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

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

The authors of the present volume analyse various phenomena of different language levels in English, Latvian, Russian, Finnish as well as 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, post-graduates and students of philology.

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## Prominence on Function Words

Discourse studies focus on the *functional* properties of a speech event whereas the *formal* properties of an item are studied by grammar (Sinclair, Coulthard, 1992).

As concerns different speech genres, each of them is characterized by a set of linguistic and paralinguistic features. For spoken discourse, together with such linguistic features as grammatical, lexical and textual, it is prosodic features like pitch, stress, tempo that are of particular importance. As has been proved on the basis of numerous investigations prosodic features may turn out to be decisive for spoken discourse (Tench, 1988).

D.Bolinger indicates that individual lexical items take different meanings when different intonations are imposed. Intonation is attached to the pragmatic rather than literal meaning of an expression (Bolinger, 1989). D.Bolinger states it is natural that the "content" use of expressions (as opposed to the "function" use) is cued by accent.

Different speech genres are related to different uses of intonation system. However, the analysis (here reference is made to styles of reading) show there may be considerable variation in mode in the same reading (Brazil, 1985).

According to M.Coulthard, "...intonation is primarily concerned with adding specific interactional significance to lexico-grammatical items and thus enabling the speaker to refine and at times redefine the meaning oppositions given by the language system" (Coulthard, 1977). It is up to the speaker (or reader) to make choices from a set of paradigmatic options *in accordance* with the purpose of communication. On the prosodic level these choices include the division of the utterance into intonation groups and the realization of *prominence* since the selection represents what the speaker considers prominent or non-prominent matter.

In his work on the communicative value of intonation in English D. Brazil specifies prominence as a linguistic choice (Brazil, 1985). In each tone unit there are syllables that can be recognized as being more emphatic than others. These syllables have prominence. Each prominent syllable serves to give prominence to a word, and prominent words realize sense selections" (Brazil, 1985:58). The distribution of prominence depends upon speakers' decisions, and because in making their decisions speakers are able to exploit the meaning potential of the system... (Brazil, 1985:49).

A. Gimson points out that a syllable can be made prominent by stress, pitch, quality, quantity any or all of these factors (Gimson, 1991). Stress, defined as energy of articulation for the speaker and loudness for the listener, turns out to be the least effective means of conveying prominence.

"Accentuation in connected speech differs, however, from the usual case of a polysyllable in that the situation of the accent in connected speech is determined largely by the meaning which the utterance is intended to convey"(Gimson, 1991:261). Although connected speech permits a freer approach to accentual patterns, speakers usually highlight content or lexical words in contrast to function or grammatical words.

S.F. Schmerling argues against the traditionally stated direct correlation between stressability and category membership (Schmerling, 1973). Also *contrastive* stress that has been described as recognizable by purely phonetic properties and semantic characterization according to S.F. Schmerling is not a clearly definable entity.

On the other hand, there are numerous cases when following certain pragmatic considerations function words are made prominent.

If speakers treat certain items in an utterance as relatively insignificant the items consequently fail to be assigned stress.

The present analysis looks closer at the treatment of function words in Latvian. Its purpose is to establish to what extent prominence, as realized on function words, may indicate a *shift of meaning* in comparison with an ordinary usage of the above-mentioned category of words. The study examines their treatment in two discourse modes,

both intended for public multiple audience: a) prepared material (reading a report at a conference); b) semi-prepared material (radio and TV interviews).

Latvian linguists discussing word accent and accent in connected speech use the traditional terms "stress"/ "accent" ("uzsvars"/ "akcents"). It has also been pointed out that stressing of grammatical words brings about special meaning to the utterance.

The material for the analysis consists of a set of utterances (in most cases they correspond to sentences) with the following prominent grammatical words: *conjunctions, relative pronouns, prepositions and particles*. Generally they are pronounced with the level tone in which case the tone is not marked; on few occasions they are pronounced with one of the principal kinetic tones, i.e. the falling or the rising tone. These are accordingly marked in the samples. There are also instances when the speaker singles out the grammatical word in a separate tone unit. The illustrative samples contain the following pause marks:

ξ (a short pause), | (a medium length pause), || (a relatively long pause), ||| (a considerably long pause).

## A. Conjunctions

Most of the utterances contain **coordinative** conjunctions simple (**un, arī, bet, toties**) and composite (**nevis - bet gan, ne tikai - bet arī, ne - ne**). Among prominent **subordinative** conjunctions **ja** and **lai** were fixed.

- 1) Psiholoģiskā barjera deputātos jāiznīcina, || **un** vispirms deputātos; || jo viņi jau pieņem likumus. ||  
*Deputies have to overcome their psychological barrier.  
And first of all deputies since they are the ones who pass bills.*
- 2) Es, kā Nacionālo Bruņoto Spēku komandieris, | saredzu | mūsu bruņoto ξ struktūru kā vienu sastāvdaļu no visas valsts drošības, || **un** | ja gribat, | kā vienu sastāvdaļu ξ no valsts izglītības un audzināšanas sistēmas. ||



*As the Commander of the National Armed Forces, I see the armed structure as a constituent part of the whole state security, **and** if you please, as part of the state education system.*

In (1) the speaker apparently makes **un** prominent for the sake of *emphasis*. On the lexical level it is clearly indicated by the repetition of the key word "deputāti". Besides, the short tone unit with **un** helps to form an easily perceivable rhythmical pattern that also serves to create an effect of emphasis. In (2) the number of pauses suggests that the speaker attaches great importance to his words. The prominent **un** connecting the two thoughts adds to the *emphatic* manner of the presentation. However, constituting a single tone unit **un** also indicates a certain *hesitation* as part of the thought formation process.

- 3) Skolās jāatbalsta militārā sagatavošana, || **arī** augstskolās. ||  
*We have to support military training in schools, **also** in universities.*

This structure can be easily paraphrased substituting the single conjunction **arī** by the composite **ne 'tikai - bet 'arī** in which case **arī** bears a regular stress. In the concrete utterance the simple conjunction **arī** seems to add to the *importance* of the statement.

- 4) **Bet** || kas palīdzēs cilvēkam mainīties? ||  
*But who will help man to change?*

From the point of view of a good style the use of **bet** at the beginning of a sentence is generally not approved. However, in (4) appearing in a separate tone unit and being pronounced with a low fall **bet** focuses the listeners' attention on the following question.

- 5) Tie bija pārsvarā gados jauni cilvēki. ||| **Toties** | šie cilvēki pazina savas tautas tradīciju. ||| **Bet** | varbūt viņi to darīja, | ka vienkārši tā pienākas. ||  
*Mostly they were young people. **But** these people knew the tradition of their nation. **But** probably they did it because it is the right thing to do.*

The speaker's relatively slow tempo and the use of both **bet** and **toties** at the beginning of a sentence implies the speaker's wish to make the point very clear to the audience. This might also be taken as an experienced public speaker's way of involving the listeners in discussing the current matter.

- 6) Tad mēs sasniegtu šo mērķi un varētu palīdzēt citiem, || **bet** tas nenozīmē, | ka šobrīd mums būtu jāšēž klusiem.||

*Then we would achieve this aim and could help others, **but** it does not mean that we need to be silent now.*

**Bet** is used in one and the same tone unit with a verb in the negative form which in somebody else's interpretation might have been treated as the most prominent word. Here it gives an idea of *emphatic contrast* and simultaneously indicates to some hesitation.

- 7) Protams, | tas neatrisinās šo problēmu, || **bet** ? tas būs stimul. || Tas skan naivi, | **bet** || **bet**, | kāpēc ne? **Bet** || varbūt izsludināt, | **ka** Rīgā tiks apmaksāts, | nopirkts dzīvoklis... ||

*Certainly it won't solve this problem **but** it will be a stimulus. It sounds naive, **but, but** why not? **But** probably we should declare **that** a flat will be paid, bought in Riga...*

The repetition of **bet** in this short chunk of utterance first of all suggests that the speaker is trying to formulate his thoughts in the process of speaking. In the first instance **bet** can still be recognized as an indicator of *emphasis for contrast*. However, the following instances with the conjunction in separate tone units and also the prominent relative pronoun **ka** clearly confirm the function of *hesitation*.

- 8) Tas neatbilst teiktajam ? **ne** pēc nozīmes, | **ne** pēc mērķa. ||

*It does not correspond to what has been said **either** in respect of the meaning **or** the aim.*

Here the relatively short tone units with parts of the negative composite conjunction create the effect of precise rhythm in such a way *emphasizing* the negative statement. On the other hand it must be admitted that a non-prominent conjunction in this particular context would make up an equally neat rhythmical pattern.

- 9) Mums jāspēj redzēt ne **tikai** negācijas, || **bet** } arī pozitīvā programma. ||  
*We have to be able to see not **only** negations **but** also the positive programme.*
- 10) Iecerētie pārkārtojumi } **nevis** sekmēs līdzsvarotu attīstību, ||  
 bet gan vērsti sociālās vides degradācijas virzienā. ||  
*The planned reforms will **not** facilitate a balanced development, **instead** (lit. **but**) they are aimed in the direction of the social environment degradation.*

The regular use of the composite conjunction has it unstressed. In (10) by making one part of it prominent the speaker in fact produces a misshaped structure with an illogical accent. It does not contribute very much to specifying one part of the utterance as prominent.

- 11) Visvairāk mēs iegūtu, | **ja** Latvija izdzīvotu. ||  
*We would gain most (of all) **if** Latvia survived.*
- 12) **Ja** Šķēles vietā būtu kāds cits, | es to uztvertu tāpat. ||  
***If** there were somebody else instead of Šķēle I would take it in the same way.*

In both utterances by making the subordinate conditional conjunction prominent the speakers seem to underline the *significance* of what is coming next. In (12) the relative importance appears to be associated with the speaker's personal emotional attitude (it is suggested by mentioning of a person's name).

- 13) Mēs arī nevēlamies, | **lai** nauda, | kuru mēs prasām, | tiktu kādam noņemta. ||  
*We do not want in any way **that** the money we are asking for would be deprived of somebody else.*

This in our opinion is another illustration of a careless approach to expressing one's thoughts. Making **lai** prominent the speaker hardly adds to the presupposed importance; instead the natural flow of speech is distorted.

- 14) Vai tā ir tā pati padomju laiku uzspiesta attieksme, | **vai** | jauna, | brīvprātīga | un tādēļ vēl jo ciniskāka? ||  
*Is it the same Soviet time imposed attitude, **or** is it new, voluntary and consequently even more cynical?*

Appearing in a tone unit of its own and introducing two homogeneous members of the sentence **vai** serves for *contrastive emphasis*.

## B. Relative Pronouns

Relative pronouns registered in the material introduce attributive and objective clauses.

- 15) Šodienas prakse mums vēsta, | **ka**, ||| diemžēl, | minoritāšu skolu veidošanas jautājums | ir atstāts pašu minoritāšu un kultūras biedrību ziņā. ||  
*Today's practice shows **that** unfortunately the problem of the organization of minority schools has been left in hands of the minorities themselves and culture societies.*

**Ka** used in a tone unit of its own signals of both *hesitation* and simultaneous *concentration* on the following piece of information.

- 16) Es personīgi gribu izteikt viedokli, | **ka** ||| deputātam tomēr būtu ||| jābūt tādām, | kuru var atsaukt. ||  
*I personally want to express an opinion **that** a deputy should be someone who could be recalled.*

The falling tone on the relative pronoun with a long pause after it produces even a dramatic effect.

- 17) Jautājums ir tikai par to, | **kā** gudrāk un efektīvāk aizstāvēt šo mazo tautu tiesības. ||  
*The question is only about **how** to protect the rights of these small nations in a smarter and more effective way.*

Here the speaker apparently seeks to attach greater *significance* to the thought expressed in the clause, although the words "gudrāk" and "efektīvāk" already give the necessary weight to the statement.

- 18) Mēs dzīvojam valstī, | **kurā** ir | mainīgi procesi. ||

*We live in a state **where** there are variable processes.*

The prominent relative pronoun and an extra pause in the short utterance distinctly point to hesitation.

- 19) Un mēs domājam, || **kas** mēs esam, | **kā** mums rīkoties, || **kas**  
ir patiesi svarīgākais, | vērtīgākais manā dzīvē... |||  
Kas tad ir pats svarīgākais? ||| Tas, | **kas** esmu es pats, | tas, ||  
**kāds** esmu es pats. ||

*And we are thinking **who** we are, **how** we should act,  
**what** really is the most important, valuable in my life  
Well, what is the most important? It is **who** I am myself,  
(it is) **what** I am like.*

The syntactic structure that includes homogeneous subordinate clauses introduced by prominent relative pronouns provides also an effective rhythmical structure. The speaker deliberately chooses to repeat the same words, and it also contributes to the effect of *emphasis*.

- 20) Neviena no ministrijām nav iesniegusi aprēķinus, | **cik** valsts  
budžetā nepieciešams, | lai palielinātu minimālo algu. ||  
*Not a single ministry has submitted their calculations **how**  
**much** it is necessary to have in the state budget to enlarge  
the minimal salary.*

The negative information included in the utterance is made all the more *prominent* by accenting the pronoun. **Cik** appears to be the key word not only because of its lexical meaning but also following its role in balancing rhythm.

### C. Prepositions

Prepositions seem to belong to those grammatical words that are rarely made prominent. The material for analysis has six cases fixed out of which only in two the listeners are suggested a kind of attention being drawn to the following piece of information (21, 22). However, it may be partially understood just as hesitation.

21) Ļoti grūti nostāties ir | **pa** | vidu. ||  
*It is very difficult not to take sides (lit. to come in **between**).*

22) Tagad | **par** deputātiem valsts uzņēmumu un banku padomēs. ||  
*Now **about** deputies in state business and bank councils.*

The preposition **ar** (23) pronounced with a high fall in a rather imposing manner introduces an enumeration that in the speaker's view cannot be missed.

23) Pirmām kārtām tas saistītos }`**ar**: || zemnieku jautājuma izstrādi; || (utt.)  
*In the first place it would be connected **with**: working out of the farmers' question... (etc.)*

In (24) and (25) the prominent prepositions together with the pausation signal of *hesitation* so that the speaker can choose the most appropriate word.

24) Viņi domā tikai **par** | šo te | muskuļu masu, | kas jāuzaudzē. ||  
*They are thinking only **about** this mass of muscles they have to grow.*

25) Krievija to, protams, | uztvers || **kā** | izaicinājumu. ||  
*Russia will certainly take it **as** challenge.*

26) Mēs esam virzījuši savu skatu **uz** | NATO. ||  
*We have been looking **in the direction of** NATO.*

(26) passes as an illustration of making part of an utterance prominent for no particular reason. What follows the preposition **uz** cannot be a word that has just sprung to the speaker's mind.

## D. Particles

Particles in contrast to other grammatical words in standard Latvian are more closely linked with accent. There are particles that are a) always accented, b) never accented, c) accented or unaccented (MLLVG, 1959:780).

Out of the rich set of this category only three were registered as accented.

The particle **vai** when introducing a question is usually unstressed. In (27) and (28) the speaker has made it prominent.

- 27) **Vai** | pēc neatkarības atgūšanas | šis budžets | ir bijis citāds | nekā izspiests citroni? ||  
*Has this budget after the reestablishment of independence been anything else but a squeezed-out lemon?*

The tempo being deliberately slowed down as can be seen from pauses implies the *significance* of the whole question. **Vai** just fits in conveniently in this emphatic design.

- 28) **Vai** | šobrīd, | jūsuprāt, | situāciju spēj ietekmēt tas, | kas notiek ar valdības veidošanu? ||  
*Is it possible in your opinion that the present situation be effected by what is happening with the formation of the government?*

Here the use of **vai** is quite similar to (27), except that apart from focusing the listeners' attention to the topic itself there is an implication to the interviewer's personal view on the matter.

The limiting particle **tikai** belongs to particles with a variable stress factor. In (29) its prominence is obviously directed to *emphasis*.

- 29) Finansējums pagaidām skar **tikai** mainīgo daļu. ||  
*Financing for the time being regards **only** its changeable part.*

The particle **lai** is usually unaccented. In (30) the effect of *emphasis* is connected with certain criticism, even irony.

- 30) Tad **lai** šī vienotā valsts novērtēšanas sistēma novērtē, | kur ir labāk sagatavoti bērni. ||  
*Then **let** this united state assessment system declare **where** there are better prepared children.*

No real difference was discovered in the two analysed discourse modes in terms of the speaker's and/or reader's strategies that would have function words prominent. The most obvious reason for singling them

out is the speaker's wish to emphasize the following piece of the utterance. There are instances when the speaker seeks to contrast some thought or fact with another in a different chunk of discourse. Besides, prominent function words indicate hesitation, mostly to formulate the thought.

There is also a possibility that prominence, as it appears in some cases, is not directly connected with communicative purposes. Slowing down the tempo and filling the pause with a stressed conjunction or preposition may be due to a momentary loss of thought or just missing the right line on the paper. There are instances where prominent function words add to the rhythmical effect of the utterance. Among the particular subgroups of the function words analysed it seems that prominent conjunctions are especially favoured. In a few cases the natural flow of speech has been distorted because of the speaker's inconsiderate choice of prominence that hardly bears any explanation at all.

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## K.Firekera devums latviešu leksikogrāfijā

“Mūsu rakstniecības tēvi Mancelis, Glūks (1), Stenders nav tikai rakstnieki, bet vīri, kas nes dažādus atbildīgus amata pienākumus, ieņemdami nozīmīgus, pat augstus amatus, pie kam viņu mūžs un mūža darbs cieši saistās ar tēvuzemes likteņiem. Līdz ar to par šiem vīriem netrūkst ziņu. Citādi tas ir ar Fūrekeru. Šī izņēmuma stāvokļa dēļ Fūrekeru mūžs tinas miglas plīvuri” tā 1928. gadā par Kristoforu Firekeru rakstīja L.Bērziņš (Bērziņš, 1928:801) (2).

Tomēr arī par Kristoforu Fūrekeru šis tas ir zināms. Dzimis ap 1615.gadu Neretas mācītāja Kristiāna Fūrekeru ģimenē. No 1632.gada studējis teoloģiju Tērbatas universitātē. Strādājis par mājskolotāju Pienavas muižā, vēlāk Džūkstē. Apprecējis latvieti un dzīvojis un strādājis Dobelē, bet, kā minēts enciklopēdijā “Latviešu rakstniecība biogrāfijās” (Latviešu rakstniecība biogrāfijās, 1992:104) (3), mūža beigās pavadījis Tukumā vai Slokā. L.Bērziņš gan raksta: “Tā nu ar Dobeli saistās arī Fūrekeru slavas mirdzums. Bet tālāk atkal ceļa nezina. Ir mums Adolfs atstātās ziņas par to, ka Fūrekeram radušies noslēpumaini kavēkļi; ka viņš pats iekritis slimības gultā, līdz beidzot miris” (Bērziņš, 1928:12) (4). Tas varēja būt bijis ap 1684. vai 1685.gadu.

Lielākais, līdz šim atzītais K.Fūrekeru ieguldījums ir literatūrā, proti, viņš iedibinājis latviešu sillabotoniskās dzejas tradīcijas, sacerējis garīgās dziesmas, tulkojis reformācijas laika garīgo dzeju (M.Luters, P.Gerhards).

K.Fūrekeru devums valodniecībā, sevišķi latviešu leksikogrāfijā, līdz šim nav pietiekami novērtēts. Viens no iemesliem varētu būt tas, ka viņš savus valodnieciskos darbus tā arī neieraudzīja iespiestā veidā savas dzīves laikā, tie neparādījās atklātībā arī tuvāko trīs simt gadu laikā, jo, kā raksta Ādolfs: “Pa slimības laiku neuzticamas rokas izvazājušas viņa rakstus” un “Tai laikā nāca starpā visādi kavēkļi, ko

mēs tagad nevaram pieminēt, tā ka daudz gadiem vajadzēja aiziet, tomēr katķisms, Zālamana sakāmi vārdi un Zīraka gudrības grāmata tulkojumā, kā arī pilnīga lūgšanu grāmata nevarēja kļūt gatava, līdz viņš, Fūreķera kgs, beidzot valodu un roku triekā pazaudējis, bij piespiests no šī darba gluži atstāties" (Bērziņš, 1928:12) (5). Tomēr, lai arī nepublicēts, viņa valodnieciskais devums nebija mazs, jo kā norāda U.Cimmermanis darbā "Versuch einer Geschichte der lettischen Literatur": "Er war aber auch zugleich der erste, welcher darauf Bedacht nahm, die lettische Sprache auf bestimmte, in sich selbst begründete Regeln zurückzuführen. Er verfertigte die ersten gereimten lettischen Kirchengesänge, und hinterließ ein lettisches Wörterbuch in der Handschrift und, ebenso wie die lettische Sprachlehre, welche sich nur auf die Deklinationen und Konjugationen beschränkte, nie gedruckt worden ist" (Zimmermann, 1812:29) (6). K.Fireķera izstrādātā gramatika, vai pareizāk sakot šis deklināciju un konjugāciju apskats, tiek iepludināts H.Adolfija gramatikā "Erster Versuch einer kurz verfassten Anleitung zur lettischen Sprache" kas nāk klajā Jelgavā, 1685.gadā (Grīse, 1958:245-256; Grabis, 1955:5-22) (7), kā arī iespējams G.Drešļa gramatikā "Gantz kurze Anleitung Zur Lettischen Sprache", kas tiek izdota tai pašā gadā Rīgā (Draviņš, 1965:83-114; Fennells, 1995:121-127) (8). Diemžēl H.Adolfijs savā gramatikā atmet K.Fireķera izstrādāto racionālo grafētiku, kur garie patskaņi un šņāceņi apzīmēti pārsvītrotot burta kājiņū.

Bet lasītāji, varbūt pareizāk pētnieki, vārdnīcu ierauga pēc vairāk nekā 300 gadu ilgā manuskripta perioda, pateicoties LZA ārzemju locekļa T.G.Fennela uzņēmībai un ieguldītājiem līdzekļiem. Tagad šī vārdnīca ir pieejama katram interesentam, pie kam jāatzīmē T.G.Fennela godbijīgā attieksme pret manuskriptu, jo publicējot tiek norādīts katrs citā rokrakstā izdarīts labojums un katrs svītrojums.

Ir saglabājušies divi vārdnīcas manuskripti:

- 1 LETTISCHES UND TEUTSCHES WÖRTERBUCH ZUSAHMEN GESCHRIEBEN UND MIT FLEIß GESAMLET VON CHRISTOPHER FÜRECKER (Fennell, 1997:320) (9);

2. CHRISTOPH FÜRECKERS CANDIDAT DES PREDIGTAMS IN KURLAND LETTISCH-DEUTSCHEN WÖRTERBUCHS erster theil A-P un CHRISTOPH FÜRECKERS CANDIDAT DES PREDIGTAMS IN KURLAND LETTISCH-DEUTSCHEN WÖRTERBUCHS zweiter Theil R-Z (Fennell, 1998:382) (10).

Šie abi ir vienas vārdnīcas divi manuskripti, ko pārrakstījuši dažādi cilvēki. Domājams, ka pirmā manuskripta sākuma un beigu daļas pārrakstītājs ir bijis G.Dreselis, bet pirmā manuskripta vidus daļas un otrā manuskripta pārrakstītājs Ikšķiles mācītājs L.Kanenbergs. Pirmajā manuskriptā vārdi vēl nav pilnīgi sakārtoti pēc alfabēta. Viena burta robežās alfabētiskais kārtojums atsākas no jauna trīs un pat četras reizes. Otrs manuskripts ir sakārtots pēc alfabēta, papildināts ar jauniem vārdiem, reizēm arī grozīta rakstība. Vērojamas arī pārrakstīšanās kļūdas (Zemzare, 1961:73-83) (11).

Bieži ir izskanējušas šaubas par to, vai K.Fīrekers ir vārdnīcas autors. Par K.Fīrekeru kā vārdnīcas autoru liek domāt šādi fakti:

1. Rūjienas mācītāja G.Bergmaņa uzraksts uz otrā manuskripta: "*Christoph Füreckers Candidat des Predigtams in Kurland lettisch - deutschen Wörterbuchs*" (12).
2. Manuskriptos vietām neizlabotā K.Fīrekerā rakstība - ar pārsvītrotu burta kājiņu.
3. K.Fīrekerā labā latviešu valodas prasme, ko apliecina H.Ādolfija piezīmes: "Es ļoti sev par labu [latviešu valodu mācīdamies] izlietoju nelaiķa Kristoforu Fūrekerā kgu, svētu rakstu studiosu, kas nevien pamatvalodās un teoloģijā bij darījis kas nākas, bet visvairāk, čakli pakaļ pētīdams, bij ieguvis itin neparastu prašanu latviešu valodā" (Bērziņš, 1928:8) (13). "Itin kā citas valodas ar mācītu prātiņu čaklu pārdomāšanu pamazām ir vestas uz daudz labāku pilnību, nekā viņās priekš seniem laikiem vispārīgi ir bijušas lietojamas, tā ir atgadījies arī ar latviešu valodu, ka Jūsū augstdzimīgās Spodrības bijušais zemesbērns un pavalstnieks, Christoptorus Fūreccerus, svētu rakstu māceklis, ir bijis īpaši čakls, krietni iemanīties latviešu valodas pazišanās, kas viņam ar ir pašķīries vairāk nekā daudz citiem, tā ka viņš ne tikai smalki novērojis latviešu izloksni, labi

noklausījies viņu frazeoloģiju, bet arī sakrājis daudz skaistas piezīmes" (Bērziņš, 1928:11) (14).

4. Vārdnīcas pamatleksika nāk no ļoti seniem laikiem, jo Bībeles un Dziesmu grāmatas vārdu krājums te vēl nav vai ir ļoti maz iestrādāts.
5. Vārdnīcas tekstā vairākkārt sastopami norādījumi uz Kurzemi un Zemgali, kas liecina, ka autoram ir bijusi tuva Kurzemes hercogistes teritorija.
6. 17.gs. autoru atsauces uz K.Firekera darbiem, piemēram, G.Dreselis 1685.gada izdevuma "Ganz kurtze Anleitung Zur Lettischen Sprache" priekšvārdā raksta, ka plāno izdot K.Firekera darbus, t.sk., vārdnīcu: "Geliebt's Gott, so dürsste wohl ehstens mein so genanter vollkommener Lettus worinnen alle das sehl. Hn. Füreckers Sachen, die so wohl allbereit am Tage liegen, als die noch bis dato verborgen, nebst einem Lexico enthalten sehn, solgen" (15).

Tātad, nešaubīdamies par K.Firekeru kā šo manuskriptu autoru, varam novērtēt viņa ieguldījumu latviešu leksikogrāfijā.

Kristofors Firekers bija pirmais, kas sagatavoja tulkojošo vārdnīcu ar latviešu valodu pirmajā aktīvajā daļā. Jāpiebilst gan, ka ar iespējamo K.Firekera nāves gadu - 1685 - datēta arī Langjija Latviešu-vācu vārdnīca, kas publicēta tikai 1936.gadā (Blese, 1936) (16). Nav zināms, vai K.Firekeram bija pieejamas Rietumeiropā izdotās vārdnīcas, kuru skaits līdz ar J.Gūtenberga grāmatu iespiešanas izgudrojumu 15.gs. strauji pieauga. 15.gs. beigās un 16.gs. sākumā bija radīts visu lielo Eiropas valodu pamatfonds ar latīņu valodu aktīvajā un pasīvajā daļā (Zaunmüller, 1958) (17). Rietumeiropas 16.un 17.gs. leksikogrāfijas centrā Parīzē bija iespīestas pirmās skaidrojošās latīņu un franču valodas vārdnīcas, piemēram, R.Etjēna (R.Estienne) *Thesaurus linguae latinae* 1531, Ž.Niko (J.Nicot) *Thresor de la langue françoise...* 1606. Ir zināms, ka K.Firekers bija labi apguvis latīņu un sengrieķu valodu, bet kuras no iznākušajām vārdnīcām bija sastopamas Tērbatā un Rīgā? To var tikai minēt. Mūsu kaimiņi lietuvieši var lepoties ar agrāk - 1620.gadā - sastādītu trīsvalodu vārdnīcu K.Sirvīda "Dictionarium trium linguarum" (Zinkevičius, 1988:246-266; Sirvydo, 1997:572)

(18), bet pirmā vārdnīca ar lietuviešu valodu aktīvajā daļā bija F.V.Haka "Vocabularium lituanico-Germanicum et germanico-lituanicum", kas nāca klajā Hallē 1730. gadā un kurā bija iekļauti tikai Jaunajā Derībā un psalmos lietotie vārdi (Kabelka, 1982:126) (19).

Atgriežoties pie K.Fīrekera vārdnīcas, jāsecina, ka tam laikam tā ir liels leksikogrāfisks sasniegums. Tādēļ ieskatam vārdnīcas vērtējums pēc galvenajiem leksikogrāfiskajiem kritērijiem, proti, pēc vārdu atlases, šķirkļu kārtojuma, skaidrojumu izveides, leksikogrāfiskajām norādēm, sinonīmijas, polisēmijas un homonīmijas šķīruma.

## Vārdu atlase

Šķiet, ka K.Fīrekera savā vārdnīcas manuskriptā iekļāvis visus zināmos latviešu valodas vārdus. Manuskripta leksēmu skaits būtu rēķināms gan pēc šķirkļu skaita, gan pēc kopējā leksēmu skaita, resp., šķirkļa vārdu un ligzdā iekļauto vārdu kopskaita.

Otrā manuskripta leksēmu skaits - 3000-3500 (6000-7500).

Par to, cik plaša leksika iekļauta vārdnīcā, labāk var spriest pēc kādas tematiskās grupas atspoguļojuma vārdnīcā. Ieskatam no pirmā manuskripta ekscerpētā apģērba leksika.

Vārdnīcā nav iespējams šķirt vīriešu un sieviešu apģērba (to nepieļauj tulkojošo vārdnīcu specifika), taču ir izdalāmas vairākas apģērba nosaukumu tematiskās grupas:

1. **Vispārīnātie apģērba nosaukumi:** *Apgehrbs* – *Kleidung* Fir.I 81, *Drahna*, *drahnas* – *Kleid*, *Tuch*, *Pahr*=*mihjamas drahnas*, *Gohdu*, *Swehtku drahnas* – *feyer Kleider*. *Laiku drahnas* Fir.I 63, *Drehbe*, *drehbes* – *Kleid* Fir.I 63, *Appaksch*=*drahnas* – *daß unterkleid* Fir.I 11.
2. **Virsdrebes:** *Tuhba* – *filtz*, *filtzmantel* Fir.I 290, *Pahr mats*, *pahrmatti*, *pahrmuzzi*, *Ap*=*mutschi* – *ein über wurff*, *über Rock über decke*. *Auch wohl ein Mantel Palt - oder Regen=Rook* Fir.I 188.
3. **Pamatapģērbs:** *Uhsas* – *hosen* Fir.I 292, *Bikse*, *Bikses* – *hooßen*, *büchsen* Fir.I 50, *lindraks* – *ein leinen*, *oder lein*=*wand Rock*, *Audeklu Swahrks* Fir.I 129.

4. **Galvas un plecu segas: Auts** – ein tuch, Galwas=auts – Ein haupt tuch Fir.I 25, **Sakumts auts** Ein über ein ander gewickeltes Tuch, ein fuß Tuch Fir.I 255, **Bannitis** – Ein kleines Mützchen Fir.I 38, **willane** – eine wepe Fir.I 308, **Wihpole** – eine kleine wepe, über deke Cur., pamawe Sem. Fir.I 299, **Zeppure** – ein hut, Seemas zeppure – eine mütze, Plikka zeppure – ein hut, Mallam atseeta in atlohzita zeppure – ein auffgeschlagener, auffgekrümpfter hut, ein hut mit der Krümpfe Fir.I 317, **Wainaks** – ein Krantz oder bändel. Wie die baur mägde tragen Fir.I 294.

5. **Apavi: Sabaks** – ein Stieffel Fir.I 211.

6. **Cimdi un zeķes: Cimds** – ein handschuch, Duhraimi Cimdi – däumlinge, Plaukstoni – faustlinge Fir.I 314, **Seetauas** – die fuß=Tücher umb die Waaden, Kahjajs Kahjas auti – sind die fuß=blats=Tücher. Apkillas Cur. Fir.I 242, **Apauas, Kahjas=auti** – fuhstücher. Seetauas – die beinling, wahden tücher Fir.I 25.

7 **Aksesuāri: Johsta** – Ein gürtel Fir.I 94, **Sakta** – Eine breeze Fir.I 255.

8. **Apģērba detaļas: Apkakle** – Ein halb hembde, Kragen Fir.I 11, **Peedroksne** – ein Ermel. Peedroksne. Peedrukne. Fir.I 180, **Kabata, Klintze** – fubsack, Schnibsack Fir.I 95, **Schņore** – Schnüre, da man die Kleider mit besetzt Fir.I 238, **Pasaini** – bänder, Schnürchen. Linten hosen bänder Fir.I 182, **Preewite, apsehja** – ein hosen=band Fir.I 176, **Krokas** – die Kraken, falten Fir.I 106, **Paķelle** – das hosen band Fir.I 182, **Stehrbele** – das unterste vom rock oder hosen. Der Stooß, Saum Fir.I 264, **Kņohpe** – Knopff, Haak am Rock Fir.I 111

## Šķirkļu kārtojums

Šķirkļu kārtojumā izmantots alfabētiskais princips ar iekšējo ligzdas principu, taču tas ir visai nosacīts. Piemēram, Firekera vārdnīcas pirmajā manuskriptā ir izdalīts šķirklis **mels**.

**Mels, Meln.** schwarz. Eemelnš schwarzlich. Melle= nes. Schwarzte heidel=beeren. **Alij.** Zuhzenes Misenes **idem.** Meln=Plauki. das schwarzte Korn, brand=Korn, so im Roggen wächst. Fir.I 160.

Šeit vienā šķirkļa ligzdā kārtots: 1) pamatvārds un tās pašas vārdšķiras piedēklvārds (*meln-s-iemeln-s*), 2) citas vārdšķiras atvasinājumi ar piedēkļiem un salikteņi (*meln-s-mellenes*, *meln-plauki*), 3) ligzdas kāda vārda sinonīmi (*mellenes-cūcenes*, *misenes*).

Otrajā manuskriptā jau izdalīti divi šķirkļi **meln-s** un **mellenes**.

**Meln-s, Meln.** *schwarz.*

Eemeln-s *schwarz=licht.* Fir.II 185

**Mellenes.** *Schwarz=heidel=beeren.* Alij. Zuhzenes  
Misenes *idem.* Meln=Plauki, *das schwarzte Korn  
brand=Korn, so im Korn ist u. wächst.* Fir.II 185.

Abos manuskriptos ir plaši šķirkļi ar ligzdā iekļautiem piedēklverbiem, piemēram, **addikle.**

**Addikle Addamais.** *Das Knütt=Werck.*

Aisaddiht. *zuknütten, das Versäumete  
wieder=holen, ersetzen*

Eeaddiht *einknütten, den Anfang ein  
Knütten.*

Isaddiht. *außknütten.*

Noaddiht. *abknütten endigen*

Pa=addiht. *ein Wenig knütten.*

Pahr=addiht, *über=knütten. (knütten)*

Pee=addiht, *an - mit - knütten, genug*

Kaut gan addijis, *winnas ne weens warr*

peeaddiht. *Man knütte (so viel man wolle)  
gleich genug, so kann man ihnen doch  
nicht genug knütten.*

Sa=addiht, *zusammen knütten*

Reds, ko es Sekku esmu sa=addijis  
*Siehe was für ein Hauffen Strümpffe  
habe ich geknüttet.*

Usaddiht. *Auff=knütten.* Us=addi wehl

*weenu Kahrtnu. Knütte noch ein  
Strümpfflein auff.* Fir.II 9.

Šeit šķirkļa ligzdā ar piedēkli atvasinātam substantīvam pakārtoti visi ar piedēkli atvasinātie verbi, taču nav fiksēts primārais verbs *adīt*. Nākošajā šķirklī ievietots verbs *additees* ar refleksīvo nozīmi skaidrojumā, bet primāro nozīmi ilustratīvajā materiālā.

## Skaidrojuma izvēle

Vārdnīcas manuskriptos izmantoti divi galvenie skaidrojuma principi tulkojošais un enciklopēdiskais (un/vai lingvistiskais). Biežāk izmantots tulkojošais princips ar šādām modifikācijām:

latviešu valodas viennozīmes vārdam atbilst viennozīmes vācu tulkojums, piemēram,

**Kamene**, *ein humel* Fir.II 127,

**Sahbaks** *ein Stieffel* Fir.II 251;

latviešu valodas polisēmiskam vārdam atbilst polisēmisks vācu vārds, piemēram,

**Balts, a**, *weiß* Fir.II 43,

**Doht** *geben* Fir.II 73;

polisēmiskajam latviešu vārdam atbilst divi vai vairāki monosēmiski vai polisēmiski vācu vārdi, piemēram,

**Mehle**. *die Zunge. Sprache* Fir.II 185,

**Laiwa**. *ein boot. Schiff.* Fir.II 161,

**Kult**. *prügeln, schlagen, klopfen, dreschen Kohbern.* Fir.II 154.

Paralēli tulkojošajam tiek lietots arī enciklopēdiskais un/vai filoloģiskais skaidrojuma princips (ņemot vērā, ka minētā vārdnīca ir tulkojošā, šis skaidrojums tiek dots vācu valodā) etnogrāfisko reāliju, augu, atsevišķu abstraktu jēdzienu u.c.diferencēšanai, piemēram,

**Wainaks**. *ein Krantz oder Bündel, wie die baur=Mägde tragen.* Fir.II 345,

**pipenes** *ein Kraut mit gelben blumen, blühet frü im VorJahr, die bauren [sagen,] von des blüüt soll lehpas. Hufflattig wachsen, welches falsch, Er blühet vorJahr ohne blätter, nach der blüt, u. stengel kommen erst die blätter, da her Stengel u. blätter Nimmer zu sammen zu finden* Fir.I 190,



**Nuihjineeks** ein Schmarutzer, ein ungebetener der mit einem Prügel des Abends=komt Fir.II 202,

**Lahma** eine Niedrigung, da gut Korn u. Graß wächst Fir. II 161,

**Jummis, Jummitis**, Zwei an ein ander gewachsene Ahren. Fir.II 124.

Atsevišķos gadījumos blakus vāciskajam skaidrojumam dots arī latīniskais skaidrojums, piemēram,

**Durstiht.** haesitare, confundere. Stecken bleiben, zweifeln, sich irren. Fir.II 88,

**Dsihwiba**, das leben. Vita. Fir.II 85,

**Luhshana** das brechen. Actus ipse. Fir.II 177

### Leksikogrāfiskās norādes

Vārdnīcas manuskriptus papildina daudz un dažādas leksikogrāfiskās norādes. Ir mēģināts ar norāžu sistēmu dot maksimālu papildinformāciju par šķirkļa vārda un/vai ligzdas vārda izplatību, cilmi, piederību noteiktai vārdšķirai u.tml. Visas izmantotās norādes nosacīti var iedalīt vairākās grupās.

1 Norādes uz leksēmas izplatības areālu. Tās gan aprobežojas tikai ar norādēm Kurzemē un Zemgalē, vietām otrajā manuskriptā arī Lietuvā (un ar "citu roku" rakstītās arī Cēsis, Rīgā u.c.). Šīs lingvoģeogrāfiskās norādes ir atspoguļotas ar saīsinājumiem Curl. Cur. Semgal., Semg., Sem. Litthu., Lithu. piemēram,

**kakts** ein winkel. Danga Curl. Fir.II 126

**Kenseke**, der Schib, fupsack Semg. Klintze. Curl. Fir.II 133

**Mets** eine Jahr=Zeit. Litthu. & Curl. Fir.II 189

**Pawalgs** Zugemüse zum brod à Lithu. Fir.II 209

**Pluhkstis.** Sem. F alij. Pluhkschni. pl. Fir.II 222

**Reddeles.** Curl. pl. eine Treppe. leiter.

Semgal. Pferde. rōfen, rauffen. Fir.II 241

**Bangas.** tahs. Cur. Wellen. v.p. Fir.II 50

Vietām ir līdz galam neizstrādātas (pat ar vienu burtu apzīmētas) vietas norādes, piemēram, im Wenden, im Wend., w. **Belsens.** n. hieb im Wend. v. belst. p. 63 Fir.II 54.

2. Etimoloģiskās norādes. Divvalodu vārdnīcu mērķis nav sniegt ziņas par vārdu cilmi, taču senās latviešu-vācu vārdnīcas it kā "iziet ārpus" noteiktiem mērķiem un uzdevumiem, tādēļ tajās ir rodamas arī etimoloģiskās ziņas, kas gan K.Firekera vārdnīcā aprobežojas tikai ar norādi uz ģermānismiem. Par ģermānismiem pamatoti atzīti daudzi pazīstami, agrāk lietoti vārdi, kuru vietā mūsdienās stājušies mantoti vai no citām valodām aizgūti vārdi, piemēram,

**Bahdmohdere.** *eine Baadmutter* Germ. Fir.II 40

**Ehlende.** Germ. Nabbagu Nams *ein Arm hauß.* Fir.II 91

**Lattes.** pl. *Latten.* Germ. Fir.II 162

**Rikts.** Germ. *Ein Gericht an eßen* etc. Fir.II 245

**Werwe** Werwes pl. Germ. *die farbe* Fir.II 358

3. Gramatiskās norādes. Viens no tulkojošo vārdnīcu svarīgākajiem uzdevumiem ir sniegt ziņas par aktīvās un pasīvās valodas gramatisko sistēmu, jo kā norāda J.Valdmanis "īpaši tulkojošajās vārdnīcās vārda sintaktisko īpašību ignorēšana, vārda lietojuma nepilnīga atklāšana, manuprāt, ir būtisks trūkums, jo tieši uz šīm īpašībām pamatojas teikumu un citu sazināšanās vienību izveide. Tā kā tulkojošā vārdnīca ir domāta ne tikai teksta dekodēšanai, bet, kā zināms, ir paredzēta arī kā instruments teksta veidošanai "labās puses" valodā, tad tulkojošā vārdnīca ar minētajiem trūkumiem nespēj pilnībā veikt vienu no savām divām funkcijām" (Valdmanis, 1997: 47-48) (20). K.Firekers lieliski iesāka gramatisko kategoriju atspoguļojumu, taču diemžēl konsekventi to neievēroja. Vārdnīcas abos manuskriptos vērojami šādu morfoloģisko kategoriju atspoguļojuma iedīgļi:

- skaitļa, piemēram,

**Lattes.** pl. *Latten.* Germ. Fir.II 162

**Klihjas, Kleyen.** *furfur - pl.* Fir.II 140

- locījuma, piemēram,

**Kehwe,** *Kehwite eine Stutte.* Gen.pl. Kehwju

*Kehw=puppi Morcheln.* Fir.II 134

**Kahrt** Praep. Cum Acc. *umb.* Kahrt wakarū, *umb*

*den abend.* Fir.II 129

**Eeksch.** praep. cum Genit. Acc. & Abl. Gr. 239. *in.* Fir.II 91

- vārdšķiras, piemēram,  
**Is. Praep. auß, ent**, is Semmes. vid. Gr. p. 240. Fir.II 123  
**gremst murren**. gremtscha. subst. Fir.II 111  
**Glehws**, Glehwis. *Lohj. ein Lohjer*, Glehwi. adverb. Fir.II 105  
**Da. particula.** da=eet. dalikt. Fir.II 68
- laika, piemēram,  
**Guldsitees**, *sich brechen, übergeben, speyen.* Praes.  
 Es guldschs, ka winsch guldsijahs, *wie würgete er sich.* Fir.II 114  
**Eeraudsiht**, *ersehen*, es eeraugu. Eeraudsi=  
 gu. imperf. Fir.II 92  
**Dehkla=Laima.** *die Wiegen, Geburts Göttin.* Ka  
 tam Zilwehkam | tai Seewai Dehkla=laimē  
 nolehmusi, un nolikkusi, ta winsch | winna: |  
 mirris | mirrusi fut. mirs. Fir.II 71
- dzimtes, piemēram,  
**Dabba.** *f. die Natur. Art. beschaffenheit.*  
 nikna dabba. *böse art.* Fir.II 68  
**Bars.** n. *Menge.* *Curl. im Wend.* bars. gen. baṛṛa. Fir.II 50  
**Bebris** m. *ein bieber - bebra kahrkli Hinschkraut.* Fir.II 51
- deklinācijas, piemēram,  
**Wehsts.** 6. Decl. f. *die bottschaft* Fir.II 359  
**Rinde.** *eine Reihe, Reige.* vid. Exod. 28. 17. f. 4. decl. Fir.II 245
- formas - deminutīva, piemēram,  
**Ahbols** *der Apfel.* Ahboliſch. dimin. Fir.II 6  
**Ammatneezinsch.** Dim. Fir.II 16.

4. Latiniskās norādes. Vārda nozīmes, gramatisko kategoriju un citu lingvistisko un ekstralingvistisko parādību atspoguļošanai nereti tiek izmantotas latīņu valodā rakstītas norādes, kuras iedalāmas vairākās grupās:

- vārdu nozīmes vāciskajam skaidrojumam paralēls latīniskais skaidrojums, piemēram,  
**Kirshta** *eine Eydex.* Lacerta. Fir.II 171

**Leeka Seewa.** *ein Kehbs=Weib. Concubina.* Fir.II 165  
**Padohms,** *ein Schatz. it. ein Raht Consilium.* Fir.II 204

- valodniecisko terminu lietojums latīņu valodā, piemēram,  
**No Praep.reg.Abl. von, auß, ab,** Gr.p. 241 no  
*bikkera auß dem Kelch. noluhgt. abbitten.* Fir.II 201  
**Ohlekts f. die Elle. Gen.pl.** Ohlekschu. *der Ellen.* Fir.II 203
- ekstralingvistisko sāsinājumu lietojums latīņu valodā, piemēram,  
**Alksnis. m. ein Ellenbaum.**  
Alksnitis *idem.* Fir.II 13  
**Leekt. beugen,** *apleekt. abbeugen. unde*  
*leezinis ein Külmet. von dinnen holtz*  
*zusamen gebeugt, pee Seemes noleek=*  
*tees sich zur Erden nieder=beugen, neigen*  
*bücken.* Fir.II 164  
**Maksaht, zahlen, etc.** Fir.II 179

5. Kā savdabīgas norādes jāmin arī sasaiste ar 17.gs. tekstiem, gramatikām u.c. lingvistiskajiem pētījumiem. Leksikogrāfisko izdevumu uzdevums ir atspoguļot valodas gramatiskās sistēmas likumsakarības vārdnīcas ietvaros, nevis veikt sasaisti ar esošajām gramatikām un citiem izdevumiem ar tiešām norādēm. Tā kā šīs piezīmes parasti ir rakstītas ar citu roku manuskriptu malās, var domāt, ka tās arī nebija iecerētas kā vārdnīcas sastāvdaļa, drīzāk gan kā gramatikas autoru vai valodas apguvēju individuālas piezīmes, jo avotu saraksts dots ar sāsinājumiem, kuri nav atšifrēti, tādēļ ne vienmēr ir precīzi nosakāms konkrētais teksts, gramatika u.tml. Bieži avotu sāsinājumiem ir pievienotas arī citas norādes, atsevišķos gadījumos, šķiet, ir fiksētas tikai lappuses vai paragrāfi, piemēram,

Dagglaina Wista. *ist nicht recht, sondern raiba. vid. Manc. Vad. Mec praefat:* avj.(?) fac. 6.lin. 10 dagglains *wird von denen bunten streifigten ferkeln gebraucht.* Fir.II 78

Kungs. *der Herr,* 1 decl. in Bibl. Lettic. Deut. 18. v. 3. Fir.II 153  
Labbā labbad Praepos. post. cum Genit. *wegen etc. Gr. 240.* fine  
Fir.II 158.

## Homoniēmija un polisēmija

Teorētiski un praktiski valodnieki polisēmijas un homoniēmijas problēmu sāk apzināt leksikogrāfijas attīstības trešajā posmā, kas Eiropā sākās 18.gs. un kam raksturīga dažādu vārdnīcu, t.sk. skaidrojošo izveide. K.Firekers polisēmijas un homoniēmijas šķirumu mēģinājis risināt intuitīvi. Viņa vārdnīcas manuskriptos homonīmi netiek šķirti vai arī tie tiek šķirti nenorādot uz to, piemēram, pirmajā manuskriptā homonīmi *lauks* ievietoti pat dažādās lappusēs

**lauks** *eine bleiße am Pferde*. Sirgs ar lauku peerā? *eine blesse* Fir.I  
125 **lauks** *feld*. lauka oder mescha Semme *Streuland, busch land, das nicht ans feld reichet* Fir.I 139.

Otrajā manuskriptā homonīmi *dzelt* novietoti blakus dažādos šķirkļos

**Dselt**. Neut. *schreyen, brennen, wie ein Neßel*.

Nahtra pawassari atsehlusi tudahl  
dsell. *die Nessel brennet so bald sie sich herfür gethan im frūling.*

Manni ne=dsejll, kaut man gan  
dseldejs. *mich brennets nicht, ob du mich gleich genug schreyest.* Fir.II 81

**Dselt**. *grünen*. vid. Selt Fir.II 81.

Uz vārdu polisēmiju norāda:

1) tulkojums ar polisēmisku vārdu, piemēram,

**Eet**. *gehen*. Fir.II 94

**Raisiht**. *lösen*. Fir.II 236

2) tulkojums ar divām vai vairākām nesinonīmiskām leksēmām, piemēram,

**Panta** *eine Reige. Glied. Ordnung*. Fir.II 207

**Rohta**. *Schmuck, Zierde. Lieberey, Zeichen*. Fir.II 247

**Meesa**, *Meesas*. pl. *der Leib, das fleisch*. Meesiņas. idem. Fir.II 186

## Ilustratīvais materiāls

K.Firekera vārdnīcas manuskriptos leksēmu nozīmes palīdz atklāt ilustratīvais materiāls. Tā izvēlē, šķiet, ka izmantots princips - iekļaut visu, kas vārdnīcas autoram ir zināms vai pierakstīts.

Manuskriptos tādējādi iekļauti daudzi tautā dzirdēti teicieni, piemēram,  
 Sagļam Sagļa alga, *Ein dib be komt diebisch lohn*. Fir.I 254 (sub voce **Sagt**)  
 teem Muischneekeem  
 dascham labbam leels gohds,  
 masa Slawa. *Mancher Edelman hatt große Ehre, aber schlechtes lob - Ruhm*. Fir.I 221 (sub voce **Slawa**)  
 ko te knohsees? wai tew uttis, *was schubbestu dich?*  
*Ach, du hast läuse*. Fir.I 100 (sub voce **Knohsitees**)  
 Mums buhs ar drebbschanu, in bai=  
 libu dsihtees peht tahs muhschigas  
 dsiwoschanas. *wir müssen mit Zittern und furcht nach dem ewigen leben trachten ringen*. Fir.II 85 (sub voce **Dsihtees**)  
 Wunsch bij Skahdes pa=darrijis, bett jau  
 isbalwojees. Er hatte Schaden gethan, aber  
 er hatt sich schon durch gefreßen. Fir.II 49 (sub voce **Balwotees**)

Šis K.Firekera ieguldījums latviešu leksikogrāfijā ir atstājis dziļas pēdas, jo, kā norāda L.Bērziņš, "neviens no veco laiku darbiniekiem nav latviešu tautas garu tik pilnīgi sevi uzņēmis kā viņš, "pareizi dziedāt varēdams" un dzīvi pušķodams priekos un bēdās. Un ja Fūrekera vārds nekur nav kaldināts ne vaṙā, ne akmeni, latviešu tautā viņa C.F. ir rakstīti neizdzēšamā kārtā" (Bērziņš, 1928:74) (21).

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- (8) Daudz diskutēts par K.Firekera materiālu šajās gramatikās. Lasāms pat, ka "1684 viņa [Jura Dreseļa] rokās nonākusi daļa Firekera manuskriptu, un viņš 1685 ar savu vārdu izdevis Firekera latv.gramatiku" (Es viņu pazīstu. Latviešu biogrāfiskā vārdnīca. R. 1939, 139.lpp.). Kā uzskata K.Draviņš (Draviņš, K. Christophor Fürecker's, Adolphis und anderer Anteil an der lettischen Grammatik vom Jahre 1685. - Altlettische Schriften und Verfasser. Lund, 1965, 83-114), H.Adolfijs K.Firekera variantu ir papildinājis maz, tādējādi abu gramatiku atšķirības varētu skaidrot vai nu ar G.Dreseļa būtiskiem papildinājumiem, vai citu pamatavotu. ( Par to sk.. Fennells, T. Dreseļa Ganz kurtze Anleitung Zur Lettischen Sprache: tā avotu jauns novērtējums. - Lingua Lettica. Melburnā, 1995, 121-127).
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## Summary

### C.Fürecker and Latvian Lexicography

C.Fürecker was one of the most outstanding linguists of the 17<sup>th</sup> century. The manuscript of a Latvian-German dictionary, to be more precise – two manuscripts of it, was his greatest contribution to the Latvian lexicography.

The article dwells on Fürecker as the author of the manuscripts and proves the compliance of his lexicographical interpretation with the European standard of lexicography of that time. The manuscripts of Fürecker's Latvian-German dictionary have been discussed in accordance with the main lexicographical criteria: selection of words, arrangement of entries, choice of explanations, lexicographical references, homonymic and polysemic division, inclusion of illustrative material.



**Selection of words.** All words known and used in Latvian everyday colloquial speech have been included without any particular selection in the dictionary (vocabulary used in ecclesiastical texts has been represented very poorly).

**Arrangement of entries.** The alphabetical arrangement of entries with the principle of inner clusters has been used. The author has not always kept to the principles of the arrangement.

**The choice of explanations** – two main ways of explanation have been chosen:

1. direct translation; 2. encyclopedic and/or linguistic explanation in German.

**Lexicographical references** – the vocabulary presents various lexicographical references, the most important being:

- 1) references to the prevalence area of lexeme,
- 2) etymological references,
- 3) grammatical references,
- 4) the different references in Latin,
- 5) links to grammatical systems of the 17<sup>th</sup> century.

**Homonymy and polysemy** – in some cases homonyms have been assigned separate entries. Different explanations, or translations point at polysemy.

**Illustrative material** excellently supplements entries of the vocabulary. Seemingly no principles have been observed here, meaning that everything known to the author has been included into the vocabulary.

The evaluation of Fürecker's contribution according to these lexicographical criteria allows us to make a conclusion that Fürecker, and J.Langy, are the founders of Latvian active lexicography introducing a number of lexicographical parameters.

## **Situational Context Analysis as a Relevant Component of Translation Process and Translation Assessment Didactic Aspects**

The competence of translation quality assessment is named as one of the essential competences required of a translator (see Nord, 1992:43) by the majority of modern translation theorists including those engaged in translators training. Several models of translation assessment have been worked out and all of them, with no exception, include the source text analysis as an essential element. Some authors suggest the following procedure of the source language (SL) text analysis: a statement of the author's purpose; characterisation of the readership; an indication of its category and type; an assessment of the quality of the language to determine the translator's degree of licence; a brief statement of the topic or themes (Newmark, 1995:186).

However, the procedure described above might prove to be insufficient especially in case of expressive (i.e. authoritative) text translation where the form of the SL text is no less important than its content. Here I would suggest that a rather detailed analysis of the text should be made, with utmost attention being paid not only to the linguistic but also to the situational context, by which I mean the temporal, spacial and other circumstances under which a source text was produced as well as all facts which the receptor is expected to know so that he could adequately interpret the message (Komissarov, 1990:21).

As a rule, translator students of the University of Latvia experience no problems with the linguistic context analysis as this particular procedure is familiar to the students and is regularly practiced by them at the text interpretation and analysis English classes. On the contrary the situational context is commonly totally ignored which

results in many slips or even referential errors being overlooked in translations assessed. It should be mentioned though that even professional translators frequently fail to consider the situational context (Chernov, 1988:58; Florin, 1983), as they are convinced of the irrelevance of situational implications. As often as not their convictions are justified by the fact that the comprehension of a text and consequently the adequacy of a text translation does not often depend on situational context implications.

Nevertheless, translator students should be aware of the important role the situational context analysis might play in translation process and assessment.

To substantiate this statement I would like to present some typical samples of translator's mistakes both referential and pragmatic caused by ignoring the situational context which have been also unnoticed by the students producing an assessment. These samples are taken from students' translations of essays from George Mikes' "How to be an Alien"

I would like to start with a very primitive example, "It is very important that you should not pronounce anybody's name in a way that the other party may be able to catch it. Generally speaking, your pronunciation is a sound guarantee for that." The linguistic (i.e. semantic) content of the example given seems and indeed is very simple, so translators as well as their editors did not hesitate that the following translation version "Вобщем, ваше произношение является надежной гарантией тому." was perfectly acceptable and only after the instructor's questions concerning the situational context, namely about the addressee, students became conscious of the loss of connotation which bears the key importance in the text and had no problem with improving the translation by adding more emphasis to "your pronunciation" meaning that of a foreigner, and the new version ran as "Вобщем, уже само ваше произношение является надежной тому гарантией."

The next example "Many continentals think life is a game; the English think cricket is a game." was unanimously rendered as "Многие европейцы считают жизнь игрой, англичане считают крикет игрой" which obviously fails to convey the hidden irony of the author as the situational (here, cultural) implication that cricket is not a usual game but a very boring one has been overlooked. After the necessary analysis the translation altered as ".....англичане считают игрой занудный крикет"

In the abstract " I had a drink with an English friend of mine in a pub. We were sitting on the high chairs in front of the counter when a flying bomb exploded about a hundred yards away" the collocation "flying bomb" was taken for a free word combination and translated accordingly as "летающая бомба" The students involved in assessing translation were able to identify the mistake no sooner than the situational context, the fact that the event described took place in London during the World War II when bombs were dropped by German planes, had been explicated.

Another example " When some years ago, knowing ten words of English and using them all wrong, I applied for a translator's job... was rendered into Russian as "Когда несколько лет назад, зная десяток слов по-английски да и те используя невпопад, я подал заявление на работу..." due to the fact that the linguistic context, "apply for a job", induced the translator to choose the equivalent offered by the dictionary: " подавать заявление (обыкн. о приеме на работу, в учебное заведение и т.п.)" However, from the situational context it is obvious that the author did not write any applications but asked for a job personally, and logically the translation should run like " я пытался устроиться (на работу) переводчиком"

Lexical mistakes of the same type were made and failed to be detected by student editors in the following cases: "When I am alone in a forest at night-time and jump from one tree to another, I often think that life is so strange." and "You must not refuse any additional cup of

tea under the following circumstances: if it is hot; if it is cold; if you are tired..." In the first sentence the word "jump" conveys both direct and figurative meaning, while in the Russian version supplied by students: "Когда я один в лесу ночью прыгаю от одного дерева к другому" the verb "прыгать" preserves only the direct meaning with no implication to disorderly movement caused by fear and produces rather humorous than ironic effect which contradicts the author's intention. It took an analysis of the situational context, the students were asked to imagine a real-life situation described in the text, to enable the students to recognise and correct the mistake. Finally, an appropriate equivalent "метаться" was found, which would have been impossible if students had operated at the linguistic context level alone. As to the second sentence, here most translator students had problems with the interpretation of the pronoun "it"; within the linguistic context it may be interpreted as the personal pronoun substituting the noun "cup" as well as the impersonal pronoun used in the pattern *it+be+ an adjective* to describe weather. However, the situational context makes it clear that the second interpretation is more plausible, since normally people do not refuse to drink hot tea, but they do so if the weather is hot.

The last two examples illustrate the mistakes caused by students' ignoring the cultural context.

Thus, in the sentence "This translated into any continental language would mean: 'Jean, kick this gentleman down the steps. "Jean", presumably, is a French not an English name, as British people referring to the Continent mean France mainly and the name is much more widespread among French common people than among English ones. Consequently, the name should be transcribed into Russian as "Жан" not as "Джин", the variant chosen by the students.

Accordingly, in the abstract "These remarks are very un-English and are the results of foreign influence. ( Dating back, however, to the era of the Danish invasion.)" "the Danish invasion" translated as "датские набеги" testifies either to the lack of translator's background knowledge or to the disregard of the situational context as "датские

набеги” bears no implicit information as concerns the times these events belong to. Nevertheless, after additional questions aimed to analyse the situational context were put to the students, it caused no problems to define the historical period and state that “Danish” here is an equivalent of “Viking”, so, the collocation was adequately translated as “набеги викингов”

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## Summary

Translation quality assessment competence is an essential competence required of a translator. Text analysis plays an important role in translation process as well as in translation assessment. Special attention should be paid to the situational context analysis in the course of translators' training.

## **Linguistic Theories Underlying Multi-purpose Language Learning**

### **Introduction**

The current demand for the knowledge of foreign languages brings to language classrooms learners with different interests and different purposes of language learning. This is true not only to language courses and academic language learning at secondary schools, even university students studying the target language in academic and professional programmes intend to use the target language for different purposes. Thus, students qualifying for BA degree in English Philology might have varied purposes of language studies: some students might be interested in the grammatical structure of the language, others might take interest in the prosody of the target language, still others might choose the whole language approach to linguistic studies.

The list of different interests in language studies could be continued endlessly regarding also the professional purposes of the target language application, such as

- language teaching to young learners;
- language teaching to adolescents;
- language teaching at different levels, to adult learners specialised in different fields of science, law, medicine, art , economy etc.
- language teaching to learners with specific needs, e.g. visually impaired; application of language for translation of technical texts;
- application of language for translation of fiction (verse and prose);
- application of language for interpreting, etc.

However, all these students with various language application purposes are studying in the same academic programme. Hence the problem of designing academic course programmes applicable for multi-purpose language studies.

Successful multiple-purpose language studies are impossible unless the relevant linguistic, methodological and educational principles are observed.

The aim of the present article is to analyse linguistic basis for multiple-purpose language teaching.

### **The Nature of Human Language**

As the subject of our research is the process of language learning, it is necessary to discuss different views on language and to form our opinion concerning language, its functions and language learning.

Whatever else people may do when they come together - they talk. They live in a world of words.

"To understand man's humanity one must understand the language that makes him human. According to the philosophy expressed in the myths and religions of many peoples, it is the language which is the source of human life and power. To some people of Africa, a newborn child is a *kuntu*, a "thing", not yet a *muntu*, a "person" Only by the act of learning does child become a human being" (Fromkin/Rodman, 1974:1).

Thus, according to this tradition, we all become "human" because we all know at least one language. The possession of language, more than any attribute, distinguishes man from other animals.

"Man stands apart from other animals. It seems that some alterations in the patterning of his genes in man's early development caused him to be born with a predisposition to language and that this was decisive to his future development" (Hutchcroft, 1981:1).

The kind of consensus on language which is normally available to teachers is represented in Lyons' *Language and Linguistics* (1981). Only Chomsky's definition, contrary to other definitions presented by



Lyons, does not view language primarily as a conventional symbol system concerned with communication or co-operation between people.

Lyons himself sees language as one among a number of other semiotic systems (Lyons, 1981: 3-11). This emphasis follows the lead of Saussure (1916: 33) in a concern to see language in the context of other communication frameworks.

Chomsky gives a rather formal definition in 1957: "From now on I will consider a language to be a set (finite or infinite) of sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements" (Chomsky, 1957: 13).

In 1965 Noam Chomsky made a distinction very similar to the one that Ferdinand de Saussure had made between "language" and "parole" in 1916. The distinction made by Chomsky was between "competence" - a speaker's intuitive knowledge of the rules of his native language and "performance" - what he actually produces by applying these rules.

"We thus make a fundamental distinction between competence (the speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language) and performance (the actual use of language in concrete situations)" (Chomsky, 1965: 4).

Chomsky was talking about *grammatical* rules. Chomsky considered that a native speaker knows intuitively which sentences are grammatical and which are not, and it is his linguistic competence which tells him this.

"The problem is that, while "competence" has been specified with some precision, "performance" seems to include not merely the lapses in performance which occur when knowledge is interfered with by fatigue or inattention, but also stylistic variations and acceptability" (Chomsky, 1965: 10 - 15, 27).

According to Brumfit (1994) performance thus seems to embrace both the failure to achieve competence which is found in the traditional psychological distinction between what is known and what is actually done and also certain other kinds of knowledge which allow us to produce utterances which are appropriate as well as grammatical.

Many linguists (among them Hymes and Halliday) came to feel that Chomsky did not go far enough: his "ideal speaker-listener in a completely homogeneous speech community" (1965: 3) took no account of any socio-cultural features, of the fact that we talk to different people, in different situations, about different things and different problems.

The study of language in relation to the situations in which it is used is a theoretical pursuit, no less interesting and central to linguistics than psycholinguistic investigations relating the structure of language to the structure of human brain" (Halliday, 1970:145).

Besides the above described views a third position exists which accepts a competence/performance distinction but extends the notion of competence to embrace all rule-systems which describe our knowledge of language. This view has led to the concept of communicative competence, implied by Campbell, Wales and Marshall (1966) and Cooper, R. L. (1968) and discussed by a range of scholars including Jakobovits (1970), Habermas (1970), Hymes (1971), and Savignon (1972).

Thus, in 1970 Campbell and Wales proposed that the Chomskyan notion of competence should be extended beyond purely grammatical competence to include a more general communicative ability. Language does not occur in isolation, as Chomsky seems to suggest; it occurs in a social context and reflects *social* rather than *linguistic purposes*.

The literature on communicative competence has been surveyed by various authors with varying emphases (Le Page, 1975; Munby, 1978; Canale and Swain, 1980; Brumfit, 1994). There is a general agreement among applied linguists that it is necessary to specify as clearly as possible not only the formal features of linguistic systems but the ways in which these features may legitimately be operated.

Throughout the 1960s Dell Hymes (1964, 1967, 1968, 1971) explored ways in which utterances may be defined as appropriate to specific social "speech events" (1967). According to Hymes, "a child acquires

a knowledge of sentences not only as grammatical, but also as appropriate to the context in which they are made. He has *communicative* as well as *linguistic competence*. He knows when and when not to speak, what to talk about with whom, when, where, and in what manner" (Hymes, 1972: 277).

This ethnographic approach, according to Brumfit (1994) leads to a consideration of *communicative competence*, in direct and deliberate opposition to Chomsky's *linguistic competence*. Evaluating Hymes' contribution to applied linguistics and language teaching Brumfit points out:

What Hymes has done conveniently, though, is to provide a broad framework, even if often no more than metaphorical, for subsequent discussion of language as a system which is performed as well as known. "Hymes' categories provide a useful descriptive framework, even though they are not intended to provide a basis for generative rules" (Brumfit, 1994: 26).

The purpose of the preceding discussion has been to illustrate the way in which scholars in many disciplines have attempted to show the vast range of approaches to language. What they show cumulatively is that language cannot be thought of solely as a "system of formal elements" (Brumfit, 1994: 27) without taking away its major functions. This leads us to our next theme - Language in Use.

## **Language in Use**

One possible way of investigating what people actually do when communicating is to look at language variations. Labov has examined relations between sociolinguistic and formal patterns of language in order to develop rules on probability (Labov, 1972).

Another statement of similar character, viewing language in concordance with the sphere of its use, was expressed by Brown and Yule when speaking about discourse analysis: the analysis of discourse is, necessarily, the analysis of language in use. As such, it cannot be restricted to the description of linguistic forms independent

of the purposes or functions which these forms are designed to serve in human affairs" (Brown and Yule, 1983: 1).

As these views make clear the analysis of language use cannot be independent of the analysis of the purposes and functions of language in human life. In Fairclough's view, "language and society partially constitute one another. Thus language, being part of society, linguistic phenomena are social phenomena of a special sort, and social phenomena are ( in part) linguistic phenomena" (Fairclough, 1989: 23).

The views quoted above are functionalist views and assume discourse to be interdependent with social life, such that its analysis necessarily intersects with meanings, activities, and systems outside of itself (Schiffrin, 1995: 31).

According to Schiffrin (1995), "a definition of discourse as language use is consistent with functionalism in general: discourse is viewed as a system - a socially and culturally organised way of speaking through which particular functions are realised" ( Schiffrin, 1995: 32).

Further consideration of "language in use" has emerged from various traditions in philosophy. "Speech act" theory has been most influential. Speech act theory begins with the work of John Austin "How to Do Things With Words" (1962). John Searle's "Speech Acts" (1969) build upon Austin's work to propose systematic framework by which to incorporate speech acts into linguistic theory. Searle proposes that "the speech act is the basic unit of communication" (Searle, 1969, 1969: 21).

What allows the integration of speech act theory into linguistic theory is Searle's principle of expressibility *what can be meant can be said*" (Searle, 1969; 18-21).

This principle establishes that it is possible (in theory) for a speaker to be able to say exactly what he/she means either by increasing his/her knowledge of the language or by enriching the language (p.19). The principle of expressibility has several different consequences which directly influence language learning/ teaching process.

Searle's understanding of language as a series of acts in the world rather than a collection of sentences has been taken up extensively by Widdowson (1978) when relating to language teaching.

The co-operative principle of Grice (1975) provides through a series of maxims a list of presuppositions about the nature of an authentic conversation: "be as informative as required, truthful, relevant, brief and orderly" (Grice, 1975: 45).

"Attempts to codify the ways in which we make sense have fed into ethnomethodological approaches to language, and into more formal attempts to describe the features of discourse" (Cook, 1992; Schiffrin 1994).

These presuppositions help the language user preserve the authentic attitude towards the target language and enable him/her to use the newly acquired language as a means of communication in relevant life situations. If we might question whether or not there is any value in isolating a situation as a variable in the analysis of the social function of language then concerning language teaching the value of the situation is undeniable.

If, with this notion of situation in mind, we look at the possible range of human language activities, we would come to the conclusion that in this respect "language behaviour is a continuum" (Wilkins, 1974). At one end of the scale the form and content of utterances is fairly predictable from the description of the situational context. Language occurs predictably in situations like registering for a flight at the airport, booking a room in a hotel, changing money in a bank, shopping in a supermarket, turning for help in a tourist information bureau or making introductions. According to Wilkins (1974), language occurs less predictably in law court where, although there may be quite a large number of recurrent forms, there will be almost no limit on the form and content and utterances that can occur.

At the other end of the scale the situational context of utterance is almost totally unimportant and prediction would only be possible if one knew what in practice one cannot know the learned and inherited

characteristics of the participants (Wilkins,1974: 144). This, in our opinion, is true to literature or most conversations between friends.

From the discussion so far it is important to note that language is a dynamic, not a static system and therefore also the views on language are in constant development. The same might refer to views on language teaching, which in their turn are built and develop on the relevant linguistic theories. Thus we can assume from the theoretical concepts analysed above that a situational syllabus would be an alternative to the conventional grammatical syllabus in cases where a situational analysis of needs seems relevant. It would not necessarily be a valuable alternative for an advanced language learner studying the target language for both academic and professional purposes at tertiary level.

Another item, worth mentioning, is the vast scale of language use. As the target of our investigation is the process of English language learning, it is important to keep in the focus of attention its different possible spheres of application. Such an attitude is of paramount importance during the very process of language learning. The modern language learner of 90s will not be satisfied with the possibility to use the language only in the classroom, however friendly the atmosphere might be and however encouraging and helpful the teacher might be. Hence, the significance of learners' needs and wants. Teaching aids, materials and methodologies should be relevant to learners' age, language experience and needs and should take them through varied language use in the classroom, bringing it as close as possible to its authentic variants used in real life situations.

Few of us are aware of the range and variety of our uses of language even during one typical day. Language will occur almost wherever we come into contact with other people and will be different according to the nature of the contact. Language also assails a us even in situations in which no other people are present or when other people are present but are not producing language for our consumption. Even people whose jobs may not appear to demand extensive use of language are placed in numerous situations which will require characteristic

pieces of language. The individual's choice of language enables him to perform his social functions. The social functions in their turn produce social influences on language use. These influences may express themselves as:

- dialect features;
- register;
- the medium of communication;
- status;
- situation.

### Dialect features.

Dialect features are the product of the individual's geographical and class origin. If two speakers differ in grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary, we will conclude that they speak different dialects. Dialect is not an important type of language variation for teaching. Although the potential teacher and the advanced learner might be made sensitive to the fact that there is dialect variation in the target language just as there is in their mother-tongue.

### Register.

Variation according to use in specific situations is also studied in terms of register (Yule, 1994: 194). Our daily lives take us through a succession of activities requiring the use of language. The activities are very diverse and, whatever dialect we speak, have specific features of language associated with them. Many activities are connected with our job. We may be a teacher delivering a lesson in the target language, an engineer giving instructions to a workman, a lawyer advising a client, a trade union official discussing some problems with the administration, etc.. Other activities are part of our leisure. We may play tennis, chess or bridge. Or relating to our home life, we may be acting as mother, father, husband, wife, son or daughter. Look at the life of any individual and you will find that every day he/she passes through a succession of such roles, and in each he/she will produce or hear features of language that are typical of the activity involved. Teaching and learning

the target language a careful study of the activity should enable us to establish what the linguistic features are that mark each concrete role. Although these features have scarcely been investigated yet, it is supposed that there are distinct varieties of language associated with people's occupations and, according to Wilkins (1974), to these varieties the name register has been given.

#### The medium of communication.

Just the same way as the users of language switch their roles and activities they switch also the channel through which communication takes place:

- the auditory channel - speaking and hearing;
- the visual channel - reading and writing.

#### Status.

By status we understand social relationships between people which are marked by features of language. Language teaching has been and still is more occupied with instilling a general system of language than with enabling the pupil to modulate his language in accordance with features of the social situation. Even at the most advanced levels teaching suffers from the same drawback more attention is concentrated on a more formal or neutral style, although this may not be of great practical value since it may not be related to situations in which the student might find himself/herself. If he converses with a native speaker, he/she will find that he/she is using a more formal style than the person he is talking to.

#### Situation.

As it has been mentioned above language occurs in situations and should be adequately taught. All the above mentioned features of the target language might be logically familiar to the learner but will never be duly acquired by a language learner in a language classroom without being exposed to authentic use of the language in culturally relevant language situations. The only substitute of language situations that can be successfully used for this purpose are interactive multimedia language programmes.



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## Summary

The theories discussed above are of crucial importance for elaborating a profound linguistic background for multi-purpose language programmes.

Our approach to the English language teaching is based on Chomsky's theory that human language is unique and that it can be acquired by any human being. We are also aware of the complexity a foreign language competence and performance might present to a language learner. Concerning this aspect of language our presumptions rest on the theories developed by Brumfit, Hymes and Halliday.

Practical significance of the analysed linguistic theories.

The notions: *speech acts* and *communicative competence*, though contradicting Chomsky's *linguistic competence*, are essential when setting the goals and working out enabling objectives for interactive language programmes.

Multi-purpose language learning programmes should give the learners assurance and belief in themselves by proving in practice that language is a system which is performed as well as known and that, as considered by Searle and Widdowson, language is a series of acts in the world rather than a collection of sentences.

However, this statement does not release any language learner from the tedious, sometimes monotonous, procedure of memorising words, phrases, idioms and even grammatical structures typical and characteristic of the target language. Hence, the role of the specially designed language programmes — to make the process of learning and memorisation active and interesting.

## Übersetzer- und Dolmetscherausbildung in Finnland

### 1. Ausbildungsstätten

Es gibt in Finnland vier Institute für Übersetzen und Dolmetschen, an denen ein vollwertiges Hochschulstudium in diesem Bereich absolviert werden kann. Es sind dies die Institute in Tampere, **Institut für Übersetzungswissenschaft** der Universität Tampere, in Turku, zugehörig zur Universität Turku, in Savonlinna das **Institut für Interkulturelle Kommunikation**, zugehörig zur Universität Joensuu, und das **Institut für Übersetzen und Dolmetschen** in Kouvola, zugehörig zur Universität Helsinki.

Das Lehrpersonal an den Übersetzerinstituten besteht hauptsächlich aus Fremdsprachenlektorinnen, wobei ca. die Hälfte von ihnen Muttersprachlehrerinnen sind. Dazu gibt es an allen Instituten Professorinnen für die jeweiligen Hauptsprachen, also Englisch, Deutsch, Russisch und Französisch, sowie in Savonlinna und Kouvola fachübergreifende Professuren für Sprachtheorie und Übersetzen mit dazugehörigen Assistenturen.

### 2. Studium

#### 2.1. Studienangebot und Voraussetzungen

Die Übersetzerausbildung wird an den Instituten schon seit ca. 30 Jahren betrieben, erst zu Beginn der achtziger Jahre wurden die Institute jedoch an die Universitäten angegliedert und das bis dahin 2- bzw. 3-jährige Studium zu einem 5-jährigen Universitätsstudium aufgestockt. Dieses Studium erfordert zur Erlangung des Magistergrades insgesamt 160 sog. Studienwochen (= Einheit, die ca. 40 Arbeitsstunden entspricht), ungefähr die Hälfte davon wird im Hauptfach (z.B. Deutsch, Englisch, Russisch, Schwedisch, Französisch) absolviert, als Nebenfächer können andere Sprachen, aber auch

andere Fächer wie etwa Wirtschaftswissenschaften, Recht, Kommunikationswissenschaften o.ä. studiert werden. Es kann aber auch das Examen als sog. Kandidatin der Humanistischen Wissenschaften abgelegt werden, für das nur 120 Studienwochen und eine Abschlussarbeit nebst schriftlicher Abschlussprüfung verlangt werden.

Nach einer Aufnahmeprüfung werden jedes Jahr ca. 20-25 Studierende pro Hauptfach und Institut zum Studium neu zugelassen. Die Voraussetzung zum Studium ist in der Regel das Abitur und das Bestehen der Aufnahmeprüfung. Die Gesamtzahl der Studierenden pro Institut liegt bei 300 - 500 Studenten.

## 2.2. Grund- und Hauptstudium

Im Hauptfach muss zunächst ein Grundstudium abgelegt werden, das u.a. übersetzungswissenschaftlich orientierte Übungen zum schriftlichen und mündlichen Ausdruck sowie Kurse zur Kommunikativen Grammatik, Kultur und Literatur beinhaltet. Auch erste Übungen zum Übersetzen aus der Fremdsprache und in die Fremdsprache sowie Konsektivdolmetschen gehören schon zum Programm.

Im Hauptstudium werden anspruchsvolle Kurse zum Übersetzen (z.B. auch computergestütztes Übersetzen) und Dolmetschen (z.B. Konferenzdolmetschen) sowie u.a. Vorlesungen und Übungen zu den Fachbereichen Technik, Handel und Recht angeboten, wie auch erste wissenschaftliche Seminare im Rahmen von Sprach- und Übersetzungswissenschaft. Auch Kurse zum audio-visuellen Übersetzen, z.B. Untertitelung bei Fernsehfilmen, und Übungen zum Dolmetschen bei Video-Konferenzschaltungen werden angeboten. Bei der Ausbildung der zukünftigen Übersetzerinnen wird von Anfang an die Funktionsorientiertheit und Rezipientenorientiertheit einer jeden Übersetzung betont und dementsprechend wird jede Übersetzung wie ein "echter" Übersetzungsauftrag mit genauer Aufgabe hinsichtlich Funktion und Zielpublikum der Übersetzung versehen. Eine wichtige Rolle spielt auch das zusätzliche Studium der Muttersprache, d.h.

Finnisch, in der ebenfalls obligatorische Kurse zur mündlichen und schriftlichen Sprachbeherrschung absolviert werden müssen.

Prüfungen werden jeweils am Ende des betreffenden Kurses abgelegt, und zwar meist in schriftlicher Form, z.B. als Seminararbeiten oder Klausuren. Mündliche Tests werden bei den Dolmetschübungen und Kursen zum mündlichen Ausdruck absolviert.

### 2.3. Vertiefende Studien und Studienabschluss

Für Studentinnen, die das Grund- und Hauptstudium absolviert haben, werden in den vertiefenden Studien weitere Seminare zum Übersetzen und Dolmetschen wie auch zu den Fachsprachen angeboten. Die Verwendung neuester Kommunikationstechnologien ist auch hierbei eine wichtige Voraussetzung. Ab dem 4. Studienjahr wird in einem Seminar für Examenskandidatinnen unter Leitung der Professorin das Thema der zu erstellenden Abschlussarbeit erarbeitet und in der Gruppe behandelt.

Daneben werden Vorlesungen z.B. zu den Gebieten der Übersetzungs- und Dolmetschtheorien, Kommunikationswissenschaft, Pragmalinguistik, Psycholinguistik, Soziolinguistik, Textlinguistik und Diskursanalyse absolviert.

Zum Abschluss des Studiums muss die oben erwähnte wissenschaftliche Arbeit, die sog. Pro-Gradu-Arbeit, verfasst werden. Diese Abschlussarbeiten sind meist ca. 70-120 Seiten lang und es werden 20 Studienwochen dafür angerechnet. Die Pro-Gradu-Arbeiten, die an den Übersetzerinstituten geschrieben werden, befassen sich meist mit einem übersetzungs- oder dolmetschtheoretisch wichtigen Thema (z.B. Untersuchung der Übersetzung von kulturspezifischen Realienbezeichnungen in deutschen Übersetzungen finnischer Literatur, empirische Untersuchungen zum Übersetzungs- oder Dolmetschprozess anhand von Ton- bzw. Videoaufnahmen und speziellen Computerprogrammen, vergleichende terminologische Untersuchungen zu bestimmten technischen o.a. fachsprachlichen Bereichen, Untersuchungen zur Funktion von Modalpartikeln beim Übersetzen und Dolmetschen etc.).

Zusätzlich muss an allen Instituten eine schriftliche Abschlussprüfung zum Thema der Arbeit abgelegt werden, sowie an einigen Instituten auch eine Schlussprüfung mit übersetzungswissenschaftlicher Thematik.

### 3. Praxisorientiertheit und Forschung

Schon immer waren Praxisorientiertheit und Kontakte mit den Auftraggebern von Übersetzungen und Dolmetschtaufträgen in Wirtschaft und Verwaltung bei den finnischen Übersetzerinstituten eine Selbstverständlichkeit. Durch den Beitritt Finnlands zur EU im Jahre 1995 jedoch wurden auch an die Übersetzer- und Dolmetscher-ausbildung neue und noch größere Anforderungen gestellt. An den Instituten in Turku und Savonlinna gibt es seit einiger Zeit Projekte zur Ausbildung von Konferenzdolmetscherinnen, und zwar in Turku einen einjährigen Intensivlehrgang für EU-Konferenzdolmetscherinnen, der ein abgeschlossenes Hochschulstudium voraussetzt, und in Savonlinna eine zweijährige Ausbildung für Konferenzdolmetscherinnen in den Sprachen Russisch-Finnisch / Finnisch-Russisch und Englisch-Russisch. Beide Projekte werden u.a. durch EU-Mittel finanziert. In Savonlinna läuft zudem ein von der Finnischen Akademie für weitere drei Jahre unterstütztes elektronisches Forschungsprojekt "Übersetzungsfinnisch und die Universalien des Übersetzens" an dem mehrere Forscherinnen mit ihren Promotionsvorhaben beteiligt sind.

Durch die Mitgliedschaft Finnlands in der EU haben sich auch Bedarf und Erfordernisse in Bezug auf Übersetzungs- und Dolmetschleistungen z.T. geändert. So hat z.B. das Übersetzen von EU-Texten eine deutliche Hinwendung zum dokumentarischen Übersetzen mit sich gebracht, d.h. eine enge Orientierung am Ausgangstext ist oft schon aus juristischen Gründen beim Übersetzen von EU-Texten notwendig. Auch ist eine Vielzahl von situationsbezogenen Textsorten zu berücksichtigen, wie: Informationsblätter, Verträge, Vorverträge, Dokumente, Erklärungen, Direktiven etc. EU-Texte sind auch oft Texte über andere Texte, die diese referieren, kommentieren und erklären. Wichtig ist auch, dass die im Rahmen der EU-Kommunikation ver-

wendeten und übersetzten Texte besonders glaubwürdig und "wertvoll" wirken müssen.

Der Bedarf an EU-Dolmetschern ist gerade jetzt besonders hoch, wo Finnland ab dem 1.7 1999 den Vorsitz in Brüssel haben wird. Vor allem Dolmetscher aus dem Finnischen in andere europäische Sprachen sind z.Zt. sehr gefragt. Die Übersetzerinstitute in Finnland sind seit dem finnischen EU-Beitritt vor eine Aufgabe gestellt, der sie versuchen mit gezielter Ausbildung gerecht zu werden.

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## **Historical Aspects of the Advertising Language: Subtext-related Features of English Advertising in the Second Half of the 20<sup>th</sup> Century**

In the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, when under the Soviet rule, Latvian commercial advertising was still dormant, English advertising language was seeking effective new ways of informing the customer about the attractions and benefits of new products. On numerous occasions, copywriters use a subtext, an implicit way of presenting information, finding it much more effective.

Subtext is a semantic category. It is a stream of hidden meanings caused by interactions and combinations of the explicit language units at different levels (Unaibayeva, 1980: 3). In advertising, subtext can be created not only by language units, but by non-linguistic means as well — in the form of images. In the following example the advertisement consists of a headline and a picture. “*The British are famous for their reserve*” (Good Housekeeping, 1979, May: 53) runs the headline reminding us of the British restraint and coolness. The picture of the bottle of Cockburn’s port wine with “*Special Reserve*” written on its label, reminds us of another meaning of the word *reserve*: the wine comes from a special stock.

Headlines of advertisements (AHs) demonstrate condensed means for creating subtext and were therefore chosen for analysis. The following hypotheses were advanced:

- 1) Subtext in AHs has an evaluative component;
- 2) AHs demonstrate different degrees of implication;
- 3) Evaluative implicatures imply consumer benefits satisfying needs which, due to existing social norms, are not openly discussed.

The analysis of the examples proved the first hypothesis correct. The advertisement for a special kind of cheque, for example, had a headline "*The travelers cheque your bank puts its name on*" (The Australian Women's Weekly, 1983, March: 94) with a play on the structural changes in the phraseological unit "*to put one's name to sth.*" (to sign one's name). In reality, the name of the bank appeared on the cheque, thus the headline had a more direct meaning than the phraseological one. However, the transparency of the changed phraseological unit allowed both meanings to be perceived. In this example the evaluation has an implicit quality: the bank puts its name to the cheque, in other words, guarantees the security and integrity of its operations.

Evaluative information about the qualities of a product can be both explicit and implicit: "*Mattesson's new fresh MMMayonnaise. It's got one or two things missing*" (Woman, 1984, Apr: 47) – a headline for a mayonnaise advertisement. Evaluative information about the freshness and novelty of the product is presented explicitly (the words: *new, fresh*). The evaluative information of its special taste, however, is presented in an implicit way, by means of fancy graphics in the word: *MMMayonnaise*. The explicit ways of evaluation are traditional, the implicit ones, however, seem interesting enough for further consideration.

I found two levels of implication in the AHs examined. A subtext which provided the evaluation by reference to clearly mentioned benefits the customer will enjoy after having used the product, I considered one with a smaller rate of implication. A high rate of implication I found in the subtext which provided the evaluation by indirect hinting at the benefits the consumer will enjoy after having used the product. The distinction between the two is seen in the following examples. The evaluation of the product in both examples comes from the reference to the same benefit a woman would enjoy after having bought the product: in the advertisement for lingerie, copywriters play on every woman's want to be attractive: "*The Glossies*

from Gosard. See how glamorous you really are" (Good Housekeeping, 1979, May: 132) and "Get spoiled in pure silk!" (Elle, 1987, Jan: 158). In the first example ("The Glossies from Gosard. See how glamorous you really are") the implicature is perceived easily: the beauty and charm a woman acquires by putting on the advertised underwear is an indirect evaluation of the advertised product and, in a consumer's mind, is easily linked with the product. The same positive evaluation is expressed by a subtext with a higher rate of implication in the second example: the benefits acquired from the product are mentioned less directly – the phrase "get spoiled" in this context implies a reference to the success in relations with the opposite sex. This is proved by the subtitle: "Sensuous silk pampering for body and soul – clearly the sexiest lingerie around!" where "the sexiest lingerie" is an explication of the evaluation.

In order to understand what kind of information is presented by deep implications, it seems appropriate to consider consumer behaviour. Throughout the history of research into advertising, psychologists have stressed every person's urge to satisfy his/her needs and to reach his/her goals in life (cf. the works by Smith, Osborne, 1925; Hotchkiss, 1940; Borden, 1944; Dunn, 1969; Mc Gregor, 1973; Packard, 1974; Williams, 1974; Bovée, Arens, 1989). The copywriter's task is to show that these needs could be satisfied and these goals achieved with the help of the advertised product. The total number of human needs indicated by different researchers varies from 8 (health, wealth, career, social status, success, recognition, comfort, convenience) mentioned by Mc Gregor (Mc Gregor, 1973: 59), to 20 indicated by Samuel Watson Dunn (Dunn, 1969: 207). Dunn believes that there are several needs about which it is not polite to speak in public according to the norms of social behaviour. For example, the need to be better than one's neighbour can be, to have a bigger and a more expensive car. It seems that information about the product's ability to satisfy such needs which cannot be mentioned openly, is represented in the deep implications of the subtexts of AHs. In a way this corresponds to the concept of flouting the Gricean maxims of manner

(Avoid obscurity of expression; Avoid ambiguity (Grice, 1975: 45-46)) which is described in linguistic literature. To my mind, the copywriter blatantly fails to avoid obscurity of expression and ambiguity in cases where he/she hints at satisfaction of the inherent unmentionable needs.

The analysis revealed that a promise that the product will help the consumer to be better and cleverer than the others may be "hidden" in the deep implicature. The headline to the advertisement for the magazine "Ms." reads: "*The fact that you are a reader of Ms. tells us a lot about you*" (Ms., 1972, Sept: 109). It contains implicit information about the extraordinary intelligence of a woman who reads the advertised magazine.

The same group of motives includes a consumer's wish to possess other extraordinary qualities, such as exceptional taste and style, for example. Satisfaction of such a need is implicitly promised to those who smoke "555" cigarettes. The advert for the cigarettes consists of a headline, a picture and a trademark. The headline "*555 Stands Out for taste*" (High Life, 1982, July: 41) makes an explicit evaluation of the exceptional taste of the advertised cigarettes: the phrasal verb *to stand out* means "to be easily seen among the others" which is easily linked with one of the meanings of the noun *taste*: "quality of a substance made known by the sense by which flavour is known" However, implicit evaluative information is encoded in the same sentence. The word combination *to stand out for* means "to demand firmly" (Courtney, 1986: 608) and the noun *taste* — "ability to form judgments about beauty, esp. in art and literature" Thus, the fact that one smokes "555" cigarettes proves his/her taste.

Deep implications may contain a hint that the advertised product/service will help a potential customer to realize his/her wish to make a career. This hint is made in the AH to the advert for a PC: "*Looks like Pete's been using his PC-8000 again*" (High Life, 1982, July: 95). The subtext is decoded with the help of a picture of a boy hanging a new name-plate "Peter Stanton" on an office door.

Only the deep implicatures can reveal the customer's need to

reach a higher social position. The advertisement for glamorous evening dresses of a classical design has a headline "*Lunch at the Ritz?*" (Good Housekeeping, 1979, May: 204). Ritz — a chain of very prestigious hotels and restaurants founded by the Swedish businessman Ritz at the beginning of the 20th century. The fact that a woman in such a dress can look wonderful in a place like the Ritz restaurant, provides a positive evaluation for the product.

The headline "*Spend some time on the Riviera*" (Ideal Home, 1983, June: 79) (an advertisement for kitchen furniture) creates associations with the well-known resort. The prestige and glamour of the resort is linked in the consumer's mind with the prestige such furniture can give him/her. The image of the kitchen set is created: this is furniture for the élite.

The names of famous historic figures can be used as implicit means for indicating that the advertised product can satisfy the need of the consumer to improve his/her social status. The advertisement for Cognac has a headline "*Courvoisier. The Cognac of Napoleon.*" (Ideal Home, 1983, June: 132). The advert for a resort in Maryland has a long headline: "*Here at their favorite campsite, Henry Ford, Thomas Edison and Harvey Firestone talked until dawn. If you listen closely, you can almost hear their laughter now*" (An Advertising Supplement to Mid-Atlantic Country, 1986, Sept: 79).

An interesting case of evaluative subtext based on the consumer's need to obtain a higher social position is demonstrated in the advertisement for wine. The headline runs: "*It's Marvellous What An Oxford Education Can Give You*" (Ideal Home, 1983, June: 166). The prestigious Oxford education, for a consumer, should also mean knowledge about wines.

The advertisement for a bathroom set (a sink, a bidet and a toilet bowl) aspires to give not only prestige to the set, but also artistic value. The headline "*Michelangelo sculptured Italian design*" (Good Housekeeping, 1979, May: 218) causes positive associations and a positive evaluation in the mind of a potential customer.

The names of historic figures and well-known characters from world literature and mythology have their own “banks of meanings” which depend on an individual experience. Used in AHs, such words help to create positive associations as, e.g., in the headline “*You can afford to give Hamlet the run of the home*” (Good Housekeeping, 1979, May: 230). Advertising is special due to the fact that cultural and philosophical associations are here contrasted with its down-to-the-earth nature. Thus, the ambiguous top headline is followed by the text about the furniture named after the Danish prince, Hamlet.

There are cases where deep implications are created by an atmosphere of romance which attracts the customer. In the AHs “*Here In The Blue Ridge Mountains, We’ve Always Been Partial To Moonshine*” (An Advertising Supplement to Mid-Atlantic Country, 1986, Sept: 7) (an advert for a holiday resort), “*Relive A Dream Seaside Vacation*” (An Advertising Supplement to Mid-Atlantic Country, 1986, Sept: 10) (an advert for a hotel) and “*Return to romance*” (Good Housekeeping, 1979, May: 244) (an advert for bed linen), the copywriter plays on the romantic feelings almost every person has. Thus an implicit positive evaluation of an advertised product or a service is created. These AHs demonstrate different rate of implicitness ranging from a high rate (“*Here In The Blue Ridge Mountains, We’ve Always Been Partial To Moonshine*”) to a low rate (“*Return to romance*”). Headlines of this type, depending on a person’s character and experience, evoke a variety of personal associations. The personal quality of associations plays an important role here. I consider a subtext of the above type as one of deep implicitness.

The hypothesis formulated in the beginning of the article has proved true. In the AHs of the 1970s to 1990s, subtext has an evaluative component and demonstrates different levels of implications. Evaluative implicatures imply consumer benefits satisfying to the needs which, due to the existing social norms, are not discussed in the open. At the end of the 20th century, the social norms seem to be shifting. The impact of this tendency on implicitness in advertising deserves further investigation.

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## The Reflection of the Stylistic Use of Phraseological Units in Dictionaries of Idioms and Proverbs

Style is fundamental for the analysis of phraseological units (PUs) in discourse and their reflection in dictionaries. Actually style is part of the meaning of PUs, an essential element of their semantic structure. The stylistic analysis of PUs is a transdisciplinary search. It calls for new ways of thinking about phraseology and style, and their close links with fringe disciplines, such as psycholinguistics. It is essential to acknowledge the role of psychology in discourse comprehension, learning and teaching, especially for complex language units like PUs. The cognitive dimension is particularly important to understand the process of creating phraseological meaning in text. This approach calls for a greater awareness of changes in discourse and the readiness to accept the new stylistic formations as facts of both discourse and lexicographical sources.

Historically attitudes towards unusual discursual forms of PUs have differed greatly, they also vary today. One has been that of open criticism. The stylistic changes of PUs have been seen as something unwanted and therefore something to be changed to get back to "normal". There are teachers who tend to mark stylistic changes of PUs as incorrect both for native learners and L2 learners or even label them as wrong. Interestingly, the famous English lexicographer Dr. Johnson is known to have been dead against them as something undesired. It certainly shows the attitude.

Another practice is that of deliberate avoidance or unacceptance of the stylistic changes of PUs, e.g. the English writer George Orwell was against any stylistic "flourishes" of this type both in theory and his own works.

There is also covert criticism of this phenomenon manifest in the terminology used by researchers: *violation, infringement, distortion,*



*deviation* and similar terms. This type of approach implies that there are two concepts: a concept of normality which conforms to the standard, and a concept of abnormality which does not comply with the rules of language use. This reasoning is encountered not only in cases of the stylistic use of PUs, but also in cases of the creative use of any lexical items when "regular (literal) interpretations are blocked by *semantic violation*" (Leech, 1969:89). Terminology reflects the theoretical conception.

The actual texts show that the stylistic changes of PUs have been an accepted fact of language throughout the history of English, see, for instance, Shakespeare's works which abound in the creative use of language. Interestingly, even the Middle English writings present ample evidence of this phenomenon. In the Complete Works of Geoffrey Chaucer there are 3610 cases of use of PUs, out of these 1164 (32.24%) are cases with meaningful stylistic changes (Načičione, 1976:180). The occurrence of these changes in contemporary texts varies depending on the author and the type of discourse. What matters is not only the frequency of stylistic use, but also the scope of text that one instance encompasses. For example, in the works of D. H. Lawrence about 25% of PUs undergo stylistic change, but they differ in their discursal significance, e.g. in *The Lost Girl* a single metaphoric PU is sustained over a long stretch of text covering about 25 pages.

Thus the stylistic use of PUs is not a violation or infringement, but a deliberate choice. It is a new perception, a different point of view, a novel vision calling for a change of the standard form. Frequently it is a channel for expressing intensely personal experience.<sup>1</sup>

An interesting indicator of theoretical and practical stance is the treatment of the stylistic use of PUs in dictionaries<sup>2</sup> and various teaching materials, especially textbooks, as well as commentaries and glossaries that literary texts are supplied with. Are stylistic changes of PUs reflected at all, and if so, how fully and explicitly are they presented?

Traditionally many lexicographers and authors of textbooks tended to ignore or overlook non-standard forms of PUs fully or partly. This is not surprising in the face of insufficient development of the theory of both phraseology and stylistics, terminological obscurity and specific lexicographical or, if I may use the term, phraseographical difficulties as PUs do not lend themselves easily to processing.<sup>3</sup>

A closer look at dictionaries of idioms, as they are commonly called, reveals widely differing treatment of PUs. Several approaches seem to emerge. One is no reflection of the stylistic use of PUs of any type, that is, complete absence of any stylistic changes in the registered examples. The illustrations supplied after the PU are perfectly standard with a one-to-one correspondence to the head form of the entry (except for minor grammatical changes which are necessary to introduce the PU into context and which are not stylistically relevant), e.g. *Longman Dictionary of English Idioms* 1979, *The Penguin Dictionary of English Idioms* [1986] 1994, *Chambers English Idioms: from the Acid test to the Zero hour* [1982] 1995, *Chambers Dictionary of Idioms and Catch Phrases* 1995. These compilers seem to have a purist type of attitude and choose only those illustrations which serve the purpose of attesting correspondence to the head form of the entry.

In some cases this approach is manifest in the title, as is the case with Kirkpatrick's *Dictionary of Clichés* published in 1996. In her Introduction to the dictionary Kirkpatrick brands all familiar PUs as clichés which are overused and over-abused stereotypes, lacking freshness. At the same time she admits that it is also a colourful spectrum of the English language today (Kirkpatrick 1996b). Although Kirkpatrick writes at the end of the Introduction that the book is not a condemnation of clichés, the term itself is perfectly pejorative.

The basic reasons for the absence of the stylistic changes of PUs in dictionary entries are the theoretical premise and lack of awareness of semantic and stylistic differences of PUs in various contexts. Another reason is practical, that of the choice of the example. In all the dictionaries mentioned above the illustrations are provided by the compilers themselves with the exception of *Longman Dictionary of*

*English Idioms* where a certain amount of the examples are from fiction (1979:387).

There are also a number of dictionaries of idioms which are more text-oriented. A considerable amount of actual stylistic use is recorded in the *Oxford Dictionary of English Idioms* by Cowie, Mackin and McCaig ([1993] 1994a). Example sentences are drawn from a wide range of contemporary sources, including modern fiction, newspapers and daily and weekly press, and radio and television broadcasts. Theoretically, though, the authors believe that occasionally idioms may be “manipulated” to achieve a variety of striking effects. They call this phenomenon *nonce variation* which calls for a degree of cultural or literary awareness possessed only by mature native speakers of English (Cowie, Mackin and McCaig, [1993] 1994b: xv - xvi).

The advent of computer technology has also brought about a revolution in lexicographical practice. The use of large computer-held corpora of English texts has yielded remarkable results. An outstanding achievement is *Collins Cobuild Dictionary of Idioms* (1995) in which authentic examples are drawn from the Bank of English. The text in the corpus includes fiction, newspapers, magazines and transcribed conversations. The dictionary provides coverage of the ways in which idioms and their contexts of use vary, and therefore it teems with illustrations of stylistic use. It is not only that the live language material has prompted the recognition of the possibility of the stylistic use of PUs in discourse. It is also the theoretical approach of the analysts who have performed an extensive study of a large corpus of Modern English texts. Thus the dictionary is in a unique position to describe idioms in current English.

It may seem surprising that there are dictionaries based on a large corpus which do not register stylistic use. For example, *Chambers Dictionary of Idioms* (1996) draws on the British National Corpus containing 100 million words. The corpus has been recorded and gathered from books, magazines, newspapers, radio and TV, formal meetings and ordinary people’s everyday conversations of ordinary people. However, stylistic use is conspicuously absent in this edition. This absence clearly indicates the attitude of the compilers and editors. The exemplifications seem to have been selected to fit the

"desirable" clear-cut head form of the entry. They look very "neat" It is evident that there is a big difference between these two corpus-based dictionaries in the reflection of the use of PUs in discourse.<sup>4</sup>

Cf.:

<p><i>Chambers Dictionary of Idioms</i> (1996) the British National Corpus</p>	<p><i>Collins Cobuild Dictionary of Idioms</i> (1995) the Bank of English</p>
<p><b><u>like looking for a needle in a haystack</u></b></p> <p>➤ I think you're wasting your time, to be honest. It will be <b><u>like looking for a needle in a haystack</u></b>. Far too many young people arrive from England every day.</p>	<p><b><u>like looking for a needle in a haystack</u></b></p> <p>➤ Police have told Mrs Barrow that searching for the dog will be <b><u>looking for a needle in a haystack</u></b>. She agrees that once a greyhound has disappeared, the chances of recovering the animal are slim.</p> <p>➤ Finding a gene amongst the hundreds of thousands of genes contained on a chromosome is rather <b><u>like looking for a needle in several haystacks</u></b>.</p> <p>➤ Then of course we've got to find the antibody that we want, and that's the problem with the new technology. It's really <b><u>like the needle in the haystack</u></b>. We've got to <b><u>go through the haystack, straw by straw, pulling out the needle</u></b>.</p>
<p><b><u>he who pays the piper calls the tune</u></b></p> <p>➤ The relationship of artist to the public must be considered. How far should <b><u>he who pays the piper call the tune?</u></b></p>	<p><b><u>he who pays the piper calls the tune</u></b></p> <p>➤ Chairman John Elfred Jones, said: '<b><u>He who pays the piper should call the tune</u></b>. It's important...</p>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ If Europe and Japan are <b><u>to pay the piper, they will expect at least some say in his choice of tune.</u></b></li> <li>➤ He said there was a strong tendency <b><u>to call the tune without paying the piper or providing the pipe.</u></b></li> </ul>
<p><b><u>not to have two pennies to rub together</u></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ Ever since they bought that house, they <b><u>haven't had two pennies to rub together.</u></b></li> </ul>	<p><b><u>not to have two pennies to rub together</u></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ And from all those interviews her family gave to the Press they sounded as if they <b><u>hadn't two pennies to rub together.</u></b></li> <li>➤ Out of 17 named singers there are <b><u>not two true Rossini voices of international quality to rub together.</u></b></li> <li>➤ Anyone with <b><u>two brain cells to rub together</u></b> could have spotted she wasn't to be trusted.</li> </ul>
<p><b><u>you can't make an omelette without breaking eggs</u></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ I take the view that <b><u>one cannot make omelettes without breaking eggs.</u></b> It is almost impossible to forge any sort of career associated with public life where you do not yourself become the object of hostility in some quarter.</li> </ul>	<p><b><u>you can't make an omelette without breaking eggs</u></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>➤ <b><u>You can't make an omelette without breaking eggs.</u></b> If you want universal health care there's just no way of getting it without us putting more money in it.</li> <li>➤ He adds, <b><u>'You can't make an omelette without breaking eggs</u></b> – you just have <b><u>to break as few as possible.</u></b></li> </ul>

► The 'radiant future' promised in Lenin's name simply failed to materialise. The eggs were broken, but with no omelette to show for the shells.

*Collins Cobuild Dictionary of Idioms* (1995) deserves special praise for the treatment of PUs. Although the compilers do not exactly specify that they register stylistic use, they give the idea tentatively in a descriptive way, pointing out that the expression may be varied and exploited in a number of ways or saying that "people often vary this expression" (*Collins Cobuild Dictionary of Idioms* 1995: 300). The merit of the dictionary lies in showing that stylistic changes are a fact of life.

One type of dictionary which seems to reflect the actual discursive use very accurately is the historical dictionary of idioms and proverbs thanks to a diachronic approach and a truthful presentation of the respective piece of text. Here I could mention Whiting's dictionary *Proverbs, Sentences and Proverbial Phrases from English Writings Mainly Before 1500* (1968), Apperson's *Proverbs and Proverbial Phrases: A Historical Dictionary* (1969), *The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Proverbs* ([1982] 1992, compiled by J. Simpson) and Pickering's *Dictionary of Proverbs* (1997). These historical dictionaries provide the context, or at least a good part of it, which gives the analyst a wonderful opportunity to research into the use of PUs.

More comprehensive and advanced reflection of PUs in use will undoubtedly improve and develop dictionaries, and promote both the study of discursive stylistic features of phraseology and the acquisition of English vocabulary in use in all its complexity. Focusing on discursive use enhances students' awareness and appreciative faculties. McRae and Boardman consider that intermediate and advanced foreign language learners should progress to the reading of literature while it is also true that literature makes an irreplaceable contribution to the development of communicative competence. Literature is generally believed to be language in use. The ability to understand and enjoy

literary texts is "a fundamental component of that communicative competence of the educated native speaker which is the final goal of foreign students and their teachers" (McRae and Boardman, 1989:1). Literature reading competence is unthinkable without the understanding of the discursual use of phraseology. The same is true in respect of other types of texts, such as, the oral and the written discourse of the media. The role of phraseological dictionaries in the comprehension of the stylistic use of PUs and the acquisition of a foreign language is enormous for L2 learners. EFL teachers and methodologists welcome dictionaries which are text-based as they suit teaching objectives best. Hence the reflection of the stylistic use of PUs in dictionaries is an area which merits further investigation and development.

## Notes

Style is a fact of language and hence it is worth exploring. I beg to differ with Toolan that "stylisticians busy themselves with exploring the putative uniqueness of allegedly unique texts" (1997:85).

See Veisbergs (1996: 241-245) for the "provision of occasional transformation use in the illustrations" of idiom dictionaries. Veisbergs explores dictionaries published before 1994.

See Cowie (1981:223 - 235) for an analysis of lexicographical problems in the work on dictionaries of idioms. Cowie does not deal with aspects of style.

I have indicated the forms of PUs for emphasis.

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## Valodas komunikatīvās funkcijas un to eksponenti latviešu valodas mācību kursā iesācējiem

Komunikatīvās funkcijas īstenojas to eksponentos jeb izteiksmes līdzekļos – raksturīgos vārdos, vārdu savienojumos, izteikumos, frāzēs un parauga teikumos. Tie izsaka to, ko valodas lietotājs vēlas paust, darīt zināmu un izmantot, lai ar valodiskiem līdzekļiem dažādās saskarsmes situācijās risinātu sarunu. Komunikatīvo funkciju atbilstīgie eksponenti ir grupēti tipizētos modeļos un plaši tiek izmantoti dažādu tēmu un situāciju mācīšanā svešvalodas vai otrās valodas apguves programmās.

Latviešu valodas mācības pamatkursā skolēni/studenti parasti vēlas ātri apgūt nepieciešamo saziņas minimumu, t. i., prasmi sarunāties par vienkāršām tēmām sadzīves un darba attiecībās. Šim nolūkam ir nepieciešams sistematizēts lingvistisko līdzekļu saturs, kas veidotu komunikatīva mācību kursa didaktisko pamatu. Tā kā latviešu valodas mācīšanā komunikatīvā pieeja ir samērā jauna parādība un maz ir pētījumu par saziņas funkcijām un to situatīvajām izpausmēm, valodas mācībās satura izstrādei ir jāizmanto dažādu citu svešvalodu didaktikas pieredze.

1990. gadā Eiropas Padomes apgādā tika izdots *van Eka un Trima* "Sliekšņa līmenis 1990" (Threshold Level, 1990). Tajā ietverts angļu valodas pamata līmenī apgūstamo zināšanu svarīgākais saturs, strukturēti un sistematizēti dažādi valodas sistēmas elementi (leksika, komunikatīvās frāzes, gramatika u.c.). Tā kā valodas komunikatīvās funkcijas ir universālas, tādēļ šis izdevums kalpojis vairāku citu valodu attiecīgu izstrādņu radīšanai. Dotais pētījums ir izmantots arī "*Latviešu valodas prasmes līmeni*" (Council of Europe Publishing, 1997). Tā nav konkrēta programma vai mācību līdzeklis, bet gan materiāls, kas dod pamatu dažādu valodas mācīšanas programmu un līdzekļu izstrādei, resp., ir svarīgs valodas mācības didaktiskā satura izveides avots. "Pārkāpjot sliekšni", runātājam jāsasniedz noteikta valodas lietošanas

kvalitātes pakāpe, jāprot sniegt un saņemt vajadzīgo informāciju, orientēties apgūtās valodas izplatības telpā un jābūt gatavam turpināt pilnveidot savas zināšanas augstākos valodas prasmes līmeņos.

Komunikatīvo situāciju un to eksponentu izmantošana ir modernās svešvalodu mācīšanas didaktikas svarīga satura daļa. Praktiskā valodas mācīšanas programmā galveno kodolu veido komunikatīva pieeja, kurā tiek izmantoti tikai tie valodiskie līdzekļus, kas kalpo saziņas stratēģijas veidošanai. Organizējot dialogu, runātājam ir jāievēro divi svarīgi nosacījumi: pirmkārt, par noteiktu tēmu jāveido reāla, saprotama un produktīva saruna (transakcionālā komunikācija), otrkārt, — jāatveido noteiktas saziņas situācijām atbilstošas sociālās lomas, psiholoģiski pareizi jāveido kontakts ar sarunas partneri, jāpārvalda dažādi neverbālās komunikācijas elementi (interakcionālā komunikācija). To ne vienmēr mācās, iztēlojoties un atklājot daudzveidīgās runas situācijas klasē. Lai elementārā līmenī apgūtu transakcionālo komunikāciju, nav vajadzība izlauzties cauri sarežģītiem valodas gramatiskās struktūras teorijas jautājumiem. Daudzas runas vienības var iemācīties mehāniski un dialoga veidošanas laikā tās sekmīgi iesaistīt tekstā. Bieži vien daudzi iesācēji nav psiholoģiski gatavi ilgstoši un neatlaidīgi strādāt ar abstraktiem teorijas jautājumiem — viņi vēlas iemācīties saziņā nepieciešamo leksiku, komunikatīvās frāzes, teikumus un dialogu fragmentus reprodūktīvā līmenī, savā runā izmantojot tikai ļoti elementāras leksiskās vienības, standartfrāzes vai trafaretus teikumus. Dzīvojot valodas vidē, daudzas parādības var uztvert un iegaumēt netieši — atsevišķu vārdu, vārdu savienojumu, frāžu un vienkāršu teikumu veidā un ar to pietiek, lai apmierinātu elementāras saziņas vajadzības. Skolotāja uzdevums ir rosināt atcerēties šīs valodas vienības, pareizi tās lietot un papildināt ar jauniem variatīvajiem modeļiem. Ja valodu māca cilvēkiem, kas nav saistīti ar valodas lietošanas vidi, tad nodarbībā apgūtās frāzes bieži ir vienīgais aktīvais saziņas materiāls, tāpēc tās ir jāatlasa sevišķi rūpīgi. Tādā gadījumā valodas vienību mācīšanu labāk saistīt ar gramatikas struktūras izpratni un eksponentu iegaumēšanā ievērot stingru pakāpenību un ierobežotu tematisko vai situatīvo izvēli.

Joprojām aktuāls ir jautājums par dominējošo pieeju valodas mācīšanās: vispirms rūpīgi apgūt valodas teorētisko sistēmu un tad pāriet pie reālas prakses vai praktizēt aktīvu sarunvalodu un tad pakāpeniski izprast mācāmās valodas struktūru. Daudzu lielo svešvalodu mācīšanas prakse ir pierādījusi, ka starp abām pieejām ir jāatrod "zelta vidusceļš" — jāsamēro valodas sistēmas elementu abstrakta izpratne ar komunikatīvām situācijām atbilstošu valodas vienību izvēli un nostiprināšanu aktīvā runā. Ja skolēns/studenta sistemātiski un regulāri mācās gramatiku, viņa mācīšanās motivāciju var padziļināt atklājums, ka daudzas parādības iespējams izteikt "bez gramatikas", prasmīgi izmantojot situācijai atbilstošus valodas izteiksmes līdzekļus. Savukārt tie, kuri cer valodu iemācīties tikai no standartizētām frāzēm, reālajā saziņas stratēģijā itin bieži sastapsies ar daudzām valodiskām problēmām.

Komunikatīvo funkciju universālās dabas un daudzveidības dēļ gandrīz visas valodas funkcijas un to eksponentus var tālāk paplašināt un attīstīt sarežģītākos lietojuma līmeņos, tāpēc ir svarīgi konstatēt kādu "atskaites punktu" "nosacītu minimumu", ar kuru pabeigt noteiktu valodas mācīšanas pakāpi vai posmu. Ir jāatbrīvojas no agrāko gadu virspusējiem priekšstatiem par valodas mācīšanu vispār, kad nebija gandrīz nekādu kvalitatīvo rādītāju, kas apliecinātu skolēna/studenta lingvistiskās kompetences attīstību. Bieži vienu un to pašu tēmu ar līdzīgu saturu mācīja gandrīz visos valodas kursu līmeņos, tāpēc skolēniem/studentiem bieži zuda interese vai pašapjaušma par to, kādā pakāpē un kvalitātē viņi valodu ir spējīgi lietot. Mūsdienīgā valodas mācīšanas kursā jāietver mērķtiecīgi izstrādāts apgūstamās vielas jēdzieniskais kodols, kurā dominē skolēncentrēta pieeja un kas piemērots noteiktam cilvēku grupas vecuma, zināšanu un prasmju līmenim.

Komunikatīvās funkcijas visos valodas lietošanas līmeņos iespējams variēt ar dažādas sarežģītības pakāpes eksponentiem, izpildot gan to pamatzuddevumu nodrošināt vismaz minimālo saziņu un paplašinot runātāja lingvistisko pieredzi dziļākā valodas lietošanas pakāpē (izmantojot ekstralingvistiskus, paralingvistiskus, metalingvistiskus izteiksmes līdzekļus, resp., mācot arī interakcionālo komunikāciju).

Valodas mācības saturā mērķtiecīgi jāizvēlas tādi elementi, kas realizējami noteikta komunikatīvā mērķa sasniegšanai. Pārlietu sarežģītas formas, nepiemērota valodas līdzekļu izvēle rada dažādas psiholoģiskās barjeras, pārslodzi, nevajadzīgas, bezmērķīgas informācijas uzkrāšanu, mācīšanās motivācijas mazināšanos un nelietderīgi pavadītu laiku auditorijā "Sliekšņa līmenis" ir atvērts valodisko vienību kopums, no kura skolotājs izvēlas tādu materiālu, kas auditorijai, programmai un reāliem valodas mācīšanas mērķiem. Lai iesācēju programmas veidošanā skolotājam būtu vieglāk orientēties daudzveidīgajās runas situācijās un to eksponentos, sākotnēji būtu jāievēro sekojoši materiāla izvēles nosacījumi:

1. Saziņā izprast komunikatīvo mērķi un lietot tam atbilstošos valodiskos izteiksmes līdzekļus:

#### 1) kontaktveidošanas (sociatīvā) –

ar nolūku pievērst runas adresāta uzmanību, veidot, attīstīt un noslēgt sarunu, prast atbildēt uz jautājumiem, pašam pareizi formulēt jautājumus un izmantot runas situācijai atbilstošu leksiku un komunikatīvās vienības (piemēram, meklēt apstiprinājumu – *Vai Jūs esat ...Jā, es esmu .../Nē, es neesmu ...*, lūkot un sniegt informāciju – *Sakiet, cik ir pulkstenis? – Pulkstenis ir divpadsmit.*, lūgt palīdzību – *Vai Jūs man nepateiktu, kur ir ..., Palīdziet man, lūdzu, ...* u.tml.

#### 2) apelatīvā –

kad runātājs vēršas pie adresāta stingri reglamentētās starppersonu attiecībās un situācijā, ievēro komunikācijas norises faktam atbilstošu izturēšanos, runas standartus, adresāta stāvokli, sociālās lomas un konkrētās pragmatiskās vajadzības (piemēram, kafejnīcā, veikalā, pie ārsta, mācību iestādē u.c.. *Dodiet man, lūdzu..., Sakiet man, lūdzu... Cik maksā...?, Vai drīkstu iziet? u.c.*). Šīs frāzes apgūst iztēlojoties un modelējot dažādas tipiskas situācijām, piemēram "Iepirkšanās veikalā", "Apkalpošana kafejnīcā", "Biļešu iegāde kasē" u.c.

### 3) **voluntārā** –

prasme komunikācijā izteikt pavēli, pamudinājumu, vajadzības, nepieciešamību, gribu u.c. īsus un precīzus izteikumus (piemēram, ricības ieteikums – *Lasiet!*, *Domā!*; aizliegums – *Tur neej! Peldēties aizliegts!*; vajadzība – *Man vajag/nepieciešams...u.c.*

### 4) **emotīvā** –

prasme komunikācijā izteikt emocionālo stāvokli, jūtas vai psiholoģisko noskaņojumu — prieku, bēdas, sašutumu, nosodījumu, komplimentu u.c., pareizi un mērķtiecīgi lietot runā emocionālos iestarpinājumus, aizvietotājus vārdus un izteicienus. *Cik jauki!*, *Man ir prieks!* *Neticami!* *Šausmas!*, *Vai, dieņņ!* u.c.

2. Prast replikā izteikt svarīgākos attieksmju veidus pret saņemto informāciju – piekrist kādam izteikumam (1), noliegt to (2), atbildēt izvairīgi, nenoteikti, paildzināt atbildes sniegšanu (3):

— *Šodien ir auksts laiks.*

(1) — *Jā, šodien ir auksts.*

(2) — *Nē, šodien nav auksts.*

(3) — *Nezinu gan. Varbūt...*

3. Prasme variēt replikas saturu un atkarībā no sarunas satura atbildēt ļoti īsi (1) vai lietot plašākas un sarežģītākas frāzes (2, 3, 4)

— *Kā tev klājas?*

(1) — *Labi!*

(2) — *Paldies, man iet labi!*

(3) — *Paldies, man klājas labi, un jums?*

(4) — *Man šobrīd tiešām iet labi un domāju, ka ies vēl labāk! Bet tev, kā dzirdēju, labi neiet!?*

4. Prasme atšķirt un saziņā lietot dažādus gramatiskos modeļus, ar kuriem izsaka līdzīgas vai tuvas nozīmes (konversācijas mācību kursā gan skolēnus/studentus varētu rosināt aktīvajā runā valodā izvēlēties un lietot vienu, bet saprast arī pārējos):

- (1) — *Mēs ejam caur mežu.*  
*Mēs ejam cauri mežam.*
- (2) — *Es eju ciemos pie drauga.*  
*Es apciemoