active and passive voice variants are formally permitted, what motives induce a speaker or a writer to choose the passive form of a sentence instead of the active one? Answers to these questions compose the semantics of the passive phrase. This study combines compilation type work as well as research on short stories, in which I have analysed twenty short stories written by O. Henry.

Focusing on semantics, I will start with the meaning of the term "passive". According to Hermann Koller (1958: 32), the origin of this expression is associated with Greek musical theories. The Greeks started to speak about mental dispositions in connection with musical influence. They distinguished between a soul's **pathos** and **praxis**. In modern language, this distinction is between the soul's **passivity** and **activity**. However, the direct translation of the word **pathos** is **experience**. In other words, I shall cite the Greek-English dictionary (Thayer and Smith 1996): "Whatever befalls one, whether it be sad or joyous; a feeling which the mind suffers". The term **pathos** is a noun derived from the root verb **paschō**, which has the following meanings: "to be affected or have been affected; to feel; have a sensible experience; to undergo" (Thayer and Smith 1996).

On the other hand, **praxis** in Aristotle includes voluntary or goal-directed action. **Pathos** as a grammatical term was introduced by Dionysios Thrax (Eberhard 2004: 10). He defined three diatheses of a verb out of which **energeia** and **pathos** are important for the present purpose. **Energeia** means performance. It designates verbs where the subject performs the action. **Pathos**, "experience" concerns verbs where the action is done to the subject who experiences it. In between there is a grey zone of verbs called **mesotēz** whose form and meaning do not correspond (Eberhard 2004: 10). The terms introduced by Dionysios – **energeia** and **pathos** – were translated into Latin as **activum** and **passivum**, respectively. As Andersen (1994: 149-183) argues, in Dionysios's classification the stress lies on the binary opposition between performance and experience.

The original meaning of **pathos** has only been partially preserved in the modern passive form. The passive form no longer necessarily suggests the passivity of the soul. The notion of experience arises from the arrangement of participants in the passive. Here, the subject fulfils the semantic role of a patient that is acted upon by the action, or receives the action, which is expressed in the verb.

Before proceeding to a further discussion of the semantics of the passive phrase, I need to make a formal distinction between the short or agentless passive and the long passive (i.e. with the agent phrase). The long passive preserves all the information that would be expressed in the corresponding active construction. Because of this difference between the short and the long passive, the latter "should be considered as competing with the corresponding active construction rather than with the short passive" (Biber et al. 1999: 943). The crucial difference between a short passive and an active clause is that the information expressed in the subject of the active is omitted in the passive. There may be a variety of reasons why a writer might wish to omit such information.

Generally, the **short passive** is chosen when the agent is unimportant in the message and offers redundant information. This may be, among others, caused by the fact that, as Dušková (1988: 260) says, the verb implies a human doer at a deeper level, for instance the verb *allow*. *But I'm allowed to meet her [...]* (Henry 1954: 223). The verb *allow* semantically requires an agent, so that the activity it denotes is fulfilled. In this particular context, the doer is unimportant and hence any agent phrase would be redundant and repetitive.

Alternatively, the nature of the agent may be generic, deeming it unimportant. This is the case for example in clause [...] *if countenances are to be believed* (Henry 1954: 74). Another reason is that the agent may be unknown, e.g. *Her husband was killed in WWI* and therefore the agent is left unexpressed.

The short passive may be used in order to avoid personal responsibility. Hence, a sentence *Cigarette ads were designed to appeal especially to children* (Tischler) places the burden on the ads – as opposed to the active sentence *We designed the cigarette ads to appeal especially to children*, in which we accept responsibility. The effect that the passive form produces here is often termed evasive and vague.

However, it cannot be argued that the short passive is devoid of agenthood as such. Rather, it makes the agent reading implicit (Wanner 2009: 23). Even in cases of short passive sentences, the identity of the agent may be clear from the linguistic context and is possible to be made explicit (ibid). For example, in sentence *I need your essays by Friday. Late submissions will not be accepted* (Tischler), the identity of the agent is clear from the context. Its identity is overt rather than covert. One more example taken from Wanner's book follows:

I asked more of men than should have been asked of them (Wanner 2009: 24). In this example, the agent is again clear and the passive voice here fulfils another function – and that is the facilitation of smooth sentence flow.

Compared with an active variant, there is one element added to the sentence structure of the non-agentive passive form. Namely, this is the auxiliary verb form *be*, which facilitates greater focus on the verb phrase itself. Compare the two counterparts: In the active form expression, *People will hear from him next summer at Coney Island*, the verb element has only a representative meaning. The core of the message is to specify the time and place.

