



LATVIJAS UNIVERSITĀTES ZINĀTNISKIE RAKSTI

ACTA UNIVERSITATIS LATVIENSIS

SASTATĀMĀ UN LIETIŠKĀ
VALODNIECĪBA
CONTRASTIVE AND APPLIED
LINGUISTICS

IV

LATVIJAS UNIVERSITĀTE
SASTATĀMAS VALODNIECĪBAS KATEDRA

Sastatama un lietīška valodniecība

Kontrastīvie pētījumi

IV

Zinātniskie raksti

☞☞☞ sejums

LATVIJAS UNIVERSITĀTE

RĪGA 1995

UNIVERSITY OF LATVIA
DEPARTMENT OF CONTRASTIVE LINGUISTICS

Contrastive and applied linguistics

Contrastive studies №

IV

Research papers

Vol. 598

LATVIJAS UNIVERSITĀTE

RĪGA 1995

Sastatāmā un lietišķā valodniecība. Kontrastīvie pētījumi
Zinātnisko rakstu krājums / A.Veisberga redakcijā.

Rīga LU, 1995 118 lpp.

Contrastive and Applied Linguistics. Contrastive studies.
Research Studies / Editor A.Veisbergs.

Rīga: LU, 1995 118 p

Krājuma rakstu autori analizē dažādu valodas līmeņu parādības angļu, senangļu, norvēģu, latviešu valodā. tulkojumos. Valodu sastatījums veikts kā strukturālā, tā arī funkcionālā un kultūrvesturiskā aspektā. Atklātas valodu īpatnības, arī to kopīgās īpašības. Aplūkota arī valodu mijiedarbība gan valodu kontaktu, gan tulkošanas procesā.

Krājums domāts valodniekiem, tulkotājiem, pasniedzējiem, aspirantiem, filoloģisko specialitāšu studentiem.

The authors of the present volume analyse various phenomena of different language levels in English, Old English, Norwegian, Latvian, translations. The languages are contrasted in structural, functional and cultural aspects. The reciprocal influence of language contacts and translation upon the language change has been viewed.

The edition is aimed at linguists, translators, lecturers, postgraduates and students of philology.

REDAKCIJAS KOLĒĢIJA

A.VEISBERGS (ATB. RED.), M.BRĒDE, I.ZAUBERGA

© Latvijas Universitāte,

1995

✧ *Maija Brēde*

PRAGMATIC ASPECT OF PHONETIC EXPRESSIVE MEANS.

Problems studied by phonostylistics include the general characteristics of phonetic stylistic feature, the aesthetic effect of single sounds, and their various combinations. According to the six functions of language identified by R. Jakobson this sphere can be attributed to the poetic function.

“Though not necessarily in verse, the message is intended to catch the eye or ear with an aesthetic impact.” (Quirk, Stein 1990:4) Phonetically this effect is achieved by a set of phonetic expressive means functioning on all linguistic levels. Traditionally they are encountered in fiction, particularly in poetry, though there are other fields, such as news media, where their function is to emphasize and single out particular points. In various types of press news, like hard news, feature articles, or special topic news, it is the headline that is designed to capture the reader’s attention.

The headline has been analysed primarily with respect to its syntactical organization. However, the originality of its visual impact as well as the related psychological associations depends to a great extent on how the journalist exploits the possibilities of different linguistic levels.

“The headline is a newspaper’s opportunity to stamp its individuality on what is otherwise a mass-produced product. (Bell 1991:185)

Phonetic expressive means are often employed to conjure up a certain image. Occasionally its decoding can be compared to solving a pun that can give a kind of intellectual satisfaction to the audience (Tanaka 1992). A headline like an advertisement is aimed at “focussing, capturing and maintaining” the audience’s interest.

Against this background the present analysis is aimed at identifying the potential of phonetic stylistic devices in press headlines. The data-source for the present contrastive analysis is a set of 2 months issues of “The Times” (July-August, 1994) and a set of 6 months issues of “Diena” (July-December,

1994). In "The Times" headlines with phonetic stylistic devices were registered largely in special topic news, particularly in "Arts". The Latvian paper seems to contain these headlines exclusively in articles of the section "Mājai un ģimenei".

In most cases that involve the use of phonetic expressive means the specific effect under consideration is achieved by some kind of repetition – either of sound, a syllable, a word or tone unit.

One of the direct ways to reach the effect of emphasis is repeating a whole word or its root in a new derivative or compound. The same sound sequences with practically the same stress patterns in polysyllabic words provide a distinct rhythmical design:

- (1) *War, war, jaw, jaw* and a luvvy life.
- (2) *Rough* theatre, *rough* times.
- (3) *Follow* me, *follow* down to the hollow
- (4) The *buffets* of war warped by *buffet*.
- (5) More *punches* than *punchlines*.
- (6) *Price* on the head of the *priceless*.
- (7) *Show* off *shown* up.
- (8) Arnold Schwarzenegger is *all* man, *all* right.
All caring, sharing, proud of his kids man.

In (1) the concentration of monosyllabic words with the same vowel /ɪ/ suggests a marked contrast with the rest of the headline.

In (3) the repetition of "follow" is intensified by the rhyming "hollow". The three /ɒ/ and /əʊ/ are supplemented with /aʊ/, consequently forming a catchy series of vowels.

(5) illustrates the repetition of the root in words with the same number of syllables, creating nearly the same effect as rhyming.

In (7), like in (2) it is the briefness of the headline that accentuates the repetition in a distinct alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables.

(8) is the only instance of a triple repetition of a word. Its phonetic

expressiveness is paired with two immediately following rhyming words “caring” and “sharing”

Another productive phonetic device is alliteration. Headlines include words with similar single initial consonants or consonant clusters. Only in one out of the registered cases of alliteration, is the device based on sonants:

(9) *Wicked ways are winning.*

The dominating group of sounds are voiceless noise consonants. In short headlines consonants are repeated in all or nearly all successive stressed words:

(10) *'Bid for 'better.*

(11) *'Fatal 'fault.*

(12) *'Family 'fare.*

(13) *'Shell 'shock.*

(14) *'Classic 'clash of 'cultures.*

(15) *'Gunnell's 'golden 'grand 'slam.*

(16) *'Famous 'goals and 'fatal 'shots.*

Combined with regular stresses on each word alliteration helps create a distinct rhythmical structure. Apart from the melodic effect in longer sentences, esp. if the initial consonants are repeated in every word, alliteration may impart certain additional effects (humour, irony, paradox).

They are obviously aimed at rousing the reader's curiosity. A few headlines sound like tongue twisters:

(17) *Palpable pap to provoke the punters.*

(18) *Clinton's crumbling credibility threatens reform.*

(19) *Flying four tightens Anglo French ties.*

In some of these headlines the effect of rhythm is reinforced by assonance:

wicked winning /ɪ /,

palpable pap /æ /,

classic clash /æ /,

grand slam /æ /,

handy tax /æ /.

famous – fatal / eɪ /,

flying – tightens – ties / aɪ /.

In addition to assonance 4 types of English vowel alternation have been fixed:

/ e – ɒ / shell – shock.

/ eɪ – ɔː / fatal fault,

/ eɪ – ɒ / fatal shots.

/ eɪ – əʊ / famous goals.

There is a group of headlines (11 altogether) which reflect the relationship between sound and meaning. These onomatopoeic and sound imitative words echo the surrounding reality and evoke associations of particular noises and sounds produced by the articulatory organs (Nordlander 1992, Quirk and Stein 1990).

One characteristic of these headlines is that at first glance they appear to be unrelated to the information introduced, esp. if there are no suggestive key words. The extremely concise form presents the headline as a riddle to be solved:

(20) Howl howl (“The Times Diary” actor Robert Stephen’s illness).

(21) Clunk click (“The Times Diary” preparations at Westminster Abbey to welcome South Africa back into the Commonwealth).

(22) Snap, crackle, pop (“Thriller of the week”).

(23) Scrabble, scramble still on (“Profile”: the shares of investors).

Monosyllabic and disyllabic sound imitative words possess high potential for expressiveness:

(24) Neo-nazi *clash*.

(25) Britons make a *splash*.

(26) Comet may end in *fizzle*.

(27) *Zzz* - cars.

Most of the sound imitative words represent an acoustic group:
clash, splash, snap, crackle, scrabble, scramble, clunk,
pop, click, sniff, fizzle, whizz, z z - z.

This relatively small group confirms the iconic effectiveness of plosives and fricatives (Wescott 1980). Articulatory onomatopoeic words have been fixed only in two instances:

(28) More *ho-hum* than *ho-ho* on comic circuit.

(29) It's the sniff, *sip, sloosh 'n' slurp*athon.

In (28) the onomatopoeic words are phonolexic sequences with the vowel alternation /əʊ - ʌ /.

An extremely widespread phonetic stylistic device is rhyme that usually repeats the final stressed vowel with the following consonant or consonant cluster (Crystal 1992).

In 13 cases out of 17 the headlines are organized as brief entities (not exceeding 10 syllables) usually with only one or two unstressed syllables between the rhyming words:

(30) 'Treason without 'reason.

(31) 'Ready, 'steady and 'charge for 'places.

(32) Dr. 'Cook 'back in 'black.

(33) 'Bottomley 'gives 'back the 'right to 'Snack.

(34) 'Up the 'cup.

(35) 'Doubly, de 'lovely 'evening of 'song.

(36) From 'glom to 'doom.

(37) 'Zoo 'who.

(38) 'Blast from the 'past.

(39) 'Sparks and 'Lady 'Marks.

(40) 'Game for a 'fark in the 'Park.

(41) We do 'like to be *beside* the *seaside*.

(42) 'Siestas and 'fiestas.

Only in two cases (31, 37) do the rhyming words follow each other directly.

In the few longer headlines the rhyming words are grouped close together:

(43) 'Word 'bank 'spells 'out the ,*probability* of ,*brollability*.

(44) '*Health*, not '*wealth* is the 'red 'yardstick for 'Liberal
'Democrats.

(45) '*Use* and '*abuse* of the 'memory of 'war.

(46) 'Major '*hires* and '*fires* for 'battles ahead.

The rhyming words are predominantly monosyllabic (in 11 headlines) or dissyllabic (in 6 headlines). One exception is (43), with a 5-syllable word which is rhymed with the newly-coined word "brollability". In one instance we find parahyme, i.e. simultaneous repetition of initial and final consonants: back black (Crystal 1992).

The basis of rhyme in most cases is one of the front vowels, in 2 headlines the central vowel /ʌ/ 3 headlines have been built on the back vowels /u/ and /ɑ/

/i/ treason, reason;

/ɪ/ probability, brollability,

/e/ health, wealth, ready, steady,

/æ/ snack, black;

/ʌ/ up, cup, doubly, lovely;

/u/ gloom, doom, zoo, who, abuse;

/ɑ/ blast, past, Sparks, Marks.

Diphthongs have been registered in only 2 of this type of headline:

/aɪ/ beside, seaside, hires, fires;

/ɪə/ siestas, fiestas.

The final consonants or consonant clusters indicate the prevalence of noise over sonority. In one case a rhyming instance forms a pun:

Sparks and Lady Marks (reference to "Marks and Spencer", colloquially called "Marks and Sparks").

4 headlines have been designed following the principle of reverse rhyme which repeats the initial syllables:

- (47) There are rich *picklings*, says Giles Coren, in human *pickling*.
 (48) *Reverence* for the *Reverend*.
 (49) *Standard* takes *stand* on ethics.
 (50) *Famed*, but not *famous*.

They illustrate the use of rhyming words consisting of both the same (47, 48) and different numbers of syllables (49, 50).

The prevalent phonetic means as found in the Latvian material is the repetition of a word, which seems to be the simplest way of arresting the reader's attention. In Latvian, in accordance with its grammatical type, the repeated word rarely appears in the same grammatical form.

It has to be admitted that the choice of the particular words for the most part is directly subjected to the topic under discussion and to a much lesser extent to the iconic meanings of the sounds forming the phonetic structure of the words:

Pie *zobārsta* bez *zobu* sāpēm.

April, April, April

Milestība vairo *milestību*.

(4) *Ieļu māja* ir vienkārši *ieļu māja*.

(5) Svetku *tērps* ir tautastērps.

(6) 7 stundas: *viss bija*, un *viss bija* okci.

Visi laiki un *visas* vietas vienā grāmatā.

(8) Kāpēc *jāmokās*, ja var *nemocities*

(9) *Draugam drauga* vieta.

(10) Ar *jokiem joku* nav.

(11) *Mans* nams — *mana* kluču pils.

(12) *Dzer*, brālīti, *dzer*.

(13) Trīs *lictas* labas *lictas*.

Only one headline (7) contains alliteration. In (13) a popular saying serves as the basis of a pun ("LaBa" = a paper for children).

The recurrence of 2 sonorants (/r/ and /m/) in successive words in (14):

(14) *Ar rāmu mieru dvēselē*

echoes and displays their close meanings. The only instance of onomatopoeic word use is a combination of 2 phonolexical sequences with a single sound imitative word; they also involve vowel alternation (/i - a/, /i - o/);

(15) *Kling, klang, bing, bong, pleks*

Rhyme (16, 17), including reverse rhyme (18) has been fixed in 3 cases:

(16) *Ar un par mīlestību.*

(17) *Kaza nav lops, un kārkls nav koks.*

(18) *Darbam svētdienās nav svētības.*

(17) combines rhyme with alliteration and the repetition of a word.

Another group of headlines is based on the lyrics of popular songs, offering a familiar rhythmical structure as part of the key to decoding the contents of the newspaper material:

(19) *'Dar man, 'tēvis, 'pastaliņas.*

(20) *'Atnāks 'jauka 'vasariņa.*

(21) *Uz 'galda 'vāzē stāv krizantēmas.*

(22) *Es 'vēlos 'tavu 'foto,*

(23) *uz 'augšu 'pacel 'ķepinas,*

(24) *'Pirtī, 'tur mūs 'visus 'izārstēs.*

Other instances with rhythm as the dominating feature include a chant (25), and the emphatic use of "būt" in three tense forms (26, 27):

(25) *'Viena 'maza 'turku 'pupa 'ceļoja uz*

(26) *'Aspirīns 'Bija, 'ir un 'būs.*

(27) *'Skārleča 'bija, 'ir un 'būs.*

It is obvious that the variety of phonetic expressive means as registered in the English material testifies to the fact that they are effectively applied beyond the limits of the conventional poetic range. The existing tradition points to a larger emotional charge achieved by a special sound arrangement and its semantics.

The analysis of press headlines in Latvian reveals a relatively narrow application of the range of phonetic stylistic devices.

The rhythmic arrangement of both languages appears to be the common feature which, apart from organizing the flow of speech on the lexical and syntactical level, organizes the whole variety of the phonetic expressive means within the framework of the above mentioned levels.

The stylistic potential of phonetic phenomena relates directly to the phonotactic models and the type of rhythm in the language, as well as to the originality of artistic motivations and the particular linguistic means chosen by the journalist.

R E F E R E N C E S

- Bell A. 1991. *The Language of News Media*. Blackwell.
- Crystal D. 1992. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language*. Cambridge University Press.
- Nordlander J. 1992. *Who Imitates What? Some Thoughts About Onomatopoeia And Sound Symbolic Words.*
In *Language - The Time Machine*, 97 -101 Umeå.
- Quirk R. and Stein C' 1990. *English in Use*. London Longman.
- Tanaka K. 1992. *The Pun In Advertising: A Pragmatic Approach.*
In *Lingua*, vol. 87, 1-2 91 - 102.
- Wescott R.W. 1980. *Sound And Sense. Linguistic Essays on Phonosemic Subjects*. Jupiter Press.

SOME TIPS FOR TEACHING PRACTICAL TRANSLATION IN BIG GROUPS

The main purpose of practical classes on translation is to teach the students how to avoid typical mistakes while doing translations, e.g. from English into Russian and vice versa. The best way of reaching this goal is to discuss and compare translations done by students in class. In small groups (up to 10 students) it is easy to get the whole class involved: you listen to nearly each student's variant, students can positively participate in discussion of the presented variants, pointing out mistakes and slips, expressing opinions and suggestions about possible improvements, trying to find the optimal equivalent. However, in big groups (15 students and more, in my case it was 40) this form of arranging practical classes is hardly possible due to some objective reasons: the lack of time, difficulties in catching the words if the speaker is not loud enough. Open University students are just too shy to express their opinions in front of the whole class, after all, students just get bored, which makes it impossible for the teacher to manage the work. The obvious solution in such a situation is to organize students' activities in such a way when they can do their main work on translation and discussion in small groups/pairs, then pass over to bigger groups (up to 8 students), and the final step is a whole class activity on drawing conclusions and analyzing mistakes as well as difficult cases they have come across while doing work on translation and discussion in smaller groups (this step is optional, since the same could be done in smaller groups if time limits do not allow you to have a whole class activity).

There are several ways of dealing with texts using the mentioned above approach, the five of them will be described in the present article.

VARIANT

It combines students' group work on comparing their home prepared translations, working out a common variant, which is supposed to be the most adequate one, discussing and analyzing a group translation done by another group of students, giving comments on the discussed variant to its authors.

Preparation

Ask the students to translate a text of about 450 words in written form at home.

Procedure

1 Divide the text into 3 parts (about 150 words each). Ask the students to mark these parts (A, B, C) in their written translations as well as in the source text.

2 Divide the class into groups of 3-4 students, the number of groups should be even and divisible by 3, e.g. 6, 12, etc. Each group gets its own part of the text, e.g. group 1 - part A, 2 - B, 3 - C, 4 - A, and so on.

3 Ask the students to compare their home prepared translations of the part they have got and work out a common variant. The latter should be done in written form on a separate sheet of paper.

4 Ask each group to pass over their common variant to the next group (group 1 to group 2, 2 - 3, 3 - 4, the last group pass their variant to group 1) and get a common variant supplied by the previous group.

5 Ask each group to discuss the received variant and write down their comments outlining strong and weak points of the work, trying to give some suggestions on improvement.

6 Each group has to acquaint the authors of the received variant with its comments as well as to get acquainted with the comments on their own common variant supplied by another group (in a written or oral form).

Time

Steps 1 - 2 - 5 minutes; step 3 - 25 minutes; steps 4-5 - 25 minutes; step 6 - 15 minutes.

Suggested texts

Non-fiction texts, longer newspaper articles, travel guides, essays, short fictional prose.

VARIANT II

This method includes students' work on singling out word combinations, collocations and set phrases, and comparing the ways of their translation.

Preparation

Ask the students to translate a text of about 400 words in written form at home
 Ask the students to bring correction fluid, e.g. "Pro Tip" to be used in class.

Procedure

- 1 Divide the class into groups of 3-4 students.
- 2 Ask the students to read their home prepared translations in groups and decide upon the best variant.
- 3 Ask the students to single out 5-7 word combinations, collocations or set phrases in the translation variant they have chosen, after that the students have to write the phrases out in the order they appear in the text.
- 4 Ask the students to cover the chosen phrases with correction fluid in the translated text and write their source text equivalents in pencil above the line
- 5 Ask the groups to exchange the variants (group 1 with group 2, 3 with 4, and so on) and translate the phrases written in pencil supplied by another group, taking into account the structure of the target sentences.
- 6 Ask the groups to compare their versions with the original variants chosen by the translators, and discuss the results.

Time

Steps 1-2 10 minutes; steps 3-4 20 minutes; step 5 25 minutes; step 6 15 minutes.

Suggested texts

Non-fiction texts, travel guides, essays, short fictional prose, newspaper articles, business letters and contracts.

VARIANT III

It implies students' work on compiling CURRICULUM VITAE in English using the data laid out as "Автобиография" in Russian.

Preparation

Ask the students to translate a CV from English into the target language at home.

Procedure

- 1 Enquire the students about the difficulties they have come across while translating the CV, ask them to outline the nature of these difficulties (in most cases they will be caused by extra-linguistic factors, e.g. socio-cultural background). Draw the students' special attention to the layout of CV
- 2 Divide the class into pairs and ask each pair to make up an "Автобиография"(2 copies).
- 3 Distribute the "Автобиография"s among the students and ask them to translate the texts into English, laid out as CV (in weak groups it is better to hand out sample CV's in order to prevent extra-linguistic difficulties connected with the layout of the work)
- 4 Ask the students to find the person who has translated the same text and discuss the results, pointing out the strong and weak points of both variants
- 5 Ask the pairs to write down a common variant and hand it in (these variants could be used as source texts in other groups)

5-10 minutes: step 2 15 minutes: step 3 25 minutes: steps 4-5

Suggested texts

CV - authentic or supplied by students

VARIANT IV

It includes students' individual work on translating extracts from a business text, group discussion of the translated extracts, group discussion of the whole text of the translation.

Preparation

Select a business text of about 300 words and divide it into 3-5 equal parts, giving a number to each part. Make the necessary number of photocopies (it depends on the number of students), after that mark each part of each copy with a certain letter of the alphabet, so that each part shall have the same letter but a different number, e.g. A1, A2, A3, B1, B2, B3, etc. (The quantity of letters also depends on the number of students, in my case for a group of 32 students

the text was divided into 4 parts and 8 copies were made, so letters from "A" to "H" were used to mark the copies.) Cut each copy into parts.

For the present activity it is necessary to have a ready translation, which also should be photocopied (the number of copies is the same as for the source text).

Procedure

1 Ask the students to choose an extract for translation, not showing the numbers and the letters written there, and translate it individually.

2 After they have finished this task ask them to find the students who have translated the same part, e.g. part 1, and compare the variants in group, making changes or improvements if necessary (the number of students in such a group should not exceed 10).

3 Ask the students to find the people who have the same letter, discuss the whole text of the translation, and write down the final version of it

4 Hand out the ready translation copies and let the students compare their variants with the ready translation, pointing out the places that caused difficulties.

Time

Step 1 20 minutes; step 2 20 minutes; steps 3-4 30 minutes.

Suggested texts

Business letters, contracts, travel guides. Note that it is necessary to have both the source text and the target text.

VARIANT V

It includes students' work on translating and comparing their variants with the translations done from the target language of their texts into the source language.

Preparation

Select a text of about 200 words. It is necessary to have a ready translation. Make the necessary number of copies of both variants of the text, e.g. for 40 students there should be 20 copies of each variant.

Procedure

- 1 Divide the students into two groups (A and B) and distribute the English copies of the text in group A and the Russian ones in group B (the students should not see the copies of the other group)
- 2 Ask the students to translate the texts individually and then compare the translations in small groups of 3-4 people.
- 3 Ask each student to join a student from the other group and compare the variants they have compiled, not consulting the source texts. This activity will help the students to find mistakes and slips they failed to correct while checking their variants in small groups.
- 4 After they have finished comparing the translations, let the students consult the source texts if necessary

Steps 1-2 40 minutes, steps 3-4 30 minutes.

Suggested texts

Business letters, contracts, advertisements, travel guides, directions

All the tips described above are based on learner-centered approach to teaching, that increases students' activity and motivation immensely. Group work provides for creative atmosphere in class since all students get involved in the process of discussion and express their opinions about the final versions, even the shiest students get carried away with such discussions. Besides that group work contains a certain factor of competition and challenge, it forces students to be more efficient, they become the most severe critics of themselves, not mentioning their groupmates. The teacher's function in this situation is to monitor the class, taking notes about students' typical mistakes/problems, the most difficult cases and the best solutions found by the students. He/she is supposed to answer the students' questions in order to help them come to an agreement.

It is possible to use different types of texts with all the described variants, though the time limits should not exceed 70 minutes (it is advisable to take shorter texts for weak groups and longer for the strong ones). The present tips can be used with small groups of students as well and the author hopes they will help teachers to make their methods more varied and interesting.

A.Načisčione

*Ways of Expressing the Diminutive in English and
Latvian Phraseology*

The diminutive in phraseology is a semantic stylistic category that has diverse forms and means of expression. Its semantic and stylistic load presents great interest both in language and speech, in language as an inherent part of the stable language form of a phraseological unit (PU) and part of its semantic structure, in speech emerging as a natural stylistic functional break of phraseological stability. This paper will deal with the formation of the diminutive as part of the structure of phraseological meaning in the system of language.

The diminutive component(s) of PUs may be formed by morphological means, lexical means or in a combined lexical morphological way. Each of these is characterized by a varying degree of frequency, productivity and diversity in English and Latvian phraseology.

The morphological way of expressing the diminutive in phraseology is untypical of English. The occurrence of diminutive suffixes in phraseological components is extremely rare, a fact which can be explained by the scarcity of live diminutive suffixes in the lexical system of Modern English * -y (-ie) being the most common of them all.

e.g., *to watch a birdie* ; *a suggar daddy*; *the daddy of them all*;
Johnny Newcome; *coal-oil Johnny* ; *neither meevie nor
mavy (Scot.)*; *an ugly duckling*

Though rare, these examples are relevant, as they demonstrate the possibility of the use of a suffix to express the diminutive in PUs in Modern English.

* As a synthetic language Old English had a whole list of diminutive suffixes. Chambers Etymological Dictionary registers 13 diminutive suffixes [p.576-8], J.C.Nesfield gives 14 [p.136]

The Latvian language can boast of a wealth of diminutive suffixes in the lexical system of language [Endzelīns, Rūķe-Draviņa, Rozenbergs] and the morphological way of forming diminutive components widespread in phraseology too [Вейсбергс А.Г., p.157].

e.g., *ķerties pie salmiņa; izmirt līdz pēdējai vīlītei; kad zakītis rikšus tecēs; rauj viņu kociņš! dzimis laimes kreklīnā, dzīvo kā divi balodīši; prātiņ, nāc mājās, slaida kā smil-dziņa sešu dēļu mājiņa;*

Diminutivization of phraseological components is so widespread in Latvian that it does not affect only nouns but also other parts of speech, e.g., *lika drusku (druscīn) pagaidīt.*

It is common for Latvian PUs to contain two (or even three) components with diminutive suffixes, which enhance the semantic significance and the phonetic stylistic effect of diminutivity. This is especially common in proverbs whose structure consists of two parts that constitute an implied comparison or opposition.

e.g., *kurš putniņš agri ceļas, agri slauka deguntiņu;
actiņas redz, sirsniņa grib;
kad pelīte paēdusi (pieēdusi), tad graudiņš rūgts (miltiņi rūgti);
pie kauliņa garda gaļa, pie meitiņas silta gūļa;
nieciņš ar nieciņu iztaisa sieciņu*

Morphological diminutives in PUs achieve prominence by a very significant terminal position.

e.g., *aug buciņš (auniņš), aug radziņi;
kad spoža pannīna, tad mīksts kumosīņš;
katrai krūzītei sava osiņa*

Diminutive phraseological components with agreement in number and gender are not infrequent. This creates inner rhyme and epiphoric

euphony. The onomatopoeic effect is made possible by the synthetic structure of the Latvian language.

e.g. *kā vējinš pūš, tā salminš danco;*

kādi podini, tādi vācini (kāds podinš, tāds vācinš)

Latvian phraseology abounds in PUs that have variants containing diminutive components. This kind of variation is an exception in English, e.g. *to shoe a goose (a gosling)*, while in Latvian it is virtually the rule.

e.g., *iet kā pa diegu (diedzinu); bērnu autinos (autos);*

prātu (prātinu) putrā apstrēbt; nepielikt (nepiedurt)

pirkstu (pirkstinu); piedzimt laimes kreklinā (kreklā);

pupa lellis (lellis); iecelt (pacelt) saulē (saulitē);

plakstini (plaksti) aizkrit; dziedāt citu dziesmu

(dziesminu); nevienas dzīvības (dzīvībinas); iesildīta

vieta (vietina) , gulēt kā Dieva (eņģeļa, mātes,

māmulinas) klēpi; rauj viņu koks (kocinš, jupis, piķis,

vilks); aizlikt vārdu (vārdinu)

These variants are certainly not identical from the stylistic point of view, as the diminutive component brings about a change in the way of the formation of phraseological meaning, a change in the structure of the inner form of the PU [Мелерович А.М.].

It is interesting to note that both in Latvian and English there are PUs containing components which can be called etymological diminutives. In these PUs the diminutive form can be discerned only by means of diachronic analysis, for the effect of diminutivity is lost on the uninitiated modern reader or speaker.

e.g., *stabule (dim.< stabs [Karulis])*

pūst vienā stabulē

dancot pēc kāda stabules

The original development is not transparent, especially as there exists a modern diminutive formation with *it*

e.g. *Antiņ, pūt stabulīti!*

In English PUs there occur etymological diminutives with the suffixes *en, et, kin*. A number of etymological diminutives have been borrowed with a diminutive suffix from Middle French,

e.g. *a gullet, a bullet, a trumpet* [Partridge].
to stick in someone's gullet
to give the bullet
to blow one's own trumpet

These etymological diminutives are the result of diachronic change. they have lost their force as diminutives and thus they do not contribute to the stylistic potential of the PU today.

The lexical way of conveying the category of diminutive in English is comparatively much more common. The scarcity and the productivity of diminutive suffixes in Modern English are compensated lexically. The lexical way has ousted the morphological means of the formation of diminutives in phraseology as part of the general trend of English turning into an analytical language. It is another means of expression of the same semantic category. The following components are used to express diminutivity in English PUs *little, small, thin, petty, wee, slight, a bit (of), by the skin of* and others.

e.g., *a little bird told me; little pot is soon hot; little knows the fat sow; small fry; small talk; to sing small; it's a a small world; thin excuse; thin on the ground; petty cash; a drop in the ocean; by the skin of one's teeth; a bit on the side; a bit of a blue sky; a (someone's) bit of skirt (stuff, fluff, crumpet, tail); a bit of all right*

Some PUs contains a repetition of the diminutive component.

e.g., *little by little*; *bit by bit*; *by small and small* (obs.)

There are a few PUs with lexical diminutive variants of the diminutive component in English.

e.g., *the thin (little, small) edge of the wedge*

little (small) pitchers have great (long, wide) ears
with a little (small) A, B, C, etc.

the (wee) small hours

Only very few English non-diminutive PUs possess a diminutive lexical variant, e.g., *a (little) rift within the lute*.

In Latvian phraseology the lexical way of the formation of diminutive components is achieved by certain adjectives and nouns that convey this category, such as, *mazs, sīks, īss, plāns, nieks* and others. In its pure form, i.e., when unaccompanied by diminutive suffixation, this means is by far less productive than other kinds.

e.g., *nav nekāds mazais bērns; mazie laudis; sīka vienība;*
īss prāts; īss laiks; nieka (smiekla) lieta; nieks (štrunts)
par bitēm, ka tik medus; par mata galu

The combined lexical-morphological approach is the most productive way of expressing the diminutive in Latvian phraseology. It involves the use of a diminutive lexical component and a diminutive suffix in one PU. This combination is a much more striking stylistic means, and language material shows that it has become part of the tradition of the Latvian language and mentality.

e.g., *meklēt kā mazo adatiņu; klāt kā mazais nazītis;*
sīks (mazs) garinš; mazā gaisminā; mazā tumsinā;
melns un maziņš; pataisīt melnu un maziņu; milinās
kā mazi kakēni; arī mazai pelītei ausis

The lexical-morphological way is more powerful because it creates the effect of double diminutivity. This type is virtually non-existent in

English in the system of language, though it may occur in speech as an occasional stylistic device. However, there are a few PUs in English in which the diminutive effect is increased by the use of two lexical diminutives in one PU.

e.g., *a little bit of a place*

(as) small as drops of rain (obs.)

little drops thirl (pierce) the flint on which they often fall (obs.)

Proverbs represent an interesting part of phraseology that offers considerable insight into some of the ways how the diminutive is achieved and sustained both in English and Latvian. In proverbs the stylistic effect intensified by contrasting the diminutive with the augmentative, resulting in antithesis in which the two parts of the PU are measured against each other.

e.g., *little strokes fell great oaks*

little chips light great fires

little body often harbours great soul

small rain lays great dust

a little (small) frog in a big pond

mazs cinītis gāž lielu vezurnu

mazi cirtieni gāž lielus kokus

maza dzirkstele nodedzina lielu mežu

mazi bērni spiež klēpi (ceļus), lieli - sirdi

Contrast is known to be one of the universal elements of style. The juxtaposition of the two contrasting phraseological components emphasizes the phraseological meaning. The semantic contrast is set off by syntactical parallelism which is the organizing axis of antithesis and the phraseological structure. The syntactical pattern creates a peculiar cadence. The rhythmical organization gives special emphasis to the PU. In this contrast the diminutive component usually occupies the focal

initial place in the proverb, thus gaining prominence. A reversed pattern in which the augmentative takes up the initial position is comparatively less frequent.

- e.g. *a big fish in a little pond*
a big head and little wit
liela galviņa, mazs padomiņš
liela brēka, maza vilna
lieli un mazi

In some cases the diminutive and the augmentative components are interchangeable as to their place in the PU constituting positional variants.

- e.g. *small and great*
great and small
mazāk runā, vairāk klausies;
vairāk klausies, mazāk runā

It is only in a few proverbs that the diminutive or the augmentative component does not occupy the initial, but the medial or the final position.

- e.g., *venture a small fish to catch a big one*
every little makes a mickle
no mazas zīlītes izaug prāvs ozols

In separate cases we come across the use of two diminutives in proverbs with two juxtaposed parts. The repetition of the diminutive component enhances the diminutive effect. It does not, however, create a contrast due to the absence of the augmentative element.

- e.g. *little things please little minds*
little mead, little need
a small heart has small desires
mazi putni, mazi perēkļi
maza rocība, mazas rūpes

To summarize: the diminutive is a significant stylistic element of phraseological meaning in the system of language, both in English and Latvian. This study reveals a whole range of the ways of expressing the category of diminutivity in English and Latvian phraseology that differ in their manifestation and the degree of productivity. It reveals that there are more PUs with diminutive components in English and of greater variety than one has been traditionally prepared to think. The saturation of Latvian phraseology with PUs with diminutive components shows that the diminutive is a typical way of nomination in Latvian and a language norm in Latvian phraseology.

L I T E R A T U R E

1. Chambers Etymological Dictionary of the English Language.
London: W&R Chambers, 1882. 600 p.
2. Nesfield J.C. Aids to the Study and Composition of English. London:
Macmillan and Co. 1924. 536 p.
3. Endzelīns J. Latviešu valodas gramatika. -R.:LVI, 1951 -1097 lpp
4. Rūķe-Draviņa V. Diminutive in Lettischen. Lund: Bokhandel,
1959. - 408 S.
5. Rozenbergs J. Latviešu valodas praktiskā stilistika. II.
Morfofostilistika. R. Zvaigzne, 1983. 193 lpp.
6. Вейсбергс А.Г. Дичамические аспекты латышской
фразеологии. Дис. на соиск. канд. филол. наук. Рига,
1986. 193 с.
7. Мелерович А.М. Семантическая структура
фразеологических единиц в современном русском языке как
лингвистическая проблема. Автореф. дис. на соиск. докт
филол. наук. Л.,1982. 40 с.
8. Karulis K. Latviešu etimoloģijas vārdnīca. I II sēj. R.. Avots,
1992. 1208 lpp.
9. Partridge E. Origins. A Short Etymological Dictionary of Modern
English. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1978. - 972 p.

Jānis Valdmānis

PARATACTIC CLAUSE COMPLEXES IN LATVIAN

The article deals with an interpretation of relations between simple sentences combining together into clause complex on an equal status from the functional point of view.

Propositions as semantic constructions or simple sentences as grammatical constructions combine together into messages or texts. In writing, each simple sentence* forming part of a text concludes with a full-stop, more seldom with a question mark or an exclamation mark; in speech, it concludes with a large interval of melody (i.e. plašs melodijas intervāls). But simple sentences may be combined explicitly together usually by a conjunction word**

(1) Es iekāpu vilciena vagonā, un arī viņa iekāpa.

(2) Viņi bija atbraukuši laikā, jo svinībām drīz vajadzēja sākties.

Thus simple sentences obtain status of clauses (sometimes being modified in the process of combining them together), and construction as a whole may be interpreted as a clause complex (not complex sentence: a unit of additional syntax).

Sometimes, alternatively, simple sentences are assigned separate units, and second sentence includes a conjunction

(3) Aplūkotās kadences pieder pie visplašāk izmantojamiem kadenču veidiem. Taču mūzikā sastopami vēl citi kadenču veidi.. (in comparison with (4) Klasiskajā mūzikā skaņdarba pamatā ir kada noteikta tonalitāte, taču tikai reti.. šī tonalitāte tiek izturēta visu laiku).

(4) Vienīgi pagasta vecākais mani nelamā. Tāpēc ka esmu aprakstījis viņu suni.

Sometimes a combination of simple sentences occurs without any conjunction word

(6) Bail ar roku jasmīnzaram pieskarties -- ziedi sadegs, aļās lapas nomelnēs.

(7) Es iekāpu vilciena vagonā, viņa arī iekāpa: man bija jābrauc trešā kupejā, viņai arī.

However in clause complexes (6), (7) a conjunction word could be used. Investigation of rather large material from such aspect by means of

*The article deals with only sentences separating them from quasi-sentences.

**Here conjunction words include conjunctions and other connecting words such as pronouns, particles.

elimination or explication of conjunction words makes possible to draw a conclusion that use of conjunction words in combining simple sentences together depends to a large extent on stylistic (not grammatical) aims. Use of conjunction word emphasizes connection between clause. . connection of both content and form. Use of conjunctionless connection of clause. ambiguous, conjunctionless connection sometimes allows several interpretations of content. But this fact makes us revise the opinion, th: conjunctionless connection is the basis for distinguishing so-called appendix (i.e. piekārtojuma) clauses (Mūsdienu latviešu literārās valodas gramatika, p.791 ff.), by proposing that conjunctionless connection does not ca particular kind of connection of clause.

Here a question of essential importance namely, can be admitted to be a simple sentence

According to "Mūsdienu latviešu literārās valodas gramatika" simple sentence is made of one predicative unit, but so-called complex sentence is made of several predicative units (p.587). Predication is explained as a affirmative or a negative feature represented by predicative connections between "members of grammatical centre"

Yet, a simple sentence may be regarded as a syntactic construction consisting of finite verb together with words- atellite i.e words accompanying finite verb. According to this opinion the traditional opinion concerning so-called "equal members of a sentence" (i.e. vienlīdzīgi teikuma locekļi)(Mūsdienu latviešu literārās valodas gramatika, p.381 ff.) should be corrected. On the contrary, according to the traditional and post-traditional opinion sentences with "equal members of a sentence" simple sentences.

(8a) Kā skolēni, tā arī studenti lasa mācību grāmatas

(8b) Studenti lasa mācību grāmatas un citu literatūru.

(9a) Studenti klausās lekcijas un studē literatūru.

(9b) Uz sanāksmi varbūt tomēr paspē? taču sagr s gan nepagūšu.

Still, there is an essential difference between sentences with "equal" predicates expressed by finite verb (9a), (9b) and sentences with "equal" other members of the sentence (8a), (8b), because predicate in fact represents all the sentence as constructing centre of a sentence, both semantically and grammatically. But it means that there are any simple sentence. any predicate are.

Not repeating aforementioned subject (irrespective of the fact whether subject is expressed by a personal pronoun of first, second person or personal pronoun of third person, noun) has become almost al elimination of copula *but* in 3 person present tense indicative mood form:

(10) Zeme ir apaļa un griežas vispirms pati ap sevi.

(11) viņas [kzas] krīt pie zemes un spārdās, bet uz mājām neiet.

(12) Vanags vai nu negribēja, vai nepaguva atbildēt.

Thus, if a sentence is a syntactic construction consisting of predicate together with words-satellites, then these constructions (10), (11), (12) may be regarded as clause complexes.

It is suitable to interpret the relations between clauses in a clause complex in terms of the logical component of the grammatical system, because the logic of natural language is made up by functional-semantic relations (understanding of functional grammar see -- *An Outline of Functional Grammar*, pp.3 - 18).

One of the systems is the logical system of interdependency, which is general to all complex - word, phrase and clause.

The other is the logico-semantic system of expansion and projection, which are specifically interclausal relations, or, to be precise, relations between situations, i.e. actions, processes, phenomena, etc.

These systems together can provide frame-work for describing the clause complex.

The system of interdependency means that if there exists some complex consisting of two components, then relations between them can be interpreted as alternative between two features "equal - unequal":

Two components can be combined together on an equal status, neither being dependent on the other. In that case the relation between the components is equal or PARATACTIC, continuing and the other continuing.

(13) Gaiss ir pavē - un rasa vēl nav nožuvusi.

The components of a pair of related components in paratactic relation are viewed as primary or initiating and secondary or continuing. Both components are free, each component could stand as a functioning whole.

If two components are combined together, and one of them modifies another, the status of components is unequal - the modifying component is dependent on the modified one. In that case the relation between them is unequal or HYPOTACTIC, which designates the relation between a dependent component and its dominant, the component on which it is dependent.

The basis of traditional classification actually is existence or non-existence of conjunction. According to that conjunction and conjunctionless clauses are divided. The conjunction are divided into co-ordinate and sub-ordinate clauses.

(14) Viņi bija atbraukuši laikā, jo svinībām drīz vajadzēja sākties.
 The components of a pair related in hypotactic relation are viewed as primary or dominant (head) and secondary or dependent. Because of the binding of components of unequal status the dominant component is free, but the dependent one is not.

Here it must be noted that the question of which is the primary or initiating and which one is the secondary or continuing clause have to be interpreted as a matter of which clause comes first. Whereas in hypotaxis primary or dominant and secondary or dependent clause can occur in three positions: 1) either dependent following dominant or 2) dependent enclosed in dominant or 3) dependent preceding primary clause. But the secondary clause is always that one which is dependent.

There is a wide range of different logico-semantic relations between primary and secondary clauses on the one hand and dominant and dependent ones on the other. Yet, it is possible to group these relations into general types based on the two fundamental relationships of expansion and projection (Halliday, p.196).

An EXPANSION means that the secondary clause (in paratactic relation)

(15) Viņš nevarēja ilgāk gaidīt – viņš aizgāja.
 or dependent one (in hypotactic relation)

(16) Viņš aizgāja projām, kas visus pārsteidza.
 expands the primary clause or dominant one by elaborating, extending or enhancing it.

PROJECTION means that the secondary clause (in paratactic relation)

(17) Tu teici – "Viņš nevar ilgāk gaidīt."
 or dependent one (in hypotactic relation)

(18) Tu teici, ka viņi nevar ilgāk gaidīt.
 is projected through the primary clause or dominant one.

It is useful to propose that there are several subtypes for both expansion and projection.

There follows definition for each of subtypes of expansion.

Elaboration is a relation which occurs when one clause expands another by specifying in greater detail, restating in other words, commenting or exemplifying:

(19) Viņš nevarēja ilgāk gaidīt – viņš aizgāja.

In fact the secondary clause provides a further characterization of the situation that is already there, restating it, clarifying it, refining it, describing it or commenting on it. The situation that is elaborated can be the primary clause as a whole, or it can be just some part of it: one or several of its

words.

Paratactic elaboration involves three ways of expanding primary clause, namely, exposition, exemplification, clarification.

Exposition means that the second clause restates the information of the primary clause in different words. It can be represented schematically

PROP 'in other words' PROP

The relationship is sometimes made explicit by conjunction words such as *citiem vardiem*, *jeb*

(20) Mašīnu nevar iedarbināt, kaut kas nav kārtībā: aizdedzi.

(21) Es pie jums iegriezoz, ām braukdams, tas ir, a lūdz
iegriezti

Exemplification means that the second clause develops the content of the primary clause by becoming more specific about it, sometimes giving an actual example. It can be represented schematically

PROP 'for example' PROP

The relationship is sometimes made explicit by conjunction words such as *piemeram*, *ipāši*

(22) Jūsu ģimene ir tāda pati kā citas – gadās arī ķildas un ne apra

Clarification means that the secondary clause clarifies the content of the primary clause providing it with some explanation or comment. It can be represented schematically

PROP 'to be precise' PROP

The relationship is sometimes made explicit by conjunction words such as *precīzāk*, *butība*, *faktiski*,

(23) Andris izskatījās iegrimis sevī, būtībā – rausti domāja par neveiksmes cēloņiem.

(24) Jaunīgais tikai klausījās, āk sakot, mēmi lūkojas sve apkārt.

Extension is a relation which occurs when one clause expands another by adding just some new information, an exception to it, or offering an alternative

(25) Viņš steidzās, un brālis mēģināja turēties līdzī.

Paratactic extension involves three ways of expanding primary clause, namely addition, adversion, alternation.

Paratactic extension corresponds more or less to what is known as coordination in traditional grammar, expressed by most frequently used conjunctions *un*, *bet*,

Here addition means that the information is simply adjoined to another without any implication of causal or temporal relationship between them.

It can be represented schematically as

PROP 'and' PROP

The relationship is made explicit by conjunction words such as *un, (un) arī, (un) turklāt, ne vien - bet arī, tiklab - ka arī, gan gan, ir, ne ne, vel vairāk*

- (26) Mēs gājām, skaļi čalodami, un arī meitenes gāja turpat mums pa priekšu.
 (27) No kaktiem uzplūda krēsla, un es iemigu.
 (28) Ievas un ceriņi, un ābeles ir noziedējušas, un pašlaik zied rudzi uz lauka.

Here a *d v e r s i o n* means that one situation is opposed (as being in partial or total) to the other situation. The relationship is made explicit by conjunction words such as *bet, taču, (un) tomēr, totie, turpreti, citādi, tikai*. It can be represented schematically in several different ways.

PROP 'but' PROP

- (29) No malas migla izliekas bieza, bet selga ta būs šķidra kā brutes plīvurs..
 (30) Gāzu saspiežamība ir liela, turpreti šķidrums hidrostātika uzskata par nespiežamiem.
 (31) Nu būs jādod liela pūra nauda, ādi neviens neņems.

PROP (1) 'but not all' PROP (2)

- (32) Visu remontu viņi paveica ļoti kvalitatīvi, tikai strādāja gan viņi ļoti lēni.
 (33) Māja un pagalmis ir kā izmiris, tikai kaķis laiski aizslid aiz pakš:
 'Not' PROP 'but' PROP
 (34) Neizrunājies tik gari un plaši par cilvēktiesībām, bet saki skaidri savu priekšlikumu.

Here a *l t e r n a t i o n* means that two situations are presented, another of which is possible. It can be represented schematically

PROP 'or' PROP

The relationship is made explicit by conjunction words such as *vai vai nu vai (arī), vai arī, te, drīz, drīz*.

- (35) Vai nu viņi mēģinās bēgt, vai arī turpinās pretotie
 (36) Tikai pavasaros kādreiz ledī iztramda [samus], vi skaidrē ūdenī paši iemaldās kādā atvarā.
 (37) Te viss mierīgi, te uzreiz vējš salieca un izstiepa pa savam skrējienam tievos un lokanos vītolu zarus.

Enhancement is a relation which occurs when one clause expands another by qualifying it with some circumstantial feature of place, manner, cause or condition:

(38) Frontē tu vari arī krist, un tad tu šo dzīvi vairs neredzē

Paratactic enhancement means that the additive or the adversative relation of two situations is enhanced by reference of place, time or manner or that second clause expands another with cause-consequence (supportive) relation.

Paratactic enhancement corresponds more or less to what is known in traditional grammar as coordination with circumstantial feature into it.

The additive relation with reference to place is usually expressed by the conjunction words *un tur*

(39) Viņš ieskatījās arī pagrabā, un tur viņš
pārlasām kartupeļus.

The additive relation with reference to time is usually expressed by the conjunction words *un tad*, *(un)pa to laiku*, *un pirms tam*.

(40) Frontē tu vari arī krist, un tad tu šo dzīvi vairs neredzē

(41) Viens no viņiem atsēja laivu, otrs pa to laiku jau bija paspējis
aiziet un tīklu.

The additive relation with reference to manner is usually expressed by the conjunction words *(un) tādejādi*, *(un) tāda veida*

(42) Sargš iepriekš bija pārbaudījis visas atslēgas, un tādejādi bija
nodrošinājis arī pret šādu nejaušību.

The adversative relation with reference to place is usually expressed by the conjunction words *bet tur*

(43) Meitene pavēra zāles durvis, bet tur vairs neviena nebija.

The adversative relation with reference to time is usually expressed by the conjunction words *bet tad*, *bet pa to laiku*, *bet pirms tam*, *bet pēc tam*

(44) Kādu brīdi brāļi ceļmalī atpūtī, bet pēc tam jaunākais tīkko spēja
cilāt kē.

The cause-consequence (supportive) relation is usually expressed by conjunction words *(un) tāpēc*, *(un) tādeļ*

(45) Savas spējas viņš bija izkōpis pirms, un tāpēc bija izveidojis
šī neatkarīgā uzvedībi.

(46) Vēja virziens bija dienvidrietumi, un tādeļ daži tīkli sadzīti čupī.

The notion of projection was introduced above and we pointed out that the projection means that the secondary or dependent clause is projected

through the primary or dominant one. It occurs when someone retells what another person has said

(47) Viņš paspēja atcirst "Es vairs negaidīšu ilgāk.

(48) "Lai vēl paguļ, māte garāmicdama nodomāja.

The projecting clause expresses a verbal process, i.e. one of saying, and the projected clause represents what is said. Projection in contrast to expansion is the logico-semantic relationship whereby a clause comes to function not as a direct representation of non-linguistic experience, but as a representation of linguistic representation. While the projecting clause

(49) Tēvs pēc tam vienkārši pateica

represents an ordinary phenomenon, fragment of experience, the projected clause "Tu neklausies viņos" represents metaphephenomenon, something that is itself a representation. Because the question is not "Did he or did he not say" but here the question is "Did he or did he not say these words?" Therefore from the logical point of view the structure of this clause complex is paratactic, in which the logico-semantic relations are of projection, the projecting clause is a verbal process and the projected one has the status of a wording, namely, what is said:

(50) Māte iebilda "Sāks vēl sāpēt.

(51) "Man vairs nepatīk nākt mājās. Ieva reiz atbildēja uz māte jautājumu.

(52) Tēvs noprasīja stingri "Ko tad jūs tur vēl meklēsīt?"

Besides the logical structure of interclausal relationship is reflected in grammatical structure between clauses as well. Thus the projecting and projected clause have equal status.

By the way, the projecting and projected clause can more frequently have unequal status, to be precise, relation between the dominant and its dependent clause

(53) Kaimiņš lielījās, ka labāku vairs nevar atrast.

(in comparison with Kaimiņš lielījās "Labāku vairs nevar atrast")

But this is not the matter of this article.

Because of the fact, that language is used not only to talk, but used also to think, hence a process of thinking can also be expressed as projection, i.e. one of thinking, and projected clause represents what is thought

(54) Un tad tu nolēmi "Viņi nevar ilgāk gaidīt.

(55) "Es arī šovasar labprāt paceļotu," viņa skumīgi nodomāja.

If we contrast the construction (54) to the example given above (47) it is obvious that the difference between them is that in (54) the projecting clause

expresses mental process (not verbal process as in (47)) and the projected clause is a meaning (not a wording as in (47)).

Yet, the projected clause as a meaning is a metaphenomenon. But presented at a different level – semantic, not lexico-grammatical. When something is projected as a meaning it has already been 'processed' by the linguistic system; but processed **only once**, not twice as in the case of wording. So for example the phenomenon of water falling out of the sky may be coded as a meaning, by a mental process of cognition, in (*she thought*) it was raining; but when the same phenomenon is represented by verbal process as in (*she said*) "raining" it is the **meaning** 'it is raining' that has been recoded to become a **wording**. A wording is, as it were, "cooked" (Halliday, p.230). When something is projected as a meaning, not represented by the very words, because actually there are no words.

Thus there are two main types of projection, to be precise, of the projecting process – verbal projection or projection of wording and mental projection or projection of meaning.

Verbal projection is a relation which occurs when secondary clause is projected through another which presents it as a construction of wording. Verbal projection can be represented by symbol – (double quotes):

(56) Tevs aprāj "Ko tu blāuj kā negudr!"

"Dzert grībe – puika suroj;

(58) "Ko tu raudi!" tumšais prasīja;

Mental projection is a relation which occurs when secondary clause is projected through another which presents it as a construction of meaning. Mental projection could be represented by symbol – (single quote – commonly used in linguistic literature. It would be more adequate from the functional point of view:

(59) Ilze skaidri zināja "Viņš var atgriezies."

(60) Mazo nepārtraukti tirdīja jautājums "Bet kāpēc krustmate r."

(61) Tad atcerejas dēlu "Būtu labāk mēs!"

The main function of so-called "direct speech" as it is known, is to represent the wordings or at least to create the image that it is so. Therefore one should not suppose that when a speaker or writer uses the form of "direct speech" he is always indeed repeating the exact words.

But it must be pointed out that a wording is real wording or (in cases of mental projection) meaning represented as a wording.

Andrejs Veisbergs

Contrastive Analysis of Word-formation Types (Abbreviation, Clipping and Blending)

This article is an attempt to describe similarities and differences of the word-formation patterns in Latvian and English based on shortening. The study is generally of synchronic character making use of language material of the eighties and nineties of this century, however, with some examples diachronic treatment is necessary and reflects the peculiarities of the modern language functioning and word building types that are active and productive.

Word-formation studies all aspects (process, types, means and rules) of creation of new words which ensure nomination, words productivity, functioning, and classification. The complexity of the subject is determined by the close connection between different language levels involved in the process (phonetic, morphological, syntactic); the difficulty of separating word-formation and word change; the difficulty of separating synchronic and diachronic study and the complexity because of the sheer amount of words and variety of combinations of the word-formation patterns used in building them. Also the status of word-formation as a branch of linguistic study in between grammar and lexicology is as yet unclear (Adams, p.7).

The constant development of society, industry, agriculture, trade, transport and science bring into existence new objects and phenomena, new notions that have to be named. There are also shifts in attitudes to some words, when words move up or down the social ladder. The three basic ways of enrichment of vocabulary are borrowing, change of meaning of old words and creation of new words. Synchronic functioning of word formation is most easily seen when studying neologisms which reflect the present day tendencies.

The ability to coin as well as understand new words rather easily derives in part from the fact that there is a lot of regularity in the word formation processes -- word-formation types, paradigms which the word has to fit, analogies with similar words. On the other hand the word formation patterns are not always used in a neat and tidy manner, nor are they so regular in general. They are often combined, creating a multitude of variants.

Word formation was a subject of interest already in classical Greece and Rome with the general emphasis on two patterns only -- derivation (affixation) and composition. Since then new categories have been added, though in both English and Latvian the traditional approach dominated for centuries. Even today there is still much disagreement which patterns are to be included within word-formation field and which not. Usually affixation, composition, clipping and conversion go as the main word-formation types, yet even then there can be objections to conversion being included as it does not presuppose any real change (Marle, p.145) and may be a simple word. Marchand considers that "the study of the simple word, therefore, insofar as it is an unanalysable, unmotivated sign has no place in it (word-formation)" Yet, he himself includes conversion in his book calling it derivation by a zero-morpheme. Also clipping is often viewed as differing from the traditional word-formation types and referred to the sphere of speech, not language (Marchand).

Latvian word-formation studies prefer devoting most of the attention to composition and affixation (which are the predominant word-formation types), much less attention is paid to conversion and abbreviation, clipping is generally ignored (Musdienu, V Kalme, Freimane). Other word-formation types are generally viewed outside word-formation problems. Following Endzelins Latvian word-formation studies are historically centred, the need for synchronic research has been pointed out by E. Soida (1970). There is a gap between written and

spoken language in Latvian, much bigger than in English. Another difference is that the English word-formation is very much left on its own (of course, analogy and common sense affect it) while Latvian wordbuilding was to a large extent worked out and monitored by linguists.

In this article the following word-formation types will be analyzed:

1. Abbreviation
2. Clipping
3. Blending

Abbreviation

Abbreviation in the broad meaning may include some of the other types of word-formation viewed here separately -- clippings, blends, however, here we view the term in the narrow meaning. Abbreviation is formation of new words from the initial letters of a set of other words. This wordbuilding pattern was common already in the classical world and has become increasingly frequent in the modern languages. Abbreviations especially proliferate in the last few decades spreading from colloquial to highly specialized scientific and technical terms. The main function of abbreviations is to compress the text and economize space and effort. There are numerous abbreviations in both English and Latvian.

Abbreviations can be composed of the initial capital (upper case) letters of a word group. They are called initialisms, or initial abbreviations (words), when the abbreviation is pronounced separately letter by letter, e.g. English **BBC, IBM, UK, USA, MP, VHF, MCP** (Male Chauvinist Pig), **TGIF** (Thank God It's Friday); Latvian **LR, AP, ZA, VDK, GNP, TTT, LU**

The other type of abbreviations, called acronyms (protograms), are pronounced like ordinary words, e.g. English **NATO, NASA, GATT, UNESCO**, Latvian **ANO, HES, TEC, NATO**. In some cases in English we see a mixture of the two, e.g.

CD-ROM, where the first part is initialism the second - acronym. Some of the acronyms have a tendency to lose the capitals and become everyday common terms, e.g. English **laser** (light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation), **radar** (radio detecting and ranging), **scuba** (self contained underwater breathing apparatus) , in Latvian in this case respective gender endings are supplied **ceka** (CK -- Centrāla Komiteja) , **Vefs** (VEF -- Valsts Elektro Fabrika) , **tecs**, (TEC -- Termo-elektro stacija), **Jaks** (JAK), **kamazs** (KAMAZ).

Some linguists consider so called syllable words (Marchand, 1969,p.452) of the type **Benelux** also as acronym subtype. But it seems they should be more appropriately placed with compound clippings.

English also has initialisms turned acronyms by respelling them pronunciation-wise: **dejay** (DJ -- disc jockey), **emcee** (MC -- master of ceremony), **veep** (VP-- Vice President).

In English there are more abbreviations and a greater variety of types. Thus **sten**(gun) is derived from the initials of the inventors names Shephard and Turpin with adding **-en** from Bren. This could be viewed as influence of blending. The famous **jeep** actually comes from GP (general purposes). A specific English word pattern is also a combination of an initial abbreviation with a full word in certain compounds: **A-bomb**, **H-test**, **U-boat**, **U-turn**, **L-shaped**, **B-movie**, **UFology**, **V-day**. Abbreviations occasionally penetrate even idiom system **to be OTT** (over the top). Famous persons are designated by their initials: **G.B.S.** for George Bernard Shaw. **J.F.K.** for John Fitzgerald Kennedy, longer town names are abbreviated:

*A day after the fired guards filed suit in **L.A.** (Time, 1993,49) (Los Angeles)*

English also has a category practically absent in Latvian -- slang and jocular abbreviations **TGIF** (Thank God it is Friday), **fubar** (lucked up beyond any

recognition), **lombards** (lots of money but a real dick-head), **P.U** (pew), **BS** (bull shit), words that remind of usual vocabulary and are semantically connected: **MAD** (mutual assured destruction), **WIN** (whip inflation now), **CREEP** (Committee to Reelect the President).

English is also a major donor language of abbreviations used in many other languages

Latvian has a much smaller number of abbreviations (though a considerable one as can be seen in the dictionary (Bankavs,1994)) and they are mainly initialisms. A very high percentage of abbreviations in Latvian are of borrowed origin - either preserving the original spelling (though not always pronunciation) or loan translations. Abbreviations were practically non-existent in Latvian in the early stages of development limited to persons initials and parts of Bible (Bergmane, p. 205). But there has been a remarkable increase in abbreviations in the 20 th century and especially since the Second World war.

An analysis of the historical spread of the abbreviations in newspapers shows the following picture. The numbers refer to the first page of random selection which generally has mixed foreign and local news.

Newspaper	Year	Abbreviations	Usage number	Aver. use of one abbr.
Wallstreet Journal	1993	65	112	1.72
Financial Times	1993	37	105	2.86
Jaun. Ziņas	1939	1.7	4.1	2.41
Vald. Vestn.	1939	0.7	1.3	1.85
Tevija	1942	1.3	4.6	3.5
Padomju Jaunatne	1974	9	40.2	4.47

Diena	1994	15	35.3	2.33
-------	------	----	------	------

As can be seen there has been a steady growth in the number of abbreviations in use and their usage. This can only partly be explained by the growth in number of local and international organizations, but mainly by the shift in language convention - much more frequent use of abbreviations. The higher frequency of usage in the soviet times can be accounted for by overabundant use of a few abbreviations (**PSRS, PSKP, CK**).

Another fact not reflected in the the table is the use of graphical abbreviations in Latvian (See below) which has decreased rather dramatically. The few advertisements on the first page as well as the information on the paper in the 30-40ies yields about 15 higher number of graphical abbreviations (**vltn., sept., pl.**) than others. This is not the case today. Also use of hyphenated abbreviations (**dep-ts, pr-ks, b-ba**) has decreased substantially

The shorter the abbreviation the more polysemantic it usually is. English **GP** has the following meanings: *Baltic International airlines code, Gallup Poll, gas-permeable, general paralysis, general pause, general practitioner, general purpose, Gloria Patri, Graduate in Pharmacy, grand passion, Grand Prix.* In Latvian **LMA**: *Latvijas mākslas akadēmija, Latvijas Medicīnas akadēmija, Latvijas Mūzikas akadēmija; MP* *Mākslas padome, Muļķu partija, Ministru padome.*

Spelling.

There are several conventions for writing abbreviations in English -- capital letters with stops (points) **U.S.A.** capital letters without stops (the unpointed style prevails in current in English and it is the basic tradition in Modern Latvian) **AIDS**, lower case letters with points e.g. or acronyms without points **laser**, mixed

capitals and lower case **EdB** (Bachelor of Education), **REconS** (Royal Economic Society) and different hybrid forms.

Initialisms in Latvian are to be spelled in capitals only (Freimane, p.167), which is not always the case, e.g. **KamAZ**. Though in the 19th century abbreviations often had periods after each letter, now the practice is that periods are not used. Initialisms cannot acquire endings, acronyms occasionally can, yet they should not be added to the capitalized forms e.g. *Braukt ar **ZILu**, cietusi viena **VEFa** celtnē.*

In these cases normally either the noun is used without ending e.g.

*Par **FIBA** teikto... Es **FIBA** uzskatu par nopietnu veidojumu,* or if the acronym has the noncapital form this allows addition of endings, e.g. ***Vefu** uzskata par pirmindas fabriku, izsauca uz **ceku**.*

English allows more variety in the usage of abbreviations. Possessive case, as well as plural forms can be applied to most of initialisms, e.g.

NATO's attacks on serb forces, several **MPs** joined the row. However, possessive case endings are not used as extensively as one might expect, as strings of words increasingly come into the instead of grammatical connection with an 'of -phrase' or use of possessive case. e.g.

*...political cooperation between E.C. members and a director of the restructuring of the E.C.'s steel and textile industries. ...E.C. political integration is also vital..
...U.N. officials arrived late...(Time, 1992, 52)*

English initialisms can undergo conversion which means they can be used in a variety of functions. *Why don't you come and **P.G.** with me* (A. Wilson)(**P.G.** paying guest), ***waspish** attitudes* (**WASP** -- White Anglo-Saxon Protestant), ***Oding** on aspirin* (**OD** - overdose).

Lower case acronyms can naturally undergo morphological changes as any words both in English and in Latvian, e.g. **radar - radar's, laser - lasers; vefs - vefiņš, vefā, vefietis.**

Parallel forms are practically non-existent in English, while Latvian has some forms which may be used in different contexts, e.g. **VDK** and **KGB, BBC** and **Bi-bi-si, USA** and **ASV**. This is normally due to the language contact situation and foreign language interference.

Latvian abbreviations mainly consist of two to four letters, longer combinations are rather rare, while English has a much higher percentage of multicomponent abbreviations.

Most of English abbreviations are of English origin, a considerable part are Latin --**tid** (ter in die -- three times a day), **VR** (Victoria Regina -- Queen Victoria), **cv** (curriculum vitae). Other languages are rarely represented, e.g. German **BMW** (Bayerische Motoren Werke), **SS** (Schutzstaffel), **VW** (Volkswagen), **AG** (Aktiengesellschaft), French **FIFA, Mlle** (Mademoiselle), Italian music terms. Translation of foreign abbreviations is not characteristic of English.

A considerable part of the abbreviations in Latvian are borrowings from English-- **NATO, AIDS, UNICEF, BBC**, Russian -- **dzots, dots, VAZ, TASS, KAMAZ, KamAZ** French **UEFA, FIFA, FIDE**, and German **BND** (Bundesnachrichtendienst), **BMW**, musical terms Italian **ppp** (piano pianissimo), **FF** (fortissimo) usually retaining the original spelling of the abbreviation or in case of Russian substituting it by Latvian letters, e.g. **DOSAAF** Other abbreviations, however, are loan translations, e.g. **ANO, ASV, ES, MVU, VĻKJS.**

Foreign acronyms come into Latvian as real root words, e.g. **čeka, čekists**, (Cherrezvuchainiy Kommitet), **lāzers, neps, esers, dzots, radars**, yet in some cases the word-formation is somewhat more complex: **dipītis** (DP -- Deported Person), **didžejs** for **disko žokejs** from English DJ or **dejay**, **bembuks** (BMW).

A special group is formed by graphical abbreviations. These are abbreviations (not clippings) that are shortened forms of words in writing for the reason of economy of space and effort, e.g. **abbr** for abbreviation, **ltd** for limited, **NY** for New York, **oz** for ounce, **mg** for miligram, **Govt.** for Government, **Xmas** for Christmas, **St** for street, **pp** for pages, **Mr.**, etc. Some though can also be pronounced in the abbreviated form, e.g. **i.e.**, **p.m.**, **MA**, **BA**. English also has rather many Latin abbreviations of this type, some of which are pronounced in the abbreviated form, others in their English full form: **i.e.**, **loc. cit.** (in the passage cited), **p.m.**, **a.m.**, **cf.**(compare), French **R.S.V.P** is widely used for 'reply please'

Latvian has fewer abbreviations of this type yet their usage frequency is very high: **k-gs, k-dze, u.c., utt.** (the old forms **u.t.pr., u.t.j.pr.**), **plkstn, Ls**. The functioning of graphical abbreviations is similar in both languages.

Translation.

Translation of English abbreviations usually does not create big problems. In case of corresponding equivalents those are used. In case of absence initialisms are opened up as full forms or direct transfer or loan translation is used with explanations in brackets, e.g.

*During the same period, **MNCs**' share of the market went from 77 percent to 33 percent. (Prosperity Papers 2. USIA, 1973):*

*Šajā pašā laikā **transnacionālo kompāniju** tirgus daļa kritās no 77% uz 33%. (Serija "Labklājība"2, USIS, 1993).*

Lower case acronyms are usually transcribed and borrowed as root words **laser** – **lāzers**, **radar** -- **radars**. For some graphical abbreviations there are corresponding Latvian abbreviations **Mr** -- **k-gs**, which are used in formal translations. However, transcription of full English form or full translation is normally preferred **Mr** -- **misters**, **kungs**.

Translating foreign (Latvian) abbreviations into English normally leads to restoration of the full form of the abbreviation while the abbreviation is usually kept in the original form:

*Besieging troops of the **Croatian Defence Council (HVO)**.... (Newsweek, 6.12.1993).*

*nationalist **Fatherland and Freedom (TB)** faction. said TB faction member Juris Sinka. (The Baltic Observer, 1994, 24).*

A specific case of abbreviation use is when the abbreviation is used only once, usually after a full version of the collocation. In this case the main function of the abbreviation is not to compress the text but to categorize the collocation as a complex stable verbal unit, thus underlying its importance. In these cases translation should follow suit in order to retain adequacy.

Summary.

Abbreviations are typical of both English and Latvian. In both languages they constitute a steadily growing phenomenon. Also principles of abbreviation are similar. English has a greater variety of abbreviation types, mixed cases, spheres of functioning and the absolute number of abbreviations than Latvian as well as the occasional and colloquial coinages that Latvian misses. Latvian abbreviations tend to be rather short -- generally 2-3 letters. English is also the main supplier of abbreviations for borrowing to other languages, including Latvian.

Clipping

Clipping is abbreviation of a word by loss of its syllabic elements. This type of economy is a frequent occurrence in many languages. It is used intensively in Modern English, less intensively in Latvian. Clipping is not so much a method of new word formation, rather altering old ones with a slight change of their meaning (mainly connotational). The new form obtained retains the semantic and syntactic function of the original. As economy principle in language would not allow having two forms simultaneously with one meaning simultaneously so clippings generally retain more colloquial or slangy tinge, "they indicate an attitude of familiarity on the part of the user, either towards the object denoted, towards the audience" (Adams, p.135). Or one of the two forms can disappear or semantically change. The full words rarely pass out altogether, yet there are a few cases. e.g. **chap** (**chapman**), **brandy** (**brandewine**), **mob** (**mobile**). Sometimes there is a differentiation of meaning and the semantic link between the full word and the clipping be lost, e.g. **vamp** and **vampire**, **gin** and **Geneva**.

Diachronically there may be a considerable change of meaning, when the clipped words acquire new meaning. e.g.

miss (mistress)

cab (cabriolet)

van (caravan)

navvy (navigator)

van (vanguard)

In Latvian historical clipping is rather rare. Yet, there are parts of speech where clipping has occurred even rather regularly, generally connected with a change of part of speech (often a phrase undergoes ellipsis and clipping).

Interjections:

re, **redz**, **edz** from **redzi**,

reče transformation from **redzi šē**,

klau from **klausies**, **paklau** from **paklausies**,

skat from **skaties**, **paskat** from **paskaties**,
pag from **pagaidi**,
dzi from **dzirdi**, **vadzi** from **vai dzirdi**,
lūk from **palūko**,
rau, raug from **paraugies**.

Pragmatic particles (in Latvian -- partikulas):

kazi from **kas zin**,
tik from **tikai**,
ar from **ari**,
diez, diezin from **dievs zin**,
diemžēl from **dievam žēl**.
diezgan from **dievs zin gan**
diezkā from **dievs zin kā**
diezkas from **dievs zin kas**

Also separate words of other parts of speech have undergone historical clipping, e.g. **paldies** from **palīdz dievs**. There are also shortened words created to replace longer and less attractive words. Thus, Alunans created **eja** (derived from **iet**) to replace the borrowed word **aizgaņģis**.

Tendencies to shorten by middle clipping can be seen in many compounds, e.g. **lappuse** (**lapaspuse**), by backclipping in using the definite endings of adjectives instead of the longer definite endings (very frequent in oral speech).

Clipping in Latvian is less spread than in English and the statement that "the tendency to abbreviate is minimal in Latvian" (Rūķe-Draviņa, 1977 p.100) can be considered quite true of the earlier period of development. However, the situation has to certain extent changed. Already in the past there have been attempts by outstanding linguists and literarians to improve the language by way of shortening. The greatest Latvian poet Rainis promoted shorter forms both in

theory and in practice. There have always been rather many clippings in colloquial language and slang, also in spoken language (e.g. tendency to reduce the definite adjectival endings) but in the past this was not taken seriously as the gap between Standard written language and spoken language was very big.

Clipping is very common English. Already Ch. Bally has pointed out that English tends towards monosyllabism. Clipping is a predominant feature of school and college slang, e.g. **grad (graduate)**, **exam (examination)**, **lab (laboratory)**, **digs (diggings)**, **math (mathematics)**, **dorms (dormitories)**, etc. which does not mean that it is limited to schools or universities only. As a direct parallel the great spread of clipping in school and college slang in Latvian could be pointed out, e.g. **latene (latviešu valoda)**, **dirkšķis (direktors)**, **eksis (eksāmens)**, **faķis (fakultāte)**, **litene (literatūra)**, **matene (matemātika)**.

Apart from this, other specific language spheres contribute to production of clippings - **vet (veteran)**, **cap (captain)** **copter (helicopter)**, **chute (parachute)** take their origin in army slang, while **bra (brassiere)**, **nighty (nightdress)**, **undies (underclothes)**, **pants, panties (pantaloons)** will have come from the shop slang. Afterwards similar to other slang words they pass into Standard language.

Clipping predominantly affects nouns. In English there are a few verbs that are used in the clipped forms, e.g. **rev (revolve)**, **prep (prepare)**, **phone (telephone)**, and a few adjectives -- **comfy (comfortable)**, **mizzy (miserable)**. Clipping in English is not restricted by any rules of what the final elements of the clipped form should be, like in Russian where clippings generally end on a consonant. The cut does not have to coincide with the morpheme boundary or the syllable structure: **exam -- e.xa.mi.na.tion**, **grad -- gradu.ate**. In Latvian addition of the ending is inevitable.

In English there are the three main types of clipping -- backclipping, foreclipping, middle clipping.

Backclipping (apocrapy) is the case when the final part of the word is cut off.

Backclipping is the most common way of shortening, e.g.

ad vertisement	doc tor
lab oratory	fab ulous
prof essor	cap tain
pro fessional	chimp anzee
demo nstration	fan atic
cap tain	ref fery
clit oris	gent leman
Will iam	cig garette
memo randum	rhino cerous

Foreclipping (frontclipping, apheresis) is the case when the front part of the word is deleted, e.g.

air plane	ham burger
omni bus	tele phone
heli copter	earth quake
tele gram	Becky from Rebecca
peri wig	para chute
sun shades	

In comparison with backclipping, foreclipping is not so widespread which might be explained by several reasons. It is easier to identify a backclipping(the beginning of the word is enough) than frontclipping and this may affect the spread of the new form. Jespersen (Language) has interesting data that children actually prefer the frontclippings, while adults give preference to backclippings.

Middle clipping (syncope) is the case when something is cut out in the middle of the word, these cases are often graphically visible, sometimes reflect pronunciation, occasionally are used for space economy reasons (titles, noticeboards), e.g.

ma'am (madam)

Jo'burg (Johannesburg)

prade (parade)

didn't (did not)

B'ham (Birmingham)

vibes (vibrations)

specs (spectacles)

maths (mathematics)

pants (pantaloons).

The last four cases might, though, be viewed as cases of backclipping with addition of 's'

There are quite frequent combinations of the above mentioned types foreclipping and backclipping affecting one word (often personal names):

de **tec** tive

pre **scrip** tion

in **flu** enza

head **shrink** er

re **fridge** rator

di **still** ery

Liz from Elizabeth

Clipping can also go together with compounding. In some cases these can be viewed as partial blends:

motorcade from **motor** **cavalcade** (See Blending)

Clippings often become the first constituents in the compound. If this model turns productive for one form the clipping can turn into semi-affix:

Eurocup from **European** **cup**

Eurofighter from **European** **fighter**

paratroops from **parachute** **troops**

Eurasia from **Europe** **and** **Asia**.

Clippings can also be second constituents in the compounds:

skylab from **sky laboratory**

showbiz from **show business**.

There can be compounds consisting of clipped elements (backclippings):

sit-com from **situation comedy**

telex from **teleprinter exchange**

hi-fi from **high fidelity**

sci-fi from **science fiction**

Interpol from **international police**

napalm from **naphthenate palmitate**

phys-ed from **physical education**

comintern from **communist international**

And clipping can as well as go together with ellipsis:

zoo zoological gardens

proms promenade concerts

perm permanent wave

pub public house.

prefab prefabricated house

The clippings should be phonologically well-formed words. Thus though most of the clippings in English are shortened forms of the initial word without any change, some clippings undergo a graphical change in the process (often to avoid mistaking them with other words):

libe library

lib liberation

mike microphone

nightie nightdress

nuke nuclear weapons

hanky handkerchief

sample example

dub double

ammo ammunition	ciggie/y cigarette
biz business	libbie liberationist
tute tutor	teeny teenager
telly television	vegie vegetarian.
varsity university	pram perambulator

It is interesting that some of these formally modified clippings obtain a diminutive ending which in general is not widespread in English. Similar pattern on a larger scale has been observed in Latvian where modification by means of an ending is compulsory.

Clipping is quite widespread also in Latvian. There are two rather distinct forms of clipping in Latvian. One is generally widespread in Standard Latvian and neutral in style, often connected with scientific style of newspaper language. It is backclipping together with compounding bordering on semiaffixation, e.g. **speckurss** (speciālais kurss), **specskola** (speciālā skola), **politinformācija** (politiska informācija), **fizkultūra**, **hidroenerģija**, **hidroelektrostacija**, **kompartija**, **santehnika**, **komjaunatne**, **ģeofizika**, **ģeoķīmija**, **biofizika**, **bioķīmija**, **Eiroparlaments** (See also Affixation, Blending, Compounding).

One meets also compounds consisting of two backclippings: **partorgs**, **Latvenergo**, **Kuzbass**, **Donbass**, **kolhozs**, **sovhozs**. There is usually a strong influence of Russian behind these clipped compounds (loan translations) and they are generally either borrowed or built from international elements by use of analogy.

The real clipping is more characteristic of the colloquial language. It is practically always backclipping. Apart from the few exceptions (See below) this type of clipping is fully parallel to the traditional English clipping variants. These clippings are most characteristic of school or college slang but many of them are used in

general slang and even colloquial language. In many cases clippings stand for a notion expressed by a phrase (clipping and ellipsis), in which case the attributive word is retained and clipped. Clippings in Latvian are often accompanied with a change in the root of the word and always supplied with an ending from a restricted set (mainly diminutives).

Backclippings:

-ene

disene (diskoteka)

biblene (biblioteka)

litene (literatura)

latene (latviešu valoda)

dzimene (dzimšanas diena)

multene (multiplikācijas filma)

učene (Russian *uchitel'nitsa*)

futene (futbols)

plaķenes (plakanknaibles)

-is

faķis (fakultate)

flomis (flomasters)

maģis (magnetafons)

veicis (veikals)

eksis (eksamens)

mēģis (mēģinājums)

tinis (lineidžers)

fuķis (futbols)

ķinis (kino)

-uzis

kafūzis (kafejnīca)

restūzis (restorāns)

edūzis (ednīca)

-ītis,

unitis (universalveikals)

eķītis (ekonomiskais veikals)

dipītis (deportētā persona)

-iņš**dipiņš** (diapozitīvs)**letiņš** (latvietis)**zapiņš** (zaporožecis)**šiziņš** (šizofrēniķis)**-uks****telļuks** (televizors)**učuks** (Russian *uchitel*)**fočuks** (fotoaparāts)**ričuks** ((div)ritenis)

various

stipa (stipendija)**auto** (automašīna)**baskets** (basketbols)**viģiks** (videofilma).

It is interesting to note that there is a change of gender in some of the clippings. In case of change it is usually from feminine into masculine, which falls in line with the general tendency in Latvian.

Front clipping is rather rare in Latvian, usually connected with foreign language influence:

mašīna (automašīna)**busiņš** (autobuss)**ritenis** (divritenis)

The tradition of clipping has relatively old roots also in literary Latvian, to mention a few words: **mila** (mīlestība), **ilgas** (ilgošanās) which can be viewed as clipping of the rather clumsy suffixes **-šana -ība**, but also as a substitution of these suffixes by another which is shorter: **-e**: **atkāpe**, **atveide**, **rite**, **slide**. Suffix **-e** has become rather productive in terminology and general word-formation.

Translation.

When translating clipped English forms Latvian equivalents are normally unclipped words mainly because clipping is less extensive in Latvian and the English clippings often do not have the strong colloquial connotation the Latvian clippings have. Clipping is usually retained in the international wordstock (the compounds) where identical forms often exist as borrowings, e.g. **Eurocabinet** - **eirokabinets**, **Interpol** -- **Interpols**. If there are words with long tradition of clipped use in Latvian and also similar tonality of context these can be used: **libe** - **biblens**. The same is true for Latvian - English translation: **ritenis** -- **bike**, **šiziņš** -- **schiz**.

Summary.

Clipping and its basic types are very similar in the two languages. Clipping is more widespread in English than in Latvian. The variety of types in English is higher as well as the number of clippings in use. Many clippings have strong colloquial or slang character but many have lost this trait and are shorter variants of the longer words used in standard English. Most of the clippings are reduced forms of the initial word and do not undergo any change.

In Latvian clipping is used either for creating compounds of terminological character or in colloquial speech and slang. Most of the latter are backclippings and they are supplied with an ending from a restricted set. Diminutive endings are attached to a considerable part of clippings.

Blending

Blending is a wordbuilding pattern when two separate elements of words merge to produce a new term. So it combines clipping and compounding. The process of formation is also called telescoping (Tulloch) as the words seem to slide into one another like sections of a telescope. Thus many blends (fusions, amalgam, portmanteau words) seem to be root words, e. g. **smog**. Blending as a productive word-formation type enriching the vocabulary is generally a 20th

century phenomenon though separate occasional (usually jocular) blends have been recorded as early as 15th century.

English texts may abound in blends but the dictionaries contain not so many, which testifies to the predominantly occasional character of blends. Yet blending as such is most widespread. There are two kinds of blends: those naturally evolving and fully accepted and those that serve an individual purpose and are normally ephemeral.

As to the structure there are real, partial and overlapping blends.

Real blends consist of backclipping and foreclipping, e.g.

Chunnel = Channel + tunnel

brunch = breakfast + lunch

smog = smoke + fog,

gasohol = gasoline + alcohol

telecast = television + broadcast

fantabulous = fantastic + fabulous

telethon = television + marathon

motel = motor + hotel

Japish = Japanese + English

cinerama = cinematographic + panorama

Oxbridge = Oxford + Cambridge

electrolocute = electricity + execute

heliport = helicopter + airport

telecast = television + broadcast

laundromat = laundry + automat

brollability = broly + probability

stagflation = stagnation + inflation

affluenza = affluence + influenza

slimnastics = slimming + gymnastics

Partial blends consist of a full word plus foreclipping, e.g.

radiotrician = radio + electrician

workaholic = work + alcoholic

motorcade = motor + cavalcade

Irangate = Iran + watergate

Reaganomics = Reagan + economics

meritocracy = merit + aristocracy

Overlapping, when part of the blend is formed by coinciding elements of the two forms so that it is not possible to determine which word it belonged to, e.g.

sexpert = sex + expert

slanguage = slang + language

pomato = potato + tomato

slimnastics = slimming + gymnastics

affluenza = affluence + influenza

There are also a few words which are the result of combining two frontclippings.

These could be considered compounds as no telescoping effect is observed,

e.g.

moped = motor + pedal

Benelux = Belgium + Netherlands + Luxemburg

Apart from the stable blends there are countless occasional creations

representing all the types of blends:

priviligentsia = privileged + intelligentsia

harmolodic = harmony + melodic

orature = oral + literature

alcoholiday = alcohol + holiday

snoblem = snob + problem

paytriotism = pay + patriotism

bullionaire = bullion + millionaire

Japanazi = Japanese + Nazi

Blending is encouraged by the new scientific discoveries, tradenames, organizations, established offices, chemicals substances, e.g.

chlorodyne = chloroform + anodyne

hi-tech = high + technology

compusex = computer + sex

The close connection of blending with other word-formation types (apart from composition and clipping) can be seen when observing how some clipped forms

used in blending gain popularity and serve as semi-affixes, so **workaholic** was followed by **bookaholic, sleepaholic, pillaholic**, etc., similar development has been for **paratroops -- paradoctor, paraglider; panorama -- motorama, aquarama, newsorama**.

In Latvian there are few stable real blends. The English blends which have been borrowed, e.g. **smogs, motelis** (Baldunčiks), have come into the language as root loans. As native blends which have acquired some stability one could mention

latols = Latvija + ols (spirit)

taksobuss = taksometrs + autobuss

ļeņinekļis = Ļeņina + pieminekļis

bibliobuss = bibliotēka + autobuss

Yet we see at an increasing rate occasional blending, e.g. **sūdens, vidiotis, politikantrops, Ceļarāma, Latvegasa**:

Pati Rīga sūdeni (Diena, 18.12.1992)

Visa pamata ir informācijas izvele, un TV Ceļarāma to izvelas tā, lai caurmera skatītājam kļūtu nepārprotami skaidrs, ka viengais pareizais ceļš ir Latvijas ceļš. (Rīgas Balss, 23.03.1994.)

--Pie kura sevis pieskaiti? -- Hm... pie vidiotiem (Rīgas balss 2.11.1994)

Appearance of real blends in Latvian can be viewed as a direct consequence of growing English influence on Latvian wordformation.

On the other hand Latvian has rather many stable partial blends, e.g.

hidroelektrostacija, komjaunatne, interpressfoto, proforgs, ģeofizika,

aerofotouzņēmums, kompartija, orgkomiteja, fizkultūra, velotūrisms,

Eiroparlaments, šokopasta. Also these partial blends have largely been

created under the influence of Russian (some of them have become historisms

with the fall of the soviet regime) or international, mainly English, words. Sometimes the clipped components are on the verge of being considered semi-affixes: **speckurss, specdienests, specvienība, specskola, or eironauda, eirocenās, eirokooperācija, eiroiznīcinātājs, eirotunelis.**

Partial blends are often used in Latvian terminology when trying to make compounds shorter: **šujmašina** (šujamā mašina), **degviela** (degoša viela) **dzenskrūve, bidmērs.**

Translation.

Absence of good tradition of blending in Latvian and the natural differences between the languages makes translation rather problematic. Translation strategy of stable English blends depends on the nature of the concrete word. Some have been borrowed as root words -- **smogs, motelis.** Some, containing international elements, can be easily deciphered: **stagflation -- stagflācija, Reaganomics -- reiganomika, Irangate -- Irāngeita, cinerama -- kinorāma, priviligentsia -- privilīģence** and are consequently used in transcribed form. Others have to be turned into compounds or compound phrases: **Chunnel - Lamanša tunelis, sexpert -- seksa eksperts.**

Latvian blends so far did not pose any translation difficulties simply by their absence. The new creations can, it seems sometimes, be translated as blends.

Summary

Blending is a typically English word-formation type though not numerically dominant one. The virtual absence of blends in Latvian is not determined by the flexive nature of Latvian versus analytical nature of English but is the result of linguistic and cultural convention difference that is being changed now. In both languages there seem to be actually two groups of blends: the occasional ones possessing strong stylistic effect and the terminological blends without any stylistic effect. International elements in blends greatly alleviate their transfer and understanding.

Literature

- Adams V. An Introduction to Modern English Word-formation. London: Longman 1973.
- Baldunčiks J. Anglicismi latviešu valoda. Rīga: Zinātne, 1989.
- Bankavs A. Saisinājumi. Rīga: Avots, 1994.
- Bergmane A. Blinkena A. Latviešu rakstības attīstība. Rīga: Zinātne, 1988.
- Freimane I. Valodas kultūra teoretiskā skatījumā. Rīga: Zvaigzne, 1993.
- Jespersen O. Language. Its Nature, Development and Origin. London, 1934
- Kalme V. Smiltneiece G. Musdienu latviešu valodas morfoloģija. Deklinejamas vārdsķiras. Rīga: LVU, 1989
- Marchand H. The categories and types of Present-Day English Word-Formation. München, 1969.
- Marle J. van. On the paradigmatic dimension of morphological creativity. Dordrecht: Foris Publications, 1985
- Musdienu literāras latviešu valodas gramatika. Rīga: LPSR ZA, 1959
- Ruķe-Draviņa V. The Standardization Process in Latvian. Stockholm: Almqvist & Wiksell International, 1977
- Soida E. Varddarīnašanas analīzes principi musdienu valodniecībā un valoda // Latviešu valodas un literatūras problēmas. Rīga, 1970 pp 75-94.
- Tulloch S. The Oxford Dictionary of New Words. Oxford: OUP, 1991

Arvils Šalme

DAŽI VĀRDU SALĪDZINĀŠANAS UN SISTEMATIZĒŠANAS ASPEKTI LATVIEŠU VALODAS LEKSISKĀ MINIMUMA VĀRDNICĀS.

Leksiskā minimuma vārdnīcu galvenais uzdevums ir atspoguļot tādu valodas vārdu krājumu, kas aptvertu kādas cilvēku saziņas sfēras svarīgāko un produktīvāko valodas daļu. Šāda tipa vārdnīcas visvairāk ir nepieciešamas svešvalodu mācību procesā, jo parāda vistipiskākās iezīmes valodas leksiskajā sistēmā un lietošanā. Mērķtiecīga leksikas atlase ir svarīgs nosacījums laba valodas mācību kursa izveidei.

Taču nevar runāt par universālu leksisko minimumu visām valodas lietošanas situācijām. Vārdu nozīmju funkcionālā daudzveidība un valodas vai runas situāciju lielā dažādība liek vispārināt leksikas lietojumu atbilstoši komunikācijas mērķim, tēmai un runātāja valodiskajai pieredzei. Vienkāršākie leksiskie minimumi ietver tipiskāko sadzīvē izmantojamo leksiku; speciālos vārdu minimumos apkopota noteiktā sociālā sfērā, profesionālajā darbībā vai kādā valodas funkcionālajā stilā lietotā leksika. Lai izveidotu labu leksiskā minimuma vārdnīcu, ir nepieciešams uzkrāt un analizēt ļoti plašu valodas materiālu: jāizpēta visi iepriekš iznākušie leksikas minimumi, biežuma un dažādas mācību vārdnīcas, teksti, dzīvās sarunvalodas paraugi un citi avoti. Labam valodas vārdu minimumam jābūt "kā modelim dabiskās valodas leksiskā sastāva noteikšanai, jāietver leksika, kas maksimāli spējīga nosegt jebkuru tekstu un nodrošināt komunikāciju gan "konservatīvās" gan mainīgās leksikas lietošanas līmeņos" (В е р е ш к и н а Н. С 7)

Jebkuras vārdu minimuma vārdnīcas veidošanas gaitā līdzās formālajiem vai statistiskajiem vārdu uzskaites kritērijiem pastāv arī subjektīvās izvēles faktori. Ņemot vērā dažādu tēmu vai runas situāciju īpatnības, vārdnīcās var tikt ietverti mazāk lietoti, tomēr šīm situācijām absolūti nepieciešami vārdi. Tas apgrūtina zinātniski pamatot vārdu izvēles nosacījumus attiecīgajā vārdnīcā.

Šajā rakstā ir aplūkots tikai viens no iepriekš minētajiem leksikas analīzes principiem. Pētījuma pamatā ir daži salīdzinošie aspekti agrāk iznākušajās lat-

viešu valodas leksiskā minimuma vārdnīcās *M. Soikanes -Trapānes "Latviešu valodas pamata un tematisks vārdu krājums"*, *O. Buša un J. Baldunčika "1000 vārdu"* un *V. Kuzinas "Latviešu valodas leksiskais minimums"* Leksikas salīdzināšanu var pamatot ar to, ka visās trijās vārdnīcās ir vienāds vārdu apjoms apmēram 1000 leksiskās vienības, šī leksika paredzēta vispārējai valodas pamatu apguvei un visas vārdnīcas atspoguļo laika ziņā samērā jaunu periodu (astoņdesmito gadu beigas un deviņdesmito gadu sākumā lietoto leksiku). Starp vārdnīcām ir arī dažas būtiskas atšķirības.

M. Soikanes -Trapānes "Latviešu valodas pamata un tematisks vārdu krājums" ir izdots Amerikā, tāpēc tas atspoguļo trimdas latviešu valodas orientāciju un īpatnības. Pamata vārdu krājums ir izveidots no visbiežāk lietotajiem latviešu rakstu valodas vārdiem. Galvenais vārdu izvēles avots ir "Latviešu valodas biežuma vārdnīca" (3. sējums "Dailliteratūra" 4. sējums "Zinātne" un "Apvienotais sējums"). No 4200 vārdiem ir iegūti 2576 un tālāk vārdu saraksts ir samazināts līdz vienam tūkstošim. Šā minimuma atlasē ir ievēroti samērā daudz nosacījumu (skat. *M. Soikane -Trapāne*, 390-392). *O. Buša un J. Baldunčika* vārdnīcā "1000 vārdu" ir leksika, kas visbiežāk lietota dažādās ikdienas situācijās. Tāds vārdu minimums dod iespēju elementāri sazināties sadzīvē. Vārdnīcas leksikas krājums ir iegūts, analizējot latviešu valodas pašmācības grāmatas un biežuma vārdnīcas. Autori orientējušies uz vārdu lietošanas biežumu sarunvalodā, papildinot to ar visnepieciešamāko publicistikas leksiku. Šī leksikas daļa gan vārdnīcā ir stipri ierobežota, jo sarakstā gandrīz nav ietverti internacionālistiski, kuru nozīme latviešu un krievu valodā ir adekvāta. (*O. Bušs, J. Baldunčiks*, 5)

V. Kuzinas "Latviešu valodas leksiskais minimums" arī aptver biežāk lietotajos sarunvalodas vārdus. Vārdnīca veidota, izmantojot pamatteksta tulkošanas metodi. Tipiskākā sarunvalodas leksika ir ierakstīta dažādās vietās atbilstoši tematiskajai un situatīvajai ievirzei. Vārdu minimums iegūts, izanalizējot 15878 valodas leksiskās vienības.

Vārdnīcu salīdzināšanas gaitā ir apskatītas trīs vārdšķiras, kas veido vārdu pamatfondu - lietvārdi, īpašības vārdi un darbības vārdi, kā arī apstākļa vārdi, kam ir svarīga informatīva nozīme valodas mācīšanās gaitā. Visas šīs vārdšķiras veido teksta saturisko pamatu, tāpēc to izpēte vārdnīcās ir īpaši svarīga.

Kopumā iegūts 1621 vārds 800 lietvārdi, 437 darbības vārdi, 181 īpašības vārds un 203 apstākļa vārdi. Pieņemot, ka visu trīs vārdnīcu kopējais vārdu skaits ir 3000, jāsecina, ka šeit iegūtais vārdu pamatfons veido 54% no visās vārdnīcās ietvertu vārdu kopējā skaita. Procentuāli lietvārdi kā vārdšķira veido 26,6%, darbības vārdi - 14,5%, īpašības vārdi - 6% un apstākļa vārdi - 6,7%. Lai iegūtu vēl precizāku un vispārinātāku vārdu sarakstu, ir izraudzīti tikai vārdi, kuri parādās vismaz divās vārdnīcās. Rezultātā iegūts savdabīgs "minimumu minimums" Galīgajā sarakstā ietverti 333 (126 visās trijās vārdnīcās, 207 divās vārdnīcās) lietvārdi; 202 (84; 118) darbības vārdi, 111 (58; 53) īpašības vārdi un 99 (43; 56) apstākļa vārdi. Tālāk ir mēģināts pa vārdšķirām sistematizēt vārdus noteiktās leksiski-tematiskās grupās.

Pētījumā ir ietverti 41,6% no visiem vārdnīcās sastopamajiem *lietvārdiem*. Tas nozīmē, ka lielākā daļa lietvārdu ir palikusi ārpus pētamo vārdu saraksta. Tā kā lietvārdu lietojums tekstos ir liels (mācību tekstos 30 - 35%. skat. A. Šalme, 28 - 31), to variācijas iespējas valodā ir ļoti plašas. Tas apgrūtina izveidot vispārinātu un racionālu lietvārdu minimuma sarakstu. Jau pavirši skatoties, ārpus šā pētījuma ir palikuši daudzi ikdienas praktiskajā dzīvē sastopami lietu nosaukumi, piemēram, *datums, autobuss, bibliotēka, parks, krēsls, telefons, televizors, žurnāls, radio, vecmāmiņa* u.c. Izpētītie vārdi ir svarīgi galvenokārt ne kā atsevišķas leksiski-semantiskās vienības, bet gan tos iekļaujot kā dā no vispārinātām tematiskajām grupām. Šādu grupu izveidošana parāda tematisko orientāciju leksiskā minimuma vārdnīcās. Nosacīti visus lietvārdus var dalīt 2 grupās:

- 1) lietvārdi, kam ir konkrēta tematiskā orientācija,
- 2) lietvārdi, kam ir vispārināta tematiskā orientācija.

Pirmās grupas lietvārdus var kvalificēt noteiktās tematiskās grupās, ņemot vērā to piederību kādai no leksiski-semantiskām kopām, savukārt otrajā grupā ir lietvārdi, kuru lietošana ir vispārinātāka, plašāka un to piederība kādai no semantiskām kopām ir nosacīta.

I. Lietvārdi, kam ir konkrēta tematiskā orientācija:

- 1) apkārtnē, daba;
- vispārināti vietu nosaukumi
(*vieta, pasaule, daba, valsts, dzimtene, pilsēta, lauki*);

- debess un astronomiskie objekti un parādības
(*saule, mēness, zvaigzne, gaiss, debess, gaisma, tumsa* u.c.);
 - laika apstākļi
(*lietus, ledus, sals, vējš, sniegs, migla, laiks*);
 - dabas un ģeogrāfiskie objekti
(*upe, ezers, jūra, mežs, lauks, kalns, ceļš, ciems, krasts*);
 - dabā sastopamie priekšmeti
(*akmens, ūdens, smiltis*);
augi un dzīvnieki
(*koks, zieds, zāle, priede, suns, zirgs, putns, zivs* u.c.);
 - pilsēta, objekti pilsētā
(*ieļa, parks, laukums, tirgus, stacija, tilts, teātris, rūpnīca* u.c.).
- 2) cilvēks
- cilvēka ķermeņa daļas, ar ķermeni saistīto parādību nosaukumi
(*seja, plecs, mugura, sirds, kāja, balss, asaras, elpa* u.c.);
apģērbs
(*cepure, kleita, mētelis, apavi, kurpe, apģērbs, drēbe*);
- cilvēku kopa, sabiedrība
(*sabiedrība, ļaudis, tauta, ģimene, jaunatne*);
ģimene, ģimenes locekļi
(*tēvs, māte, bērns, sieva, vīrs, brālis, māsa, vectēvs, radi* u.c.);
profesija, nodarbošanās
(*ārsts, skolotājs, meistars, priekšnieks, skolnieks, karavīrs*, u.c.);
dzimums
(*sieviete, vīrietis, meitene, puika, zēns, puisis*);
tautība
(*latvietis, krievs*)
citas piederības
(*kungs, draugs, kaimiņš, muļķis*);
- 3) dzīves vieta; lietas un objekti, kas saistīti ar māju vai dzīvokli,
māja un dzīvoklis
(*māja, nams, ēka, saimniecība, dzīvoklis, istaba, virtuve* u.c.);
- mājas, dzīvokļa vai istabas daļas

(*jumts, siena, logs, durvis, stāvs, vārti, izeja, ieeja* u.c.);

dažādas mājā vai dzīvoklī atrodamas lietas

(*skapis, ledusskapis, gulta, galds*);

4) laiks, laika periodi

vispārīgi laika periodu nosaukumi

(*gads, mēnesis, nedēļa, stunda, minūte*);

gadalaiki

(*pavasaris, vasara, rudens, ziema*);

mēneši

(*jūnijs, augusts, septembris, novembris, decembris*);

nedēļas dienas

(*pirmdiena, otrdiena, trešdiena, ceturtdiena* u.c.);

diennakts periodu nosaukumi

(*rīts, diena, vakars, nakts*);

5) uzturs, pārtikas produkti;

ēdienreizes

(*brokastis, pusdienas*); 2

daži pārtikas produktu nosaukumi

(*desa, ola, cukurs, maize, piens, alus, kafija, tēja* u.c.).

Lietvārdi, kam ir vispārināta tematiskā orientācija:

1) priekšmetu un parādību nosaukumi;

abstraktas materiālas lietas un parādības

(*lieta, Dievs, velns*) ,

ar cilvēka ikdienu saistītās lietas

(*pulkstenis, nauda, grāmata, avīze, atslēga, soma, stikls, glezna,*

dāvana, zāles, vilciens, kuģis, tīkls u.c.) ,

nemateriālu parādību nosaukumi

(*alga, plāns, tiesa, vārds, uzvārds, valoda, ārzemes* u.c.) ,

LVP nav ietverti mēnešu nosaukumi, TV ir uzrādīti visi mēnešu nosaukumi, savukārt LVLM ir tikai daži mēnešu nosaukumi. Tas liecina, ka šajā vārdnīcā nav izveidota leksiski semantiskā lauka loģiskā pabeigība. Vārdnīcas veidošanā dominējošā ir bijusi statistiskā vārdu analīzes metode.

- 2) skat. iepriekšējo 1) problēmu. TV ir visi ēdienrežu nosaukumi. LVP nav neviena, bet LVLM ir uzrādīti tikai divi.

2) darbību un procesu nosaukumi:

vispārīgu vai abstraktu darbību un procesu nosaukumi
(*dzīve, mūžs, dzīvība, nāve, izglītība, mācība, attiecības* u.c.)

konkrētu, noteiktu darbību un procesu nosaukumi

(*darbs, atpūta, cīņa, spēle, runa, jautājums, atbilde* u.c.)

3) īpašību nosaukumi:

dzīvām būtnēm piemētošu īpašību nosaukumi

(*spēks, spējas, prāts, jūtas, gods, mīlestība, bailes* u.c.)

ar sociālo dzīvi saistītie īpašību nosaukumi

(*laime, slava, pienākums, panākums, trūkums*)

fizikālo īpašību nosaukumi

(*ātrums, siltums, attālums, puse, daļa, svars, smarža, krāsa* u.c.)

4) abstraktu nojēgumu nosaukumi:

vispārīgi abstraktu nojēgumu nosaukumi

(*veids, pamats, nozīme, starpība, sakars, apstākļi* u.c.)

laika jēdzienu nosaukumi

(*brīdis, reize, sākums, beigas*)

kvalitātes un kvantitātes jēdzienu nosaukumi

(*saturs, sastāvs, līmenis, rinda*)

lietu vai procesu elementu nosaukumi

(*stūris, mala, vidus, gals, priekša, apakša*)

sabiedriskās dzīves parādību nosaukumi

(*bērība, kultūra, vēsture, māksla, sports, zinātne* u.c.)

Tā nosacīti var klasificēt tos lietvārdus, kuri ir iekļauti minimuma sarakstā. Iespējams, ka šā dalījuma sistēma ne visos gadījumos ir precīza, arī atsevišķu lietvārdu piederība pie kādas no tematiskajām grupām var būt apšaubāma. Tomēr šī analīze ļauj kaut nedaudz iepazīties ar lietvārdu leksiski semantisko grupu orientāciju latviešu valodas biežuma vārdnīcās.

202 pētījumā ietvertie *d a r b ī b a s v ā r d i* veido 46,2% no kopējā verbu skaita. Tā kā darbības vārdi ir semantiski visbagātākā vārdšķira, tai ir plašas tematiski-situatīvās lietošanas iespējas. Šajā rakstā netiks aplūkotas daudz

veidīgās verbu klasificēšanas iespējas. Analizētie darbības vārdi ir klasificēti divos svarīgos aspektos - pēc pamatnozīmēm galvenajās leksiski semantiskajās grupās (par pamatu izmantojot grāmatā "Verbu un frazeoloģismu saistāmība" doto klasifikāciju) un pēc semantiskajām attiecībām starp bezpriedēkļa un atbilstošajiem atvasinātajiem priedēkļverbiem

1. Verbu tematiskā klasifikācija.

Tematiski nav aplūkoti vienpersonu verbi t.s. ar trīspersoniskā lietojuma iespējām, jo šī grupa vārdu sarakstā ir skaitliski neliela - tikai 16 verbi (*trūkt, šķīst, pietikt, notikt, likties, izrādīties, beigties* u.c.). Pārējie trīspersonu verbi ir iedalīti trijās tematiskās grupās 1) verbi, kas nosauc ar cilvēku kā fizisku būtni saistītus procesus, darbību vai stāvokli, 2) verbi, kas nosauc ar cilvēku kā psihisku būtni saistītus procesus un darbību, 3) verbi, kas nosauc cilvēka kā sabiedriskas būtnes darbību vai stāvokli. Grāmatā "Verbu un frazeoloģismu saistāmība" ir minēta vēl arī ceturrtā grupa - verbi, kas nosauc cilvēka intelektuālo darbību un procesus un raksturo cilvēku kā saprātīgu būtni (34). Tā kā cilvēka intelektuālā darbība ir cieši saistīta ar sabiedrisko darbību, tad tematiski šīs darbības bieži ir grūti nošķirt. Šajā pētījumā cilvēka intelektuālā darbība un sabiedriskā darbība ir apvienota vienā leksiski semantiskā grupā.

1. Verbi, kas nosauc ar cilvēku kā fizisku būtni saistītus procesus, darbību vai stāvokli:

1) verbi ar eksistences nozīmi

(*dzimt, radīt, būt, dzīvot, augt, mirt*)

2) verbi ar atrašanās nozīmi

(*atrasties*)

3) verbi ar fizioloģiska procesa nozīmi

(*elpot*)

4) verbi ar fizioloģiskas darbības nozīmi

(*ēst, dzert, kliegt, smēķēt*);

5) verbi ar fizioloģiskas iedarbības nozīmi

(*barot*)

6) verbi, kas nosauc ārējās pazīmes

(*vilkt* ar nozīmi "ģērbt"),

7) verbi, kas nosauc stāvokli

(*stāvēt, sēdēt, gulēt, apstāties, apsēsties, sēsties, piecelties*)

8) verbi, kas nosauc kustību

(*dot, ņemt, mest, krist, nodot, atdot, pieņemt, saņemt*)

9) verbi, kas nosauc virzību

(*iet, braukt, lidot, lēkt, kāpt, nākt, ieiet, iziet, aizbraukt, atbraukt, ienākt, pienākt, kustēties, griezties, atgriezties* u.c.)

10) verbi, kas nosauc uztveri

(*redzēt, dzirdēt, ievērot, novērot, ieraudzīt, skatīties, klausīties*).

II. Verbi, kas nosauc ar cilvēku kā psihisku būtni saistītus procesus, darbību

(*just, ciest, nogurt, cerēt, smaidīt, raudāt, priecāties, smieties, baidīties, brīnīties, censties*).

III. Verbi, kas nosauc cilvēka kā sabiedriskas būtnes darbību vai stāvokli.

1) verbi, kas nosauc uzvedību vai rīcību, kā rezultāti ir saistīti ar pašu darbības darītāju

(*pirkt, griezt, šūt, spēt, kļūt, palikt, zaudēt, izdarīt, izveidot, strādāt, pazaudēt, mācēt, piedalīties* u.c.)

2) verbi, kas nosauc rīcību, kā rezultāti ir vērsti uz kādu citu personu vai lietu

(*vest, pamest, atrast, ļaut, ticēt, rakstīt, dziedāt, veidot, audzināt, mainīties, iepazīties, tikties, pateikties* u.c.).

Īpaši būtu jāpēta trešā tematiskā verbu grupa. Tajā ietilpst skaitliski visvairāk darbības vārdu (104, t.i. 51,4% no analizētajiem verbiem). Šo verbu lietošanas iespējas ir ļoti plašas, tāpēc to piederība kādai no tematiskajām apakšgrupām būtu jāapskata īpaši.

2. Bezpriedēkļa un priedēkļverbi leksiskā minimuma sarakstā.

Lai noskaidrotu šo jautājumu, nepieciešams aplūkot analizējamo darbības vārdu sarakstu no statistiskā viedokļa. Attiecība starp bezpriedēkļa un dažāda tipa priedēkļverbiem ir sekojoša:

1) bezpriedēkļa verbi 125 / 61.9 %

1. Tā kā šajā grupā ietilpst pavisam neliels skaits verbu (11), tie nav klasificēti sīkākās apakšgrupās.
2. Šīs grupas verbu klasifikācija apakšgrupās ir vienkāršota.

- 2) priedēkļverbi 77 / 38,1 %
- ar priedēkli *pa* 16 / 7,9 %
(*paiet, panākt, pazust, patikt, pamest, padomāt, pavadīt, pastāstīt, pazaudēt, parādīties* u.c.)
 - ar priedēkli *at* - 12 / 5,9 %
(*atnākt, atvērt, atklāt, atrast, atbildēt, atpūsties, atrasties, atcerēties* u.c.)
 - ar priedēkli *pie* 9 / 4,4 %
(*piedot, pietikt, pierast, pieņemt, pienākt, piederēt, pierādīt, piedalīties, piecelties*)
 - ar priedēkli *no* - 8 / 3,9 %
(*notikt, nogurt, nodot, nosaukt, nopirkt, nozīmēt, novērot, noskaidrot*)
 - ar priedēkli *iz* 8 / 3,9 %
(*iziet, izmantot, izdomāt, izveidot, izdarīt, izpildīt, izlasīt, izrādīties*)
 - ar priedēkli *ie* - 6 / 2,9 %
(*ieiet, ienākt, ieteikt, ievērot, ieraudzīt, iepazīties*)
 - ar priedēkli *sa* - 5 / 2,4 %
(*saprast, saņemt, sagatavot, sagaidīt, samazināt*)
 - ar priedēkli *uz* - 4 / 1,9 %
(*uzņemt, uzlikt, uzskatīt, uzrakstīt*);
 - ar priedēkli *aiz* - 4 / 1,9 %
(*aiziet, aizbraukt, aizmirst, aizskriet*)
 - ar priedēkli *ap* - 2 / 0,9 %
(*apsēsties, apstāties*)
 - ar priedēkli *pār* 2 / 0,9 %
(*pāriet, pārdot*)
 - ar priedēkli *ne* - 1 / 0,4 %
(*nedrīkstēt*).

Priedēkļverbu semantiskās nozīmes ir ļoti daudzveidīgas, tāpēc viena no lielākajām problēmām leksiskā minimuma vārdnīcās ir šo vārdu mērķtiecīga iz-

vēle. Statistiskais pētījums par priedēkļverbu izplatību leksiskajos minimumos var palīdzēt noteikt dažādu priedēkļu produktīvo lomu vārdu darināšanā, izplatību un saistību ar noteikta tipa un nozīmes vārdiem. Šeit ir nepieciešams atsevišķs teorētisks pētījums.

Īpašības vārdu izplatība un lietošana elementārajā sarunvalodā un mācību tekstos apjoma ziņā ir ierobežotāka. Biežāk lietojamie īpašības vārdi var funkcionēt saturiski dažādās runas situācijās, tādēļ ar nelielu skaitu adjektīvu var nosaukt daudz priekšmetu un parādību pazīmes. Tiesa, ir nepieciešami arī vārdi, kas raksturo kādu īpašu, tikai šai lietai piemītošu pazīmi, tāpēc leksiskā minimuma vārdnīcās īpašības vārdi jāietver ne tikai pēc vispārīgām nozīmēm, bet arī ievērojot vārdnīcu tematisko un loģisko uzbūvi. Kā viena no pazīmēm, kas raksturo īpašības vārdu izvēli vārdnīcā, ir nozīmju šķirumi loģiskos pretstatos. Tieši pēc tā, vai adjektīviem minimuma sarakstā parādās abas pretējās nozīmes, liecina, vai šāds saraksts ir pilnīgs. Otru daļu veido tādi adjektīvi, kuriem pretējās nozīmes veidotas ar morfoloģiskiem līdzekļiem vai arī tās ir saprotamas tikai stilistiski un kontekstuāli. Daļai īpašības vārdu atbilstošu pretēju nozīmju nav, un pretstatu izteikšanai jālieto noteiktas valodas konstrukcijas vai aprakstoši jēdzieni. Pēc šīm pazīmēm tad arī ir klasificēti vārdi šajā pētījumā.

1. Īpašības vārdi, kuriem leksiskajā minimumā ir abas pretējās nozīmes
(*agrs - vēls, tuvs - tāls, zems - augsts, garš - īss, ciets - mīksts, kreisais labais, karsts - silts - vēss - auksts, jauns - vecs, liels - neliels - mazs - sīks, ātrs - straujš - lēns* u.c.).
2. Īpašības vārdi, kuriem leksiskajā minimumā nav uzrādīts pretējās nozīmes vārds
(*dārgs, stāvs, skaists, bagāts, dziļš, gudrs, taisns, jautrs, svešs, līdzīgs, ļauns, iekšējs* u.c.).
3. Īpašības vārdi, kuriem pretējo nozīmi veido ar priedēkli *ne-*
(*ērts, dzīvs, drošs, derīgs, vērtīgs, brīvs, godīgs, īsts, laimīgs, mierīgs, nopietns, atkarīgs, ilgs, parasts* u.c.).

4. Īpašības vārdi, kuriem pretējas nozīmes nosakāmas stilistiski vai kontekstuāli

(*traks, svarīgs, rets, pēdējais, atsevišķs, milzīgs, lieks*).

5. Īpašības vārdi, kuriem nav tiešās pretējas nozīmes

(*starpautisks, pārējais, galvenais, briesmīgs, zils, zaļš* u.c.).

Divās vai trijās vārdnīcās uzrādīti 99 *apstākļa vārdi*.

Tas ir 48,7 % no adverbu kopējā skaita. Vienkāršāk tos grupēt noteiktos leksisko nozīmju tipos. (B.Ceplīte, L.Ceplītis, 98 -99) Šāda klasifikācija ir ērta arī mācoties valodu, jo orientē uz pazīmes kvalitāti, kvantitāti, vietu, veidu vai citām pazīmēm. Attīstot teikuma veidošanas iemaņas, daudziem adverbiem ir svarīga nozīme, lai precizētu izteikto saturu. Tiesa, tradicionālajam adverbu dalījumam nav noteikts princips. (E.Soida, 55) Šīs vārdšķiras vārdi ir ļoti dažādi, tiem ir nevienveidīga forma, nozīme un lietojums. Adverbu minimums būtu jāaplūko saistībā ar elementārās informācijas minimumu. Būtu nepieciešams nopietns pētījums par to, kuros gadījumos apstākļa vārdi ietekmē izteikuma saturu, tātad ir obligāti, un kuros nē. Mēs šeit varam uzrādīt vārdu minimuma sarakstā ietvertos adverbus tikai pēc tradicionālās dalījuma sistēmas. Katras grupas apstākļa vārdiem klāt ir norādīts to skaits un procentuālā attiecība. Tas ļauj noskaidrot, kuras adverbu grupas leksiskajā minimumā ir visproduktīvākās.

1. *Laika apstākļa vārdi* 35 / 35,3 %

(*tagad, šoreiz, šogad, šodien, agrāk, sen, nesen, kādreiz, rīt, parīt, drīz, bieži, dažreiz, kādreiz, vienmēr, kad, tad, nu* u.c.).

2. *Kvalitatīvie apstākļa vārdi* 21 / 21,2 %

(*labi, slikti, lēni, ātri, skaļi, klusi, viegli, grūti, mierīgi, vienkārši, pareizi, īpaši, sevišķi, kā, tā* u.c.).

3. *Mēra apstākļa vārdi* 19 / 19,1 %

(*daudz, maz, vairāk, mazāk, nedaudz, mazliet, diezgan, ļoti, vēl, pilnīgi, pavisam, tik, cik* u.c.).

4. *Vietas apstākļa vārdi* 18 / 18,1 %

(*te, tur, šeit, nekur, kur, garām, blakus, apkārt, klāt, tālu, tālāk, tuvu, visur, pāri, atsevišķi* u.c.).

5. *Cēloņa un nolūka* apstākļa vārdi 3 / 3 %

(*kāpēc, tāpēc, tādēļ*).

6. *Stāvokļa* apstākļa vārdi 2 / 2 %

(*žēl, diemžēl*).

7. *Veida* apstākļa vārdi 1 / 1 %

(*kopā*).

Šajā rakstā ir aplūkoti tikai daži ar vārdu izvēli, atlasī un klasificēšanu saistīti jautājumi. Iespējams, ka ne visos gadījumos aprakstīto vārdšķiru klasificēšanas principi atbilst leksiskā minimuma vārdnicu veidošanas noteikumiem. Arī atsevišķu vārdu iedalīšana kādā no apakšgrupām var būt diskutējama. Pētījuma lielākais trūkums ir tas, ka nav izdevies atrast visām vārdšķirām vienotu, leksiskā un informatīvā minimuma kontekstā atbilstošu klasifikācijas sistēmu. Varbūt pat tādu nav iespējams izveidot. Otra nepilnība ir sastīta ar formālo pieeju vārdu minimuma saraksta veidošanai. Uzskaitīti un zinātniski analizēti ir tikai tie vārdi, kas publicēti divās vai trijās leksiskā minimuma vārdnicās. Tā rezultātā ārpus pētāmā saraksta ir atstāti daudzi bieži lietoti vārdi.

Leksiskā minimuma vārdnicu izpēte parādīja, ka šādu vārdu sarakstu izveidošanā ir daudz problēmu – neskaidra tematiskā orientācija, nepilnīgi semantiskie lauki, atsevišķu nemotivētu vārdu iekļaušana vārdnicās. Laba leksiskā minimuma izveidošana bez iepriekš aprakstītās vārdnicu vispusīgas salīdzināšanas metodes ir jāizpēta arī dažādi biežuma vārdnicu saraksti, mācību vārdnīcas un teksti, kā arī citi ar noteiktiem tematiem un situācijām saistīti valodas avoti.

L I T E R A T Ū R A

1. Bušs O, Baldunčiks J. 1000 vārdu. Rīga: Zinātne, 1991. (saisinājumā TV)
2. Kuzina V Latviešu valodas leksiskais minimums. Rīga: Skolotāju darba birojs, 1994. (saisinājumā LVLM)
3. Soikane-Trapāne M. Latviešu valodas pamata un tematisks vārdu krājums. ALA, 1987 (saisinājumā LVP).
4. Cepļīte B. Cepļītis L. Latviešu valodas praktiskā gramatika. Rīga: Zvaigzne, 1991
5. Smiltņiece G. Darbības vārds mūsdienu latviešu literārajā valodā Rīga: LVU, 1987
6. Soida E. Adverbs un adverbēšanās mūsdienu latviešu valodā Rīga: LU, 1991
7. Šalme A. Vārdšķiru lietojums latviešu valodas mācību tekstos Sastatāmā un lietišķā valodniecība. Kontrastīvie pētījumi II. Rīga: LU, 1993. 21 -31.lpp.
- 8 Verbu un frazeoloģismu saistāmība. Rīga:LVU, 1975 8 - 49.lpp.
9. Верешкина Н. Отбор и организация словаря минимума для обучения английскому языку на гуманитарном (историческом) факультете университета Автореферат дис. на соискание уч. степени кандид. пед. наук. - Киев, 1992.

Text Type and Translation Strategy

Today modern translatology witnesses an already generally recognized shift in approaches to translation. Translation today is defined as a goal-oriented activity which aims at securing acceptance of the target text. In other words - source orientation in translation process has been replaced by target orientation. The task of the translator is no longer a precise reproduction of the original text but rather a rewriting of the source text according to the expectations of the target reader. Consequently *equivalence* as the main translation concept is often being rejected as futile and even impossible (e.g. Holme, 1973 - 4: 68) giving way to *acceptability*.

This approach has been launched by German scholars in early 80ies. Their main postulation is that as a general rule it must be the intended purpose of the target text that determines translation methods and strategies and not the function of the source text (1978 Hans Vermeer gave this theory the name of *skopos theory* (Gk. *skopos* - purpose). As it is the *skopos* of the translated text that determines the translation process the recipient for whom the target text is intended is the crucial factor in any translation process. Translation is no longer seen as a process of linguistic transcoding but as a process of intercultural communication (Snell - Hornby, 1988:43). The emphasis has been shifted from the message to response of reception. Like in any communication, also in translation, to ensure the efficiency of the communicative act the recipient's expectations have to be studied and met. Christiane Nord concludes that the text can have several functions as it has recipients (1991:17).

The actual consequence of this shift in approaches is a freely rewritten translation. In this article I will analyze to what extent this approach applies to different text type - how it functions in the Latvian context and why at times Latvian translators, similarly to many practising translators elsewhere, treat the new approach with certain reservations. My aim in this article is to accommodate modern translation theories to translation practise which often seems any theoretical guidance thus drawing the line between those who

search and those who translate.

As a rule, each text is characterised by a combination of intratextual and extratextual features that assign a particular function to the text. Identifying of the source text function is a requisite for the selection of translation strategies. The translator needs to evaluate the source text to find out how it functionally and textually stands in the culture communicative situation and then to assess how the factors of the source text can be correlated with the intended target text function: should it be simply brought in conformity with the target language norms and recipients expectations as it stands, adopted, rewritten etc. Source texts can be very different. Accordingly appropriate translation of different text types should vary. All texts are traditionally grouped into three main types: informative or content-oriented, vocative or reader-oriented and author-oriented (Buhler's classification). The primary function of a translated text clearly affects how the translator will operate.

Informative Texts

Informative texts comprise news items, business accounts, instructions etc. The core of the informative function of language is external situation, facts of a topic, reality outside language. On the one hand, translation of the text requires precision, especially terminology which may constitute

On the other hand, this text type is the least stylistically polished, often they are hastily drawn and simply badly written. The more technical the text, the less important the language. The function of these texts is to pass information concisely and lucidly, emphasis lies on the content items. These texts contain straightforward messages and are usually free from connotations, emotive language, sound-effects and original metaphor. They are usually also devoid of national peculiarity as science and technology are not confined to one speech community only.

Translation aspects

- **Informative texts are thing-bound and to translate them well the most important requirement is the knowledge of the subject matter which is also the main difficulty for the translator. It is common knowledge that translators with a perfect command of both source and target languages may fail to translate a text, for example, on semiconductors, if they do not have the expertise.**
- **The central difficulty in technical translation usually is terminology problematic if there is a good bilingual dictionary available in which the target counterpart can be found. Latvian translators, however, usually have to find a way round without this resource. Another support of technical nature is the availability of parallel texts in the target language, i.e. texts of similar nature which enable the translator to follow up text-type conventions and possibly also the needed terms. In many spheres Latvian terminology is undeveloped, the translator often faces the fact that the target term is simply not available. The next step to take is to choose between available options – descriptive translation, loan translation.**

Descriptive or explanatory translation is a widely used method of translating equivalent terminology. Its advantage is enhanced comprehension yet it is less precise as its semantic range is wider compared to a technical term. This method is often applied if the intended recipient is general readership, e.g.

The peculiarly American tradition of connecting academic **tenure** to academic freedom was codified in 1915. (*Administering Higher Education in a Democratic Society*)

Amerikāņu tradīcija saistīt **garantijas akadēmiskā amata saglabāšanai** ar brīvības nosargāšanu mācību procesā tika kodificēta 1915. gadā.

Another option for the translator is using *transcription*, e.g.

Amerikāņu tradīcija saistīt **tenūru** ar brīvības nosargāšanu mācību procesā tika

kodificēta 1915. gadā.

The drawback of transcription is blocked comprehension. However, if the intended recipient is specialized readership transcription may be a more efficient method as experts in the field will sooner recognize the transcribed than described term. Be-
 by way of transcription a new word may be introduced in the target language thus making it expand. Translation in such cases may be regarded as a vehicle for target language development. Whether the transcribed term remains just an occasional word, a word that is used once in a certain context otherwise failing to gain general depends on various factors: frequency of use in the target language, and grammatical qualities and also governing tra At present there is a growing tendency for the Latvian language to accept transcribed words as former restrictions to introduction of foreign elements in the Latvian language seem to be less binding. The redeployment of the I with respect to the as taken place, it has become more open and in m is more liberal. high status of Western culture entails an increased toler

The consequence in translation is that tr increasing frequency, e.g. **mencdžments**, **mārketings**, **tr** **sticija**, **forset**, **invāzija** etc. Often a foreign word is used even when the native

akcents (uzsvars), **modificēt** (maint), **autoparks** (autostavvieta), **stimulēt**

All examples are taken from the speech the president of Republic of a made in New York. The speech was analysed in the daily paper 1994 where the spread of foreign elements in the La an langua compared to the spread of Aids. The dilemma for La an translators under such circumstances is whether to follow the current trend of development and break the o convention of avoiding foreign elements in the language of translations or to revive the old purist concern.

There is a compromise strategy available - *the combination of transcription and descriptive translation*, e.g.

Amerkāņu tradīcija saistīt **tenūru** jeb **garantijas akadēmiskā amata saglabāšanai** :

brīvības nosargāšanu mācību procesā tika kodificēta 1915.gadā.

In this case comprehension has been ensured and at the same time a new term has been launched. Further in the text the transcribed term can be used and its ability to accommodate to the target language tested.

Loan translation can be described as coining of a native-element-based neologism. This method is usually applied to compounds or terms consisting of a word combination. In this case a new term is created by translating literally or through-translating the parts of the compound or lexical units of the word combination, e.g.

While the amendment was meant to hinder **prior restraints**, it was uncertain whether libel suits after publication were still possible. (Public Access to Government Information)

Labojums tika izstrādāts ar nolūku novērst **iepriekšierobežojumus** informācijas publicēšanai, bet nebija skaidrs, vai pēc publicēšanas pieļaujamas tiesas prāpmelošanu.

Also this method ensures comprehensibility of the output, though the degree may vary. In theory the translator should not often initiate a through-translation as it introduces source language structures into the target language consequently polluting the language. Often the newly created terms are cumbersome for use and may even acquire certain connotation which is in conflict with the generally accepted requirement for the term to bear exact reference to a given concept. However, in Latvian terminology loan translations are encouraged. Official terminology favours coinages of native-element based terms. There are many officially worked out coinages as **valstspieņēme** (gospriyomka), **pelddrāzas** (plavuchiy musor), **traumdraudīgs** (travmoopasniy), **ainavsaudze** (sohranyenyije landshafta), **atkalapdzīvināšana** (zaselyenyiye zanovo), **apzeme** (umland), **piepras-** (po potrebnostyi), **roklaiks** (ruchnoye vremya), **darbbagāts** (trudoizbitochniy) (Skujiņa, 1986:142-145, 1987:88-91, 1989:156 - that seem authoritarian, artificial and do not gain popularity. In the field of actual translation loan translations often give way to explanatory translation and transcription

as experts in the field are inclined towards internationalization of terminology

- Since scientific writing is not highly esteemed for its elegance the translator, possibly a philologist by training has the duty "to correct" the defective style, rewrite the text in compliance with the general rules of good writing and thus improve upon the original. The target text should reproduce all the information, with expansions and explanations if necessary, but the text structure and language has to be "converted" elegant style. If the translation is to be published, the text should be given the framework of a recognized house-style or the house-style of the relevant periodical or journal. The translator has to comply with text-type conventions if he wants to succeed in realizing his communicative intentions. Newmark argues that the majority of technical translations nowadays are better than their originals (1988:41).

Vocative Texts

The core of the vocative function of language is the readership, the addressee. Vocative texts call upon the readership to act, think or feel – to react in the way intended by the text. This is why the translation of vocative texts should start with the analysis of the target readership in the target culture situation. The reception of the text depends on the individual expectations of the recipient which are determined by the situation in which he receives the information and his social background, world knowledge and communicative needs. Since the target readership always differs from the source recipient, if not in any other than one way - they are participants in a different culture situation, the text has to be rewritten for the new culture context. Theo Hermans points to the act of translating as a matter of adjusting and manipulating a source text so as to bring the target text into line with a particular model and in so doing secure acceptance (Hermans, 1985:7).

Translation aspects

Advertisement translation has acquired topicality in Latvia. Even if well translated on the linguistic level (which is not always the case either) ads often fail to perform their appellative function. Further some of the reasons will be analysed.

- Lack of conventions

The advertisement is a strongly conventionalized text type. This means that as certain kinds of text seem to be used repeatedly in certain situations with more or less the same function or functions, these texts have acquired conventional forms that have sometimes even been raised to the status of social norms. Throughout many decades Western culture has developed an elaborate advertising style marked by bright, surprising words or phrase, superlative short sentence, linguistic tricks like puns, good visual support, emotional connotations.

To air is human. To Volkswagen is a Cabriolet. (play upon Polish proverb: *Przebiegane rufają swoje włosy w Cabriolet*)
forgive, divine. "Auto Rīga"

For those who aren't at their best at breakfast. The best Breakfast Tea. (play upon the polysemy of the word *best*, *Best* (play upon the name of the brand) (May 1994)

Perfume CAROLINA HERRERA. The fragrance that dresses. (play upon the name of the brand)
 "New Woman", March 1993)

In Latvia advertisements meander without any convention guidance, actually the situation can be described as convention vacuum. This is the result of the fact that today advertising invades Latvian cultural scene by leaps and bounds while formerly command economy with its shortages rendered advertising useless. Since there are ready-made models available Latvian advertising can be said to be groping its way trying to imitate Western patterns which due to differences in cultural setting often fail to leave the intended effect.

- Set-up difference.

The set-up of Latvian ads reflects the culture situation and Latvian (Soviet?) mentality - ads are more modest in comparison with Western advertisements due to the lack of confidence about the quality of advertised objects and reluctance to shoulder the responsibility, there is often an apologetic tone to be traced:

A walk in the streets of the old town could be quite pleasant at night but you should better have a reliable companion or postpone all the romantic impre... daytime.

Jurmala is famous for its clean air, moderate climate, unique pine fore... mud. Unfortunately, the sea is too cold to make you wish to have a swim too o... ater temperature seldom exceeds 20 degrees centegrade. (both ads from "Riga Week", summer 1993, p.28 and 36)

Compare to:

The French Riviera. Superb holiday site beside the beach. Choice of luxury tent or mobile home. Here you find glamorous resorts... located right next to a beach and backed by the pine-covered hills... while inland you'll find green hills charming villages...luxurious yachts moored... You'll travel by luxury expre from your pick-up point...("Me", February 1993)

Another example reflects Latvian admiration for Western things which for the Western readership may sound like an anti-advertisement:

The second highlight is Latvian - Swedish JV "Eurolink Hotel" which is intended for businessmen. As regards its interior, the mode of rendering service... its cuisine... they are European ones (provisions are supplied by Swedish party, only flowers and greens are local). ("Riga This Week", summer 1993, p. 20)

- Deficiencies of direct transfers

Direct transfers in advertisement translation result in breached expectancy norm and change of the source text function. The recipient of a different culture context cannot

participate in the game the rules of which have been worked out for a different, remote recipient. To achieve intended response the rules have to be revised, text rewritten. Otherwise the cheerful superlatives of Western ads are perceived as alien, related to a different world where the Latvian recipients feels out of place and are made to feel like observers of a speech situation in which they are not involved.

Our limousines give you unsurpassed quality and maximum flexibility. (Limousine

Mūsu limuzīni garantē jums nepārspējamu kvalitāti un visaugstāko fleksibilitāti.

There are also cases when direct transfers lead to wrong translations even on a mere textual level:

Share a limousine to a **maximum** at airport. (Limousine

ar citiem pasi: **maksimāli**, ja uz un no

Such cases are usually caused by translator's individual incompetence and

further discussion.

- Indispensability of adaptation

Since each target text is **addressed** to recipients-in-situation different

from those to whom the source text is addressed, adaptation of

importance. The first requirement is *emotive adaptation*, i.e. the text needs

to be adapted if translated from English into Latvian and **guaranteed** if translated from Latvian into English:

Mēs piedāvājam augsti profesionālu līmeni, nodrošinot jūsu ieguldīto līdzekļu atdevi. ("Diena" advertisement)

Our highly qualified professionals offer you their skills - a **maximum** return on your investment is **guaranteed**.

Grammatical adaptation should also be considered:

Vieteja reklāmas pakalpojumu tirgus objektīvā situācija - tā nelielie izmēri, piesaugošā konkurence, sniegto pakalpojumu specializācija - liek domāt, ka Latvijā reklāmai ir visi nosacījumi veidoties gudrai un profesionālai, korektai un iespaidīgai. ("Diena" advertisement)

Competition is growing and companies are specializing. Advertising has to be and professional, tasteful and impressive.

The Latvian text complies with the conventions of written Latvian which greatly differs from spoken Latvian - first and foremost in stylistic register and largely syntactical structure of sentences. Specific Latvian advertisement style has not yet been shaped. In the translation the English conventional advertisement sentence setting has been observed and the result is a functional target text.

Grammatical conventions play a much greater role in the intratextual framing of the source text than we may be aware of. In the process of translation it is essential to break the source text syntax that often acts like a "spell" on the translator. If the source text is not broken the expectancy norm is breached and the target text does not fulfil its intended function. For example, all instructing texts, such as operating instructions, directions for use or recipes, are characterized by a typical syntactic structure. In English it is the imperative (**melt the butter on a medium heat**) while in Latvian it is an impersonal construction (**sviestu izkausē uz vidēja lieluma pannas**). Accordingly the text has to be adapted in the process of translating.

The last but not least pre-requisite for a good advertisement translation is *cultural adaptation*, - adjusting the source text to the target culture background. It involves foreign culture words which need to be familiarized. Example:

Escape the noise and the neon with a Jean Lafitte ECO- TOUR. (New Orleans Swamp Tour ad)

Prom no pilsētas trokšņa un reklāmu ugunīm! Jūs aicinā Žana Lafīta ekoceļojums.

Since the Latvian recipient is hardly tired of neon lights which may rather turn out to be an attraction, it seems sensible to replace it by *reklāmu ugunis* to secure the intended effect. It is also to a large extent the question of replacing the source language clichés by target clichés to produce an operating target text.

The initial and spontaneous translation tends to be characterized by strong formal equivalence and advertisement translation in Latvia is, indeed, in an initial stage. But advertisements are obviously establishing their place in the Latvian cultural scene. They have already improved. The success largely depends also on translators and their awareness of the necessity for adaptive translation, determined by the way the target language receivers are assumed to react to the text. As pointed out by Katharina Reiss, if the source text was written in order to bring about certain behaviour in the reader, then the translation should have this same effect on the behaviour of the target reader. Translators should aim in the first place at the production of identical behaviour in the target reader. (1989:110).

Expressive Texts

Expressive texts unlike many informative and operative texts are highly subjective; they are author-oriented. Conveying the author's world outlook as a rule is their main function. Aldous Huxley and D.H.Lawrence, for example, set their novels in factually similar environments and convey compatible ideas, but the atmosphere in the two types of novels is radically different. For the translator it means that the emphasis must be laid on retaining the specific world visions and there is no space for restructuring or rewriting.

Dynamic equivalence or equivalence of effect (Nida, 1964) – the translation concept that claims that the target text should arouse similar response from the target readership to that of the source reader - still seems relevant to translation of expressive texts irrespective of contemporary criticism.

Skopos theory, however, in certain aspects can be applied also to aesthetic translation. Traditionally, the retaining of the source text function in translation has been regarded as one of the main requirements for aesthetic translation. Skopos theory argues that since the function of the target text is not arrived at automatically from an analysis of the source text, but is pragmatically defined by the purpose of the intercultural communication, the function of the target text may differ from the function of the text. To quote Nord: "Functional equivalence between source text and target text is not the "normal" skopos of a translation, but an exceptional case in which the factor "change of function" is assigned zero" (1991:23). Thus a Grimm fairy-tale can be freely rewritten for Latvian children omitting the gory details with an aim of producing a nice bedtime reading story; but it can be also translated in a detailed way with comments on separate culture-bound details in the footnotes if a philological or learned translation has been commissioned. To harmonize the changed function idea with the traditional approach, Nord promotes the concept of loyalty (1991:29) – the translator is obliged to inform the reader (in preface or commentary) about the translation strategy if the translation has been assigned a different function from the original. The translator is expected not to falsify the author's intention.

It seems, however, that in practice the skopos rule is treated with certain reservations. At least in L2: Expressive texts are "consumed" differently from informative or appellative texts. They provide an aesthetic experience that highlights national culture. Nowadays Europe moves towards internationalised homogenous culture whereas small nations, which have had problems with national self-assertion, would prefer keeping out if not for numerous political and economic pressures. It is the small nations that will be the first to lose their cultural identity and slide into anonymity in the process of consolidation.

In the Latvian case the specific position of translated literature within literary polysystem cannot be disregarded. In several historical periods, including today, translated literature has prevailed over the original literature pushing it to the secondary position. This happened in the 19th century when literature was "young", to a large extent also in the

is when original literature was "weak" because of numerous rejections today when people are confused and busy trying to find ways of adjusting to the avalanche of political, ideological and economic change. As pointed out by Itamar Zohar, the position translated literature takes in literary polysystem affects translational norms and policies (1978:121). If translated literature assumes the secondary position which is normal, the translator's main effort is to find the best ready-made models for the foreign text and the result often turns out to be non-adequate translation. If translated literature assumes the primary position, the translator is prepared to violate the home conventions and the translation is closer to the original in terms of adequacy. This situation distinguishes Latvian literary polysystem from, for example, French in which original literature has always prevailed and consequently paved the way for "infideles". A culture with low self-image looks up at the dominant culture and often imitates aiming at expanding of national language and culture.

Faithfulness which is today scorned by many, is still the dominant approach in Latvian translation. In support of this preference I would like to quote the dissenting translator and translatorologist Peter Newmark. His approach (which is a functionalist approach) is an interesting approach but it stresses the importance of form and truth in translations; all that matters is the function of the translation in its setting." In spite of its abstraction, this is the crudest statement I know of the view that once one knows the why (purpose), both the what (content) and the how (form) become irrelevant" (1991:54). Many professionally done translations prove that faithfulness should not necessarily lead to unacceptable translations. Gideon Toury locates himself as always in the middle between the total acceptability and total adequacy: no translation is ever entirely "acceptable" to the target culture because it will always introduce new information and forms defamiliarizing to that system, nor is any translation entirely "adequate" to the original version, because the cultural norms cause shifts from the source text structures (1980:94). As Palma Zlateva points out: "the acceptability of translated text in the target language should be considered part of adequacy of its translation" (1990:29).

Translation aspects

- The main effort of the translator of a literary text should still lie in creating the aesthetic experience as the original and retaining the source text function unless the commissioner has set a specific skopos. An accidental change of the source text function is a major drawback of literary translation.
- A variety of translation methods can be applied to ensure both the adequacy and acceptability of the target text.

Cross-cultural differences is perhaps the first item for the translator to handle in order to ensure acceptability of the translation. Pragmatic adaptation and explanatory

translation are translation methods not to be overlooked to bridge the culture gap.

Pragmatic adaptation is rewriting of the source text in compliance with the target culture situation to achieve an adequate response of the readership. For example, colours may need to be changed because of connotational difference

language. Thus the title of Kārlis Skalbe's "Dzeltenais putns" had to be translated as "Golden Bird" since *yellow* in English connotes cowardice, cheapness and suchlike negative qualities while in Latvian *dzeltenis* is the colour of warmth, sunshine, happiness.

By means of *explanatory translation* additional information can be given in the target text which otherwise might require a footnote:

Rudeni, kad veji kā izkaltušas linu saužas staigāja gar bālām laukmalām, kaķītis izskatījās kā iznācis no tumšās veļu sētas, kur dod ēst tikai smilšu karašus. (Kārlis Skalbe "Kaķīša dzimaviņas")

In autumn, when the spirits of the dead, like withered tufts of flax, floated past the pale borders of the fields, our little cat looked as though he had escaped from a gloomy vale where nothing was to be had but bread made of cemetery sand.

Also stylistic qualities of the text require special attention. The translation should

ensure the sense or the aesthetic experience.
compensation, a stylistically marked lexical unit for the neutral to make up
 elsewhere, helps solving problems connected
 emotively marked units like slang:

It **cost** him damn near four thousand **bucks**. (Jerome Salinger "Catcher in the Rye")

Izsviedis par to gandrīz **četrus tūkstošus**.

Readability is a criterion for a good translation. Its improvement is
 achieved by application of *shifts*,
 change. It seems obvious but in the process which is
 automatic, there often occurs an unconscious imitation of the
 is often faulty word order that mars an otherwise well thought over translation.
Breaking away from the source language constructions is a requirement to be
 consistently met in any translation.

It must have been forgotten that arriving the
 "Ebony Tower"

Par viņa ierašanās šajā pēcpusdiena laikam aizmīrusi.

The enumeration of possible translation problems and methods is schematic
 from complete. The recounting in this case has been done to demonstrate the
 adequacy on the textual level pose. transformations of various
 kinds on lower levels. To the opposite to ensure the empathy with the origin;
 considerable modifications are often to be introduced in the process of translation.

Legal Texts - a Multifunctional Text Type

As translation of legal texts constitute a considerable part of all translation activities.
 combine features of all the three previously mentioned text types it seems worthwhile to
 analyse legal writing in a separate chapter.

According to Bühler, legal language predominantly bears expressive function; accordingly legal writing is viewed as an authoritative text type (Newmark, 1988:162). Indeed, in legal writing the performative ("authoritative") function of the language is one of the most important of all: the language carries the force of law. Ritualistic element present in many legal texts is essential to persuade the public to obey the law. In the court-room the ritualistic character of proceedings is even enhanced by the Judge wearing of a special robe and some places even a wig. At the same time it is important to understand that legal writing is also informative. In such legal texts; rental agreements, for example, the informative function is of major importance.

The difficulty arises in identifying the potential reader(s) of legal writing: on the one hand, the addressee is a layman in law (e.g. a business man who has commissioned a contract to sell goods and who would be relieved to get a contract drawn in a language he can easily understand), but on the other hand, the text should be drafted with the audience (lawyers) in mind because of the ever present risk of litigation. Two important functions collide in the drafting process.

"risk-minimizing" (Grøn). A lawyer never knows which of the clauses as drafted will ultimately lead to a dispute so all major documents have to be drafted with the same amount of care. In the process of writing (and envisaging litigation risks) the lawyer may easily give second priority to his communicative function towards the client, which is perhaps especially unfortunate in legal writing of the contract kind.

Legal writing has developed into highly conventionalized text type using set forms and constructions which already have been tested in cases. Reliance on an accepted form is only natural from the point of minimising risks. Consequently legal writing is not pro-consumer and in most cases needs the lawyer's assistance to be comprehended. Just one example:

Client understands that any estimates provided by the Firm of the magnitude of the expenses that will be required at certain stages of any litigation asserting a cause of action are not precise, and that the kinds and amounts of expenses required are ultimately

a function of many conditions over which the Firm has little or no control, particularly the extent to which the opposition files pretrial motions and engages in its own discovery requests, whether in the nature of interrogatories, depositions, requests for production, or requests for admission, or any other type of discovery allowed by the rules of procedure in the forum in which the dispute is pending. (110 words)

No wonder "Plain English" campaign has been launched with the view of simplifying legal language and enhancing its informative function. The beginnings of the campaign go back to 1970ies when the movement was started in America in the general wake of consumerism. Plain English advocates claim that good writing is simple and that only mediocre intellect produces heavy, dull style. They are against the pro that make "legally innocent" people feel frustrated when they try to decipher their insurance policies and loan agreements. They declare that good writing make feel smart, only bad writing makes the reader feel stupid. The consumer area is the first field of law in which clarity and comprehensibility of documentation has been most readily acknowledged. The movement has gained popularity. The drafting in plain English outside the legislative field - is now part of the compulsory tri: American law schools and the idea is slowly gaining acceptance in the UK and Austr: as well. In the USA the government has been involved in the plain E: with the objective of cutting both red tape and federal government expense according to the plain English principles the above mentioned text assume form:

Client understands that the Firm's expense estimates are imprecise that conditions outside the Firm's control, especially the opposition's pretrial motions and discovery requests, may affect expenses. (26 words)

Translation aspects

It is difficult to set up standards of translation performance which will apply to any legal translation because the "languages of law" are as varied as the cases that reach the courts every day. However, several general guidelines can be drawn.

- If the degree of freedom in any other text type can be variable, translations of legal

texts are faithful and as accurate as possible. "Risk-minimizing" is as indispensable a function of a translated legal document as it is of the source text and is still prevailing over the communicative function. As pointed out by W. Rayar: "The task of the legal translator is to remain true to the source text and to approach as closely as possible with his translation. If the translator were to choose terms of art exclusively from the legal system of the receptor, he would be referring to the wrong legal system. This would inevitably lead to confusion of the reader. This reader, accustomed to a different system, will automatically approach the text from his own (1988:542). Conceptually the source and target legal systems should not be blurred. For example, the names of judicial officers and institutions are to be retained or transferred directly and a brief footnote or a text can be given in case of need.

The translation of legal documents is entrusted only to those who are familiar with both systems and the very fact that they must swear to translate as close as possible to the source text in order to get their translation accepted is the approach to the translation process. This explains why in official translations there are very few deviations from the original. However, the skopos theory of translation and may require the change of the terminology. Normally a change would entail rewriting for informative purposes.

- Legal writing is a prescriptively conventionalized text type and abiding by target conventions may require certain adaptations of the form of the target text. One of the most obvious formal peculiarities of the English law texts is the usage of *shall* in multiple of meanings where in Latvian texts the present tense form is used, e.g.

The contract **shall take effect** upon signature.

Kontrakts **stājas spēkā** ar tā parakstīšanas brīdi.

In the event of breach of contract the defaulting party **shall pay damages** to the injured party.

Kontrakta laušanas gadījumā vainīgā puse **kompensē** cietušajai pusei radītos audējumus.

Conventional English texts also contain many "lawyerisms", e.g. *in the event of, prior to, at that point in time, for the duration of herein, hereof, thereof, forthwith, any and all, each and every, finish and complete, alter and change, last will and testament* etc. the use of which has been historically conditioned by the need to use both the French and English words in the wake of the Norman conquest. Accordingly they are also to be used when translating legal texts from Latvian into English:

Gadījumā, ja nosūtītāja rīkojumus nav iespējams izpildīt, parvadatais par to nekavējoties paziņo.

If it is impossible to carry out the orders of the consignor the carrier must so inform him **forthwith**.

Compared to English Latvian legal language is much plainer. Due to the relatively late formation of the legal system, use of other languages (Russian) in law, the formal style has not taken deep root in the Latvian legal language. Consequently translations from English into Latvian in the first place perform the informative function while in Latvian-English translations much attention must be paid to the formal aspect of the target text.

Also Latvian translators should consider the impact of plain English campaign on conventional English legal writing. Among other things plain English advocates altogether eliminate *shall* from their vocabularies as it is considered to be "the most misused word in the legal vocabulary" (Garner, 1994:7). Instead they recommend the use of *must, may, is entitled to, may not, must not, will* to avoid the ambiguity and enhance the meaning:

No person **may** walk on the grass.

The department **must** disclose all relevant information.

They also recommend "purging inflated lawyerisms" (Garner, 1994:18): "they nothing but junk" (Kimble, 1993:73). Break the document down into manageable pieces of information, eliminate unnecessary information, put information in logical sequence, prefer short and medium-length sentence, prefer active voice, put the central action in strong verbs and avoid "noun-plague" – the tendency to turn verbs into abstract nouns, use familiar words, eliminate unnecessary words, including compound prepositions, wordy phrases and redundancies – in other words rewrite the heavy-structured incomprehensible text into manageable plain English.

These tendencies may become binding; in the source text a Latvian phrase translated into English, the question arises whether the translator should follow the source text in compliance with the long standing English conventions if the conventions are on the point of being discarded. At the moment the answer is no, as it will still take time for plain English to become the conventions in English speaking countries to say nothing of such; in the target text as Latvia. But skopos theory offers a good strategy: the translator should ask for the translation skopos and then it is within the competence of the commissioner to decide whether to use or plain language. It is the translation skopos that decide.

Conclusions

There are no uniform criteria for a good translation. Equivalence which has served as a goal for translators and main criterion for translation has blurred a term to be used as an objective criterion. It has been redefined again and interpreted as the same aesthetic experience (the American translation workshop), linguistic structural/dynamic equivalence (the "science" of translation), corresponding literary function (early translation studies) or similar formal correlation governed by social acceptability in the target culture (polysystem theory and translation studies). Translation assessment should proceed from the source text function and translation skopos which determine translation strategy. To quote Katharina Reiss, we can state that

a translation is successful if:

- in an informative text it guarantees direct and full access to the conceptual content of the source language text;

- in an expressive text it transmits a direct impression of the artistic form of the conceptual content; and

- in an operative text it produces a text-form which will directly elicit the desired response. (1976)

References

1. Garner, Bryan. *Drafting Legal Documents: Rules and Style*. West Group, Inc. and Bryan A. Garner, 1994.
2. Even - Zohar, Itamar. The Position of Translated Literature within the Literary Polysystem. In: *Literature and Translation: New Perspectives in Literary Studies with Basic Bibliography of Books on Translation Studies*. Leuven, Belgium: ACCO, 1978, 117-127.
3. Grøn, Hanne. Legal Language and the Legal Translator. In: *Herme. Linguistics* 9, 1992, 113-139.
4. Hermans, Theo. *The Manipulation of Literature: Studies in Literary Translation*. New York: St. Martins Press, 1985.
5. Holmes, James S. On Matching and Making Maps: from a translator's Notebook. *Delta* 16 (4), 1973 - 4, p. 67-82
6. Kimble, Joseph. *Drafting Documents in Plain Language*. Business Forms Management Association, Inc., 1993.
7. Newmark, Peter. *A Textbook of Translation*. Prentice Hall, 1988.
8. Newmark, Peter. *About Translation*. Philadelphia, Adelaïne, 1991.
9. Nord, Christiane. *Text Analysis in Translation*. Amsterdam-Atlanta, GA
10. Reiss, Katharina. Text Types, Translation Types and Translation Assessment. In: *Readings in Translation Theory*. Ed. by Andrew Chesterman. Oy Finn Lectura Ab, Finland, 1989, 105-116.
11. Skujiņa, Valentīna. Jaunākais terminoloģijā. *Latviešu valodas kultūras jautājumi*. 22., 23. un 25. laidziens. Avots, Rīga, 1986. 1987. un 1989. gads.
12. Snell - Hornby, Mary. *Translation Studies: An Integrated Approach*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins, 1988.

13. Toury, Gideon. *In Search of a Theory of Translation*. Tel Aviv: The Porter Institute for Poetics and Semiotics, 1980.
14. Zlateva, Palma. Text and Pre-Text "Adequacy" and "Acceptability" in Crosscultural Communication. In: *Translation, History and Culture*. Pinter Publishers. 1990, 29-38.

BIEŽĀK LIETOJAMO PRIEVĀRDU NOZĪMES

NORVĒĢU UN LATVIEŠU VALODĀ.

Prievārdiem nav savas pilnīgi patstāvīgas leksiskās nozīmes, un tos lieto kopā ar kādu patstāvīgas nozīmes vārdu, piem. lietvārdu, vietniekvārdu, skaitļa vārdu, īpašības vārdu u.c. Prievārdiem ir divpusīgs saistījums: tie ir saistīti ar kādu atkarīgo un tai pašā laikā arī ar atkarību noteicošo vārdu, t.i. ar vārdu, kas ar prievārda palīdzību pārvalda kādu citu vārdu. (Mūsdienu latviešu literārās valodas gramatika, 720 lpp.) Tātad prievārdu nozīmi galvenokārt nosaka kā atkarīgais, tā pārvaldošais vārds un to starpā esošās attiecības. No tā izriet, ka prievārda nozīme ir atkarīga no leksiskiem nosacījumiem, kādos prievārds funkcionē, un to attieksmju rakstura, kādas ir starp vārdiem, kas ir saistīti ar prievārdu.

Mūsdienu latviešu valodā vairums prievārdu ir daudznozīmju vārdi. Daudznozīmību prievārdi ieguvuši valodas attīstības gaitā. Sākotnēji tie norādīja konkrētas nozīmes attiecības, un daudziem prievārdiem primārā ir vietas nozīme. Ar laiku prievārdi ieguva jaunas nozīmes.

Arī norvēģu valodā sastopams ievērojams daudzums prievārdu. To lielākā daļa tāpat kā latviešu valodā ir daudznozīmju vārdi, kam raksturīgs plašs pielietojums. Pie tam norvēģu valodā prievārdi kopā ar pārvaldāmo vārdu izsaka to pašu nozīmi, ko locījuma forma aiz prievārda latviešu valodā.

Atšķirībā no latviešu valodas, norvēģu valodā nepastāv t.s. prievārdu rekcija, kur katrs prievārds piesaista atkarīgo vārdu noteiktā locījuma formā.

Latviešu valodā prievārdi vienskaitlī var piesaistīt pārvaldošam vārdam atkarīgos vārdus ģenitīva, datīva un akuzatīva (instrumentālā) formā.

Neatkarīgi no tā, kādā locījuma formā prievārdi saista atkarīgo vārdu vienskaitlī, daudzskaitlī gandrīz visi latviešu valodas prievārdi var piesaistīt atkarīgo vārdu tikai datīva formā (skat. tabulu).

Locījumu formas aiz prievārdiem latviešu valodā.

<i>Genitīvs</i>	<i>Datīvs</i>	<i>Akuzatīvs</i>
Vienskaitlis		
aiz priekš ^o apakšpus		ap
bez iekš ^o ārpus		ar
dēļ labad augšpus		caur
kopš apakš iekšpus	līdz	gar
no iz lejpus	pa ← →	pa
pēc otrpus		pār
pie šaipus		pret
pirms viņpus		starp
virš viršpus		
zem		
uz ← →		uz
Daudzskaitlis		
dēļ	aiz priekš	ap
labad	bez iekš	ar
pēc (lietots iemesla nozīmē)	dēļ apakš	caur
	kopš iz	gar
	no apakšpus	pa
	pēc ārpus	pār
	pie augšpus	pret
	pirms iekšpus	starp
	virš lejpus	
	zem otrpus	
	uz šaipus	
	līdz viņpus	
	viršpus	

mazāk aktīvie prievārdi

Būtiska atšķirība norvēģu valodā ir lietvārdu locījumu skaits, jo tajā pastāv tikai divi locījumi pamata (nominatīv el. nevneform) un ģenitīvs (genitīv el. eieform). Pamata locījums, savukārt, var atbilst visu latviešu valodā lietojamo locījumu nozīmei.

Lietvārdam pamatlocījumā norvēģu valodā galotne nemainās. Ģenitīva locījums izsaka piederību plašākā nozīmē un pamatā atbilst ģenitīva locījumam latviešu valodā. Ģenitīvu veido, pievienojot lietvārdiem galotni s,

bok boks grāmata grāmatas
bus bus's autobuss autobusa

Norvēģu valodā ģenitīva locījumu lieto galvenokārt rakstu valodā un oficiālajā sarunvalodā.

Apzīmētāja nozīmē lietojamais lietvārds ģenitīvā vienmēr atrodas pirms lietvārda, kuru tas apzīmē,

piem., lærens navn skolotāja uzvārds.

Tomēr jāpiebilst, ka ne visos gadījumos ģenitīva lietojums norvēģu valodā atbilst lietojumam latviešu valodā; dažkārt to aizstāj ar salikteniem.

piem Kirkegata Baznīcas iela

Puskinmuseet Puškina muzejs.

Atšķirībā no latviešu valodas, kur ģenitīva locījumu saistība ar dažādām vārdu šķirām pielieto ļoti plaši gan rakstu, gan sarunvalodā, norvēģu sarunvalodā to lieto reti. Pastāv uzskats, ka šī locījuma lietojums padara valodu smagnēju, tādēļ priekšroka tiek dota citām piederību aprakstošām formām ar prievārdu palīdzību

piem., 1. norādot patiesas piederības nozīmi,

ģenitīvu var aizstāt ar prievārdu TIL.

fars briller brillene *til* far tēva (ģen.) brilles

guttens ski skiene *til* gutten zēna (ģen.) slēpes

2. lai norādītu uz kādas daļas piederību pie kopējā, izmanto prievārdus

AV, PA

fjellets topp toppa av fjellet kalna (ģen.) virsotne

husets tak taket *på* huset mājas (ģen.) jumts

3. Ja norvēģu valodā ar ģenitīva locījumu apzīmēts papildinātājs, tad lieto

prievārdu AV

bokas forfatter - forfatter *av* boka - grāmatas (ģen.) autors.

Citi piemēri:

byens navn navnet *på* byen pilsētas (ģen.) nosaukums
 landets lover lovene *i* landet valsts (ģen.) likumi
 soldatens tapperhet tapperheten *hos* soldaten kareivja (ģen.) drosme
 kommunens leder lederen *for* kommunen komūnas (ģen.) vecākais
 skolens vaktmester - vaktmestern (*ved*) (*på*) skolen - skolas (ģen.) uzraugs.

Prievārdu nozīmes norvēģu valodā.

AV norāda:

(1) piederību.

Et portret *av* en mann. Kāda cilvēka portrets.

(2) daļu no kaut kā.

En liten del *av* pengene. Neliela daļa naudas.

Maltidet bestod *av* brod og melk. Ēdienreize sastāvēja *no* piena un maizes.

Hans far er medlem *av* Stortinget. Viņa tēvs ir Stortinga loceklis.

(3) avotu, darbības sākuma punktu.

Loven *av* 1895. 1895.gada likums.

(4) no kā kas gatavots.

Stolen er *av* tre. Krēsls ir *no* koka.

N.B. vārdu savienojumos

en kopp *te* tase tējas

den 14 juli 14.jūlijs

en floske *melk* pudele piena

norvēģu valodā vārdi ir pielikumā (opozīcijā).

(5) cēloni, iemeslu.

Hun grat *av* glode. Viņa raudāja *no* (aiz) prieka.

Han er grunn *av* misunnelse. Viņš ir zaļš *no* (aiz) skaudības.

(6) uz darītāju.

(norvēģu valodā to norāda, lietojot ciešamo kārtu).

Maten lages *av* kokken. Ēdienu gatavo pavārs.

Jeg leser et dikt *av* Bjørnson. Es lasu Bjornsona dzejoli.

II BAK norāda:

(1) vietu, aiz kā kas atrodas.

Mannen *bak* disken.*Bak* teppet.Virietis *aiz* letes.*Aiz* priekškara.III BLANT norāda:

(1) kas atrodas starp ko.

Na er Du *blant* venner*Blant* annet.Tagad tu esi *starp* draugiem.*Starp* citu.IV ETTER norāda:

(1) secību.

Vi kom *etter* de andre.Mēs atnācām *pēc* pārējiem.

(2) laika periodu pēc zināma

laika paiešanas pagātnē.

Etter fem minutter gor han hjem.*Pēc* piecām minūtēm viņš gāja mājās.

(3) saskaņā ar ko.

Etter loven er dette galt.

Saskaņā ar likumu, tas ir nepareizi.

Alte gikk *etter* planen.

Visi veicās saskaņā ar plānu.

(4) nolūku: to, ko grib dabūt

vai panākt.

Jeg lengter *etter* sommaren.Es ilgojos *pēc* vasaras.Din mor leter etter deg.

meklē.

Tava māte tevi meklē

N.B. darb.v. + prep. = vienoti

V FOR norāda:

(1) darbību par labu kādam.

Jeg skal gjøre det *for* deg.Es to izdarišu tavā labā (*priekš* tevis).Ikke *for* Dem, mine DamerNe *priekš* jums, manas dāmas.Gjør det *for* min skyld.

Izdari to manis dēļ!

(2) vērtību, cenu.

Hvor mye ga du *for* bilen ?Cik daudz tu maksāji *par* mašīnu ?

VI *FORAN* norāda:

- (1) kas atrodas kā priekšā,
priekšgalā.

Hun satt *foran* meg på kino.
Dagbladet er alltid *foran*.

Viņš sēdēja man priekšā kinoteātrī.
Dagbladets ir vienmēr priekšā citiem.

VII *FORBI* norāda:

- (1) kas pārvietojas, paiet garām.

Han gikk *forbi* meg uten å hilse. Viņš pagāja man garām nepasveicinot.
Kan jeg fa komme *forbi* Dem? Vai es varu tikt jums garām?

VIII *FRA* norāda:

zināmu laika perioda,
attāluma robežu saistījumā ar
prievārdu "līdz"

Fra morgen *til* atten.
Fra tid *til* annen

No rita *līdz* vakaram
Laiku *pa* laikam.

- (2) norāda izcelsmi.

Gutten kom *fra* Norge.

Zēns nāk *no* Norvēģijas

- (3) saistījumā ar noteiktu verbu
un atkarīgu vārdu apzīmē to,
no kā ko gaida, lūdz, prasa.

Har du hort *fra* han?

Vai tu *no* viņa esi ko dzirdējusi?

IX *FØR* norāda:

pirms (laika nozīmē).

Før Kristi fødsel c.
Før siste krig.

Pirms Kristus dzimšanas
Pirms pēdējā kara.

- (2) "līdz" nozīmē

(negatīvos apgalvojumos)

Jeg sa ham ikke *før* i Mandag.

Līdz pirmsdienai es viņu neredzēju.

X GJENNOM norāda:

- (1) vietas nozīmi, ka kas virzās
vai ir virzīts cauri tam, ko
apzīmē atkarīgais vārds.

Gjennom tykt og tynt.
De kjørte *gjennom* porten.

Caur uguni un ūdeni.
Viņi izbrauca *caur* vārtiem.

- (2) darbības veicinātāju
Jeg lærte ham å kjenne
gjennom herr O.

Es viņu iepazīnu ar O kunga
starpniecību.

N.B. Gjennom var lietot ar nenoteiksmi.

Gjennom å spara ble han
gjerring.

Taopot viņš kļuva skops.

XI HOS norāda:

- (1) kur, pie kā noris kāda darbība.

Jeg bor *hos* min onkel.
Vi gjør ikke det *hos* oss.

Es dzīvoju *pie* sava onkula.
Pie mums tā nedara.

- (2) kur, vai pie kā kas atrodas.

Du får kjøpt tøy *hos*
skredderen.

Tu varēsi nopirkt materiālu *pie*
drēbnieka.

XII I norāda:

- (1) vietu.

Min bror arbeider *i* haven.
Andersens bor *i* Oslo.
I Kirkeveien 23.

Mans brālis strādā dārzā.
Andersenu ģimene dzīvo Oslo.
Baznīcas ielā 23.

- (2) laiku.

i samme øyeblikk.
begynnelsen.

Šajā pašā acumirkī.
Sākumā

i dag
i morgen
i morges

šodien
rīt
šorīt

ettermiddag	šajā pēcpusdienā
kveld, i aften	šovakar, šonakt
natt	pagājušajā nakti
år	šogad
fjor	pagājušajā gadā
var	šajā pavasarī
fjor vår	pagājušajā pavasarī
høst	šoruden
sommer	šovasar
vinter	šoziem

(3) norāda, ka kustības rezultātā

kas pārvietojas no vienas vietas uz otru.

Ballen trillet ned *i* hullet.

Bumba iekrita caurumā.

Svømmered hoppet ut *i* elva.

Peldētājs ielēca ūdeni.

(4) rezultātu.

Rutten gikk *i* stykker

Stikls saplīsa gabalos.

(5) kas attiecas uz ko.

Du har rett *i* det du sier

Tev taisnība.

XIII INNEN norāda:

(1) uz kādu laika periodu.

Du ma betale regningen

Jums jāsamaksā rēķins nedēļas

innen en uke.

laikā.

XIV INNTIL norāda:

(1) ka kas atrodas tieši, cieši pie kā.

Tett *inntil* veggen.

Tieši *pie* sienas

XV MED norāda:

- (1) prievārds kopā ar atkarīgo vārdu
apzīmē pavadoni darbības darītājam
vai darbības objektam.
- (1) Jeg reiste *med* ham til London.
Jeg ha arbeidet sammen *med* ham i mange ar
- Es braucu *ar* viņu uz Londonu.
Es esmu strādājis kopā *ar* viņu daudzus gadus.
- (2) uz to, ar ko veic kādu darbību.
- Reise *med* tog, fly, bus
Turisten betalte *med* sjekk.
- Ceļot *ar* vilcienu, lidmašīnu, autobusu.
Tūrists norēķinājās *ar* čeku
- (3) lietu saturu.
- En kurv *med* egg
- Groziņš *ar* olām
- (4) raksturo darbības norises veidu.
- Med* storste fornyelse
- Ar* lielāko prieku.
- (5) kas attiecas uz kādu, ko.
- Det er slutt *med* ham.
- Ar* viņu ir cauri. (sar)

XVI MELLOM norāda:

- (1) kas norisinās vai virzās kā starpā,
starp ko (parasti starp 2 cilvēkiem)
- Mellom* oss sagt
- Starp* mums (mūsu starpā).
- (2) laika periodu starp 2 notikumiem.
- Mellom* Jul og Nyttår
- Starp* Ziemassvētkiem un Jaungadu.

XVII MOT / IMOT norāda.

- (1) pie kā kas virzās.
- Han kom (i) *mot* meg.
- Mot* sluttet av uken.
- Viņš pienāca *pie* manis
Tuvu nedēļas nogalei.

Izteikumi:

tre ganger <i>om</i> dagen	tris reizes dienā
to timer <i>om</i> uken	divas reizes nedēļā.

(5) norāda uz zināmu laika periodu nākotnē.

Vi mo reise <i>om</i> fem minutter	Mums jābrauc <i>pēc</i> 5 minūtēm
------------------------------------	-----------------------------------

(6) norāda vietu, ap, apkārt.

Drei <i>om</i> hjørnet.	Pagriezties <i>ap</i> stūri
-------------------------	-----------------------------

N.B. aptuveni, apmēram *ap* nozīmē lieto

om kring

om trent

Han er <i>omkring</i> forti ar	Vinam ir (<i>apmēram</i>) <i>ap</i> 40 gadu
--------------------------------	---

XIX *OVER* norāda:

(1) darbība notiek pāri tam, ko apzīmē pārvaldāmais vārds

Hun gikk over gaten.	Viņš pārgāja pāri ielai
Han svømte over elva.	Viņš pārpeldēja pāri upei

(2) uz to, ko kas ietver sevi.

Et kart <i>over</i> Oslo.	Oslo karte.
En liste <i>over</i> passasjerene	Pasažieru saraksts.

(3) kas ir vairāk kā iepriekš norādīts.

Det er over seks år siden no.	Tas ir vairāk kā pirms sešiem gadiem.
-------------------------------	---------------------------------------

XX. *PA* norāda:

(1) vietu, uz kā kas atrodas.

<i>på</i> bordet	<i>uz</i> galda
<i>på</i> gaten	<i>uz</i> ielas

(2) atrašanās vietu, virzienu

Gå på skole.	Iet skolā.
Gå på kino.	Iet uz kino.
Det var på sykehuset.	Tas notika slimnīcā

(3) laika nozīmi, uzsverot darbības
laiku vai ilgumu.

De kan go det på fem minutter. Tu vari aizieť līdz turieni 5 minūtēs.
Jeg kan klare die på en dag. Es to paspēšu 1 dienā.

(4) norāda uz piederību plašākā nozīmē.

Navnet på gaten. Ielas nosaukums.
Nummeret på billetten. Biļetes numurs.

(5) prievārds bieži lietots kopā ar
darbības vārdiem un īpašības vārdiem.

tenka <i>på</i> vente <i>på</i>	domāt <i>par</i> , gaidīt
være sint <i>på</i>	būt dusmigam <i>uz</i> (kādu)
stole <i>på</i>	paļauties <i>uz</i>

XXI TIL norāda:

(1) virzienu, vietu uz kurieni dodas.

Vi skal *til* byen i dag. Mēs brauksim *uz* pilsētu šodien.

(2) laika perioda beigu robežu.

Jeg skal bli *til* klokka fem. Es varu palikt *līdz* pieciem.
Kontortiden er fra ni *til* fire. Atvērts no 9.00 - 16.00.

(3) norāda, ka kas ir kādam paredzēts.

Det ev brev *til* deg. Tā ir vēstule *Tev*.
Jeg skal skrive et brev *til* mor. Es rakstīšu vēstuli mātei.

(4) piederību.

Avisen *til* mor. Mātes avīze.
Bordet *til* far. Tēva galds.
Boten *til* fiskerne. Zvejnieku laiva.

(5) pāreju no viena stāvokļa citā.

Vannet blir *til* is. Ūdens pārvērtās ledū.

XXII UNDER norāda:

(1) vietu, kas atrodas zem tā, ko apzīmē
atkarīgais vārds.

Vi rodde *under* brua. Mēs airējām *zem* tilta.
Han bor i etāsjen *under* meg. Viņš dzīvo stāvā *zem* manis.

(2) zināmu laika periodu.

Jeg besøkte henne *under* mitt Es apciemoju viņu, kad uzturējos
opphold i Bergen. Bergenā.

XXIII UTEN norāda:

(1) tā trūkumu, ko apzīmē pārvaldāmais vārds

Jeg kan ikke leve *uten* deg. Es nevaru dzīvot *bez* tevis.

(2) apstiprinājumu.

Uten tvil. *Bez* šaubam

XXIV UTENFOR

(1) norāda vietu, kas atrodas
ārpus kā.

Han bor et stykke *utenfor* byen. Viņš dzīvo nedaudz ārpus pilsētas

XXV VED norāda:

(1) kas atrodas, vai norisinās
kā tuvumā.

De satt *ved* bordet og spiste. Viņi sēdēja *pie* galda un ēda.
Mine foreldre bor like *ved* Mani vecāki dzīvo *pie*
stasjonen. stacijas.
Slaget *ved* Waterloo. Kaujā *pie* Waterloo.
Vi stanset *ved* porten. Mēs apstājāmies *pie* vārtiem.

(2) līdzekli vai metodi, ar kādu

veikta darbība. (bieži saistībā ar nenoteiksmi)

Ved hylp av ar palīdzību

(3) cēloni, iemeslu.

Ved en misforstaelse Pārpratuma *pēc*

Ved daggy *Ap* krēslas laiku.

Latviešu valodā prievārdus lieto kā patstāvīgus vārdoņus kā arī kopā ar lietvārdiem, īpašības vārdiem un verbiem. Saliktoņos ar verbiem sastopami prievārdi aiz, ap, iz, pa, pār, pie, uz, no.

Atšķirībā no norvēģu valodas, latviešu valodā iespējams lietot priedēkli kopā ar prepozīciju, piem.

Apriet *ap* galdu, uzbraukt *uz* ielas.

Salīdzinot prievārdu atrašanās vietu teikumā norvēģu un latviešu valodā, jāatzīmē, ka vairumā gadījumu norvēģu valodā prievārds atrodas pirms vārda, kuru tas pārvalda, piem.

Stolen er *av* tre Krēsls ir no koka.

Han er *i* skogen Viņš ir mežā.

Gadījumā, kad pārvaldāmais vārds ir īpaši izcelams, to liek pirmajā vietā teikumā, bet prievārdu teikuma beigās, piem.

Henne har jeg aldri lest *om* Par viņu es nekad neesmu lasījis

Ja teikumā, kurā tiek izcelts pārvaldāmais vārds, ir vietas vai laika apstākļa vārdi, tie parasti seko aiz prievārda, piem.

Garden jeg bodde *pa* ljør, er stor

Lauku māja, kurā es dzīvoju pagājušajā gadā, ir liela.

Han forteller oss om hva han tenner *på* slikt vær

Viņš mums stāstīja, par ko viņš domāja tādā laikā.

Norvēģu valodā prievārds liekams teikuma beigās gadījumos, kad pārvaldāmais vārds apzīmē jautājamo vai attieksmes vietniekvārdu, piem.

Hva letter du *etter*? Ko tu meklē?

(Teikumu konstrukcija "Etter hva letter du?" ir novecojusi)

Hvem snakker du *om*? Par ko tu runā?

Latviešu valodā gandrīz visi prievārdi nostājas pārvaldāma vārda priekšā. Iznēmums ir prievārdi *dēļ* un *labad*, kā arī *pēc* (kad tas lietots iemesla nozīmē), kuri vienmēr nostājas aiz pārvaldāmā vārda (Mūsdienu latviešu literārās valodas gramatika, 724.lpp.),

piem., Lietus *dēļ* aizkavējamies

Tas darīts piesardzības *labad*.

Darīju to joka *pēc*.

Jāatzīmē, ka atšķirībā no norvēģu valodas, kur starp pārvaldāmo vārdu un prievārdu teikumā var atrasties citi vārdi, latviešu valodā teikuma robežās prievārds un pārvaldāmais vārds nav atdalāmi; tie vienmēr atrodas līdzās.

L I T E R A T Ū R A

1. Mūsdienu latviešu literārās valodas gramatika. R.: 1959
2. Bērziņa -Baltiņa V. Latviešu valodas gramatika. R.:1994
3. Endzefēns J., Mīlenbahs K. Latviešu valodas mācība. R.:1993.
4. Sommerfelt Alf, Marm Ingvald. Teach yourself Norwegian. Oslo: 1984
5. Norsk - Engelsk blå ordbok. Oslo: 1990
6. Manne Gerd. Ny i Norge. Oslo: 1990.
7. Якуб В. Л. Практический курс норвежского языка. Москва: 1966.

REVIEWS

Andrejs Bankavs Saisinājumi. Rīga, Avots, 1994.

(Andrejs Bankavs Abbreviations. Riga, Avots, 1994.)

This is the first general, descriptive and generally available dictionary of abbreviations in Latvian. Comprising more than 2000 most common abbreviations it gives a comprehensive idea of the state of abbreviations in Latvian in the eighties of this century. Highly specialized abbreviations (terminological character) have not been reflected and judging by what the dictionary contains it has been the right decision as there are too many restricted and unstable abbreviations to be included in a general dictionary. The principle of inclusion, as stated by the author, has been usage of an abbreviation in three different sources.

Wide use of abbreviations in general is characteristic of the 20th century and their real spread in Latvian has occurred only after the Second World War. The widespread character of this word-formation type in Latvian is manifested apart from the huge number of abbreviations also by the numerous homonyms, that one in general should try to avoid, e.g. **dz.** 4 meanings, **LIB** 3 meanings, **JKS** 3 meanings.

The dictionary comprises both native Latvian **VDK, ZA, GNP, u.c., plkstn.**, and borrowed abbreviations. The latter have two forms in Latvian – either the original foreign abbreviations **BMW, NATO, AIDS, UEFA** or loan translation abbreviations **ANO, ASV, MVU**. Borrowed abbreviations apart from the Latvian translation are supplied with their full form in the original language. Many entries have explanatory notes pointing out the sphere of usage.

The dictionary consists of two parts, the first of which is an alphabetical enumeration of abbreviations, the second thematic grouping of abbreviations: chemical elements, mathematical expressions, Roman numbers, international airline codes, car licence state codes, money symbols, punctuation marks, etc. The second part can be viewed as a novelty in Latvian as well as Baltic lexicography in general. Appendices of this type have up to now been more characteristic of general language dictionaries, but they certainly facilitate dictionary use in specific situations. The second part is a very interesting and captivating reading material, the only question that remains unclear is why some of the items can be found in both parts (chemical elements) while others only in the second.

As to the shortcomings, in my opinion the dictionary could contain lower case acronyms: though **AIDS** has **aidss** mentioned, the same is not true of **TEC (tecs)**, **VEF (Vefs)**, **CK (ceka)**. There are no foreign lower case acronyms: **lāzers**, **radars**, etc. but these have been borrowed not as abbreviations but as root words and accordingly normally represented in general language dictionaries. There are a few abbreviations missing, e.g. **SS** cannot be found, while **SD** is present. Along the same semantic and historical lines **Gestapo** is included, thus going against the general tendency of not taking lower case acronyms (may be this is the reason for spelling in capitals which is very uncharacteristic).

Yet the most interesting point of extralinguistic nature is the timing of the dictionary. Finished in March 1991, published in 1994, it can be viewed as a symbol of the past age and present change. The three years it has taken for the dictionary to pass through the early post-Soviet system suggests that the habits are dying slower than the names. The author has used asterisk for notions that did not exist already in 1991 so part of the change is well reflected. Today there would be more. In many cases one can find interesting data on how names of

different organizations have been changing in the time of glasnost, perestroika and singing revolution, for example, all Latvian higher education establishments seem to have changed their names. Some conclusions can be drawn, e.g. “**valsts**” (state) seems to be the word people have particularly despised dropped in **LVU, LVB, LVPI, LVK**. The radical change in society and its institutions unfortunately means that numerous entries are not topical anymore they have simply disappeared. And that also means that we urgently need a new dictionary of current abbreviations. A glance at the first page of any newspaper speaks loud and clear.

Meanwhile this dictionary will remain useful as a compilation of foreign and long standing abbreviations as well as a monument to the social change. *Tempora mutantur, et verba mutantur in illis.*

Andrejs Veisbergs

Newsletter
of the Department of Contrastive Linguistics
April, 1994 – April 1995.

Visitors

Ivars Alksnis

from Geneva School of Translation held seminars on literary translation and text analysis in the Faculty of Foreign Languages, September and November 1994

Joseph Sheel, J.L.M. Trim

from Council of Europe discussed the progress of work on Threshold Latvian December 19 --21, 1994

Uldis Ozoliņš

from Deakin University, Australia lectured on translation to BA and MA students January 3-19, 1995

Jeremy Verrinder

from Westminster University lectured on translation to BA and MA students February 20-27 1995.

Staff goings

Andrejs Veisbergs

attended a FSU workshop on grant application, Lohusaalu, Estonia, April 17-20, 1994.

Ieva Zauberga

visited Monterey Institute of International Studies, USA to study the MA in Translation and Interpreting programme design, April 22-23, 1994

Maija Brēde

continued a year of teaching of Latvian at SSEES, University of London, giving culture briefing on Latvia for SSEES Communicaid, gave a lecture on the current problems of the Latvian language at the Latvian House in London.

Veneta Žigure

stayed for a month in the English Language Institute, University of Surrey on a TEMPUS project, April, 1994

Andrejs Veisbergs

participated in the 7th International Symposium on Lexicography in Copenhagen Denmark, May 5-6, 1994 with a report "Idiom Translation and Idiom Dictionaries"

Andrejs Veisbergs

participated in the International YFU seminar "Nationalism and Ethnic Tension in Europe" preparatory meeting, Lenk, Switzerland, May 12-15, 1994.

Maija Brēde

attended Symposium on Language teaching at the University Language and Communications Centre Committee, London, May 13, 1994.

Andrejs Veisbergs

participated in the International YFU seminar "Ethnic Tension and Nationalism in Europe" as a workshop leader, Lenk, Switzerland, June 29 - July 3, 1994.

Ieva Zauberga

attended AIIIC Non-agreement sector seminar in Helsinki, Finland, July 8-10, 1994.

Maija Brēde

stayed for a month in the English Language Institute, University of Surrey on a TEMPUS project, August 1994.

Andrejs Veisbergs**Ieva Zauberga**

participated in an International conference "Linguists and Lawyers - Issues We Confront" at Aarhus School of Commerce, Denmark, August 24 - 27 1994

Andrejs Veisbergs

participated in the 6th International EURALEX Congress, Amsterdam, the Netherlands, August 30 - September 3, 1994 with a presentation "Dictionary of False Friends (Latvian - English, English - Latvian)"

Svetlana Korolova

stayed for a month in Colchester English Study Centre on a TEMPUS project October, 1994.

Arvils Šalme

participated with a report in the conference "Changing Education" in Riga, December 12, 1994.

Andrejs Veisbergs

attended IBEX meeting in Cardiff, United Kingdom, February 10-12, 1995.

Arvils Šalme

conducted a Latvian language course in Bonn, Germany February 25 - April 1, 1995.

Saturs	Contents	
1. Brēde M.	Pragmatic Aspect of Phonetic Expressive Means	5
2. Korolyova S.	Some Tips for Teaching Practical Translation in Big Groups	14
3. Načisčione A.	Ways of Expressing the Diminutive in English and Latvian Phraseology	21
4. Valdmanis J.	Paratactic Clause Complexes in Latvian	29
5. Veisbergs A.	Contrastive Analysis of Word formation Types (Abbreviation, Clipping and Blending)	38
6. Šalme A.	Daži vārdu salīdzināšanas un sistematizēšanas aspekti latviešu valodas leksiskā minimuma vārdnīcās	63
7. Zauberga I.	Text Type and Translation Strategy	76
8. Žigure V.	Biežāk lietojamo prievārdu nozīmes norvēģu un latviešu valodā	98
RECENZIJAS	REVIEWS	113
NEWSLETTER		116