On the other hand, in the passive turn of this sentence, *He will be heard from next summer at Coney Island* (Henry 1954: 176), the unusual prepositional construction attracts the attention of the reader. It takes more time to read the verbal part here and the overall tone is rather formal, even prophetic. The thematic pronoun *he* is placed at the beginning of the passive sentence, and consequently the verb *heard* sounds more contrastive than in the active form where it is followed by the thematic element *him*.

Another situation that may occur relating to the short passive is that emphasis and focus are placed on the passive subject, i.e. on the patient, such as in the sentence *Dinner was served to Goodwin* (Henry 1954: 74). This is in accord with Kudrnáčová's observation, namely, that agent-oriented actions are not readily admitted into passive constructions

(Kudrnáčová 2001: 24). In the case of a ditransitive verb that takes both a direct and an indirect object, in the English language, sentences with human subjects are generally preferred to sentences with inanimate subjects. Thus, under standard circumstances, a passive sentence such as *Goodwin was served the dinner* would be preferred because of a naturally higher interest in people rather than in things. However, in this case the passive subject *dinner* gains our full attention and is emphasized.

Another fact contributing to the semantics of the short passive is that the agentless passive phrase very often occupies the final position in a clause, which is reserved for new, rhematic information. For example, *He had discovered that one of the necessities of life had been forgotten* (Henry 1972: 47) or *As I was in the rooms when the shot was fired*, [...] (Henry 1954: 73).

Jan Firbas (1992: 7) formulates the conditions under which a finite verb conveys new, irretrievable information and becomes an element with the highest degree of communicative dynamism in a sentence. He maintains that a finite verb can serve as the most dynamic element in a sentence or clause only if it operates in the absence of successful competitors (Firbas 1992: 7). In particular, a finite verb completes the development of communication if it is the only irretrievable element in a sentence, which is often the case for the short passive form. Here are a few more examples *Thus an animal acts when it is caged* (Henry 1954: 294) and *As soon as the cigars were lighted, the American cleared the way* [...] (Henry 1954: 74).

The passive is definitely involved in perspectiving the sentence. As Firbas notes, the sentence perspective may be orientated either **away** from the information conveyed by a passive subject or **towards** it as in the following example: *Quite a number of new houses have been built in our town* (Firbas 1992: 62). At the same time, Firbas realizes the well-known fact that in the majority of cases, the passive participates in perspectiving the sentence away from the subject at the pre-passive level (Firbas 1992: 62). This is connected with the assertion that the passive is chosen when greater emphasis and interest are taken in the object (which becomes the subject) than in the subject at the pre-passive level (Firbas 1992: 62). This is a predominant feature of the short passive, which leaves the doer unspecified for various reasons, and generally greater attention is given to the affected patient. This can be seen in all passive forms with an unexpressed agent. Here are several examples: *Now her gloves are tucked in* (Henry 1954: 394), *His hat was pulled low; he sat quiet and a little indistinct* (Henry 1954: 372), *The ranchman was dragged away* (Henry 1954: 407).

Semantically, the use of the short passive conveys an "objective detachment from what is being described" (Biber et al. 1999: 477). This interpretation is best known from scientific English, where the passive voice helps create an objective, fact-based discourse. The passive enables writers to present research and conclusions without attributing them to particular agents. The writing therefore appears to convey information that is not limited or biased by individual perspectives or personal interests (Tischler).

However, there is also a new trend nowadays to attribute an activity to its actor/s, and especially that the first person should be mentioned. Moreover, sentences in the active voice are preferred because they are clearer, more direct and more concise than those in the passive voice. In every manual of scientific writing (see for example an on-line resource of Tischler), we can find a rule to avoid over-generalizations. These may be another effect of using the passive voice. This is shown in the following examples: *It cannot be denied that [...]* (Henry 1954: 323). It is better to back up one's opinion by saying something like *I cannot deny that [...]*. Also, instead of *It's done* (Henry 1954: 298) we can use *I have done it*²⁰ where the added pronoun personalises the meaning. This 'objectivity' emphasis relates to a formal quality of the passive form. The official tone, where no-one personally is responsible but rather an institution, can be traced in *A police captain was dismissed from force* (Henry 1954: 373) or *Colonel Emilio Falcon was dispatched from the capital upon this important mission* (Henry 1954: 70).

Since the covert agent is most commonly human, this suggests characterizing the short passive construction as impersonal. In the writings of Biber, Huddleston or Quirk, the short passive is indeed labelled as formal and impersonal choice. Especially the passive form comprising *be* and the past participle is considered literary, as opposed to the expressive and colloquial form conjugated with *get* instead of *be* (Curme 1931: 445). I have noticed that the passive voice, due to its

²⁰ When transforming the expression *It's done*, it has been necessary to shift the original present tense into present perfect so that the semantics of the phrase is preserved: *I have done it*. This suggests that the passive voice can function as a means of expressing perfectivity.

impersonal nature and message, has a less authoritative effect than the active form. For example, the following clause [...] *this remarkable scene can be witnessed every evening in numerous cafés* (Henry 1954: 177) has purely an informative character and does not imply any pressure put on the reader to actually visit such a place. It is just a suggestion in front of us, readers, and the choice is entirely up to us. Whereas the active version with the added subject *You can witness this remarkable scene every morning in numerous cafés* is more direct and invasive, and thus sounds more like a plead or an urge. The difference is distinct when both versions are uttered in a dialogue.

Using the passive may also sound more polite. *I would like to be forgiven*, is not as invading as the direct question *Could you forgive me?* and is therefore more polite. The reason is due to the indirect, mediated relationship between the agent, the action, and the affected participant. The relationship is not as straightforward as in the active sentence where the grammatical subject is the doer of the action and the sentence tells who is doing what. The passive voice creates a marked word order. It violates the time line by structuring the sentence in an anti-chronic way, from the goal to the originator. This may be rhetorically effective in some situations.

Further, the passive voice makes a sentence wordier (by adding one element of verbal complexity) and can delay a person's comprehension of a sentence. In a text with high frequency of passive constructions, the reader is more likely to be confused or to lose interest. The more complex nature of the passive form also suggests difficulty in completing an action, e.g. *By and by the restless mood was overcome* (Henry 1954: 294). The reasons for the suppression of the agent range from generalizations to specifications. Some situations omit the agent because its nature is generic and therefore unimportant and uninteresting. For example, *Now, that business could be built up* (Henry 1954: 374). Other situations are concerned with specific events rather than with generalizations (Biber et al. 1999: 939). For example, *She was shown directly into his private office* (Henry 1954: 410). The agent is specific but its identity is not at issue here and does not need to be stated. The latter type can be found in the short stories more often; and also the verbs have specific meanings and are concretely oriented. For example, the verb *hem* in [...] *while the cab was hemmed in* (Henry 1954: 225).

Finally, I will specify the environment that the passive construction occurs in, since the environment also contributes to the semantics of the expression. Both forms of the passive voice (i.e. the short and the long passive) can be found predominantly in expanded compound and complex sentences rather than in a

situation where they constitute part of a simple sentence. The passive voice is a means of language which is employed mostly in the luxurious styles of eloquent writers rather than in everyday speech. It is used plentifully in storytelling since "the focus of a story is often an event involving an affected person" (Biber et al. 1999: 477). As my research draws on fiction, there are two different types of narrative included, dialogues and accompanying characteristics. The domain of the passive usage have been wordy imaginative descriptions of the surroundings and other types of background information which frames the plot. In my research corpus, of the incidences of the passive voice, only about 23% was used in direct speech. The predominance of active verb forms in dialogues correlates with a high number of personal pronouns, particularly of forms with exclusively human reference (Biber et al. 1999: 939-40). Presenting actions in relation to various agents is then a natural consequence of focusing on human beings.

The most general function of the passive voice has proven to be a shift in viewpoint. Since the passive "involves a restructuring of the clause", it is not a simple variation in word order (Biber et al. 1999: 935). The passive form "demotes the agent of the verb, while giving topic status to the affected patient" (Biber et al. 1999: 477). Short dynamic passive forms in particular leave the initiator of an action unexpressed because the agent is unknown, redundant, or irrelevant (of particularly low information value). Its omission also means that the verb phrase is more often in the final position of the clause, characteristic of new information.

The choice between the active and the passive verb relates to the presentation of given and new information, which is also connected with the use of short versus long passive forms (Biber et al. 1999: 476). Usually, the short passive form makes it possible to eliminate the participant that would have otherwise been expressed in corresponding active form, which is exploited for many reasons. We have seen that the short passive may have evasive, impersonal, objective, formal or polite connotations due to its primary ability to avoid expressing the agent. A writer or speaker chooses the short passive out of his or her own specific convictions for why the agent is not to be revealed. Quirk et al. (1974: 807) states that "four out of five English passive sentences [i.e. 80%] have no expressed agent". This is revealed by my findings as well. This result confirms that the most important function of the passive voice as such is the avoidance of agent expression, which is encoded in the use of the short passive.

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Recenzie/Reviews

Analysing Genre: The Colony Text of UNESCO Resolutions

(Olga Dontcheva-Navratilova, Brno: MUNI Press, 2009, pp.164. ISBN 978-80-210-5104-1)

Review by Gabriela Miššíková

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Since its publication in 2009, the monograph by Olga Dontcheva-Navratilova, one of the recognized authors of Brno school on discourse studies, and an experienced university teacher (Masaryk University in Brno, CZ), has rightfully caught attention of both scholars and researchers as well as the teachers of (English) linguistics. It focuses on the study of diplomatic interaction which remains a relatively neglected field in research of communication and discourse studies. The topic of the book, its clear logical structure and thoughtful understandable manner of formulating complex linguistic ideas, make the monograph an invaluable contribution to linguistic studies. It is also an interesting resource book for scholars and university students whose professional interests develop within the scope of stylistics (rhetoric and register studies), (critical) discourse analysis, pragmatics, sociolinguistics and related fields.

The monograph is most impressive in its broad variety of approaches to the study of diplomatic discourse with specific focus on the colony texts. The aims of research, its focus and particular stages of the author's long-term involvement in research in colony texts are presented in the first part of the book Introduction. In the second chapter, entitled Preliminaries: Key terms and methodological issues, the concepts of discourse, text and context are clarified, the author further defines the genre of text colonies and introduces the analytical framework of her study. More details on UNESCO Resolutions are presented in chapters three Introducing UNESCO resolutions and four Analysis of the genre of resolutions, where the analysis develops from the genre set of the UNESCO discourse community towards the analysis of the genre by the volumes from the period between 1947 – 1999. Specific details of the analysis of generic structure of resolutions, characteristic style markers (including syntactic patterning and information processing, cohesion, coherence) are presented here.

The fifth chapter Conclusions summarizes main findings and explains their relevance to specific ways discourse is constructed and interpreted in the context of intergovernmental institutional interaction provided by the UNESCO discourse community to achieve its specific communicative goals. The main objective of the presented research was to consider the impact of situational context and discourse processing conventions on generic structure and genre-specific linguistic selections. Thus the author relied on the genre analysis framework for describing and explaining rhetorical, formal and functional choices in the material under investigation. It is important to stress that both diachronic and synchronic aspects have been considered in the process of the undertaken practical analysis. The results have shown that within the one-sentence text of a resolution the sequence of structural components which reflect contextual parameters is predetermined by the requirements of the colony text and the grammatical rules governing the word order of an English sentence. Specific details on the cognitive structuring of resolutions, assumptions on linguistic choices, recurrent syntactic patterns and the interpretative perception of the semantic unity have been achieved and presented. All in all the findings demonstrate that resolutions are a very restricted genre enforcing a very limited range of structural and lexicogrammatical choices and allowing for minimal variation in interpretation. This reflects the highly structured and codified character of intergovernmental institutional communication within the UNESCO discourse community in which shared cultural knowledge, knowledge of institutional norms of interaction and experience in discourse processing are vital for guaranteeing an adequate interpretation of the communicative intentions of the speaker. The author also outlines possible directions for further research; she sees genre analysis as a powerful tool in accounting for the contextual, rhetorical and stylistic aspects of language use. For diplomatic communication, which still remains a relatively neglected field of research in discourse studies, it offers challenging opportunities for the exploration of different aspects of intercultural communication.

The monograph is completed by the Glossary of terms where the author explains all basic concepts and provides definitions of many key terms; the list of References which includes more than 200 relevant works from the field and thus provides possibilities for the readers to obtain further details and guidance in their study. The Index serves for a better and efficient orientation within the text of the book.

A New Monograph on Diplomatic Discourse "Analysing Genre: The Colony Text of UNESCO Resolutions" by Olga Dontcheva-Navratilova represents an interesting contribution to the study of diplomatic discourse by its well-structured detailed and thoughtful presentation of the analysis of the colony texts of UNESCO Resolutions. It can be recommended for graduate and postgraduate students as well as for the professionals in the field, teachers, scholars and researchers. It is an interesting and successful book which is an asset to research into diplomatic discourse. Because it provides a clear and accessible introduction to the topic, it is also recommended for those readers who wish to gain an overview of the type of research done into diplomatic discourse so far and some possible approaches to this special type of discourse.

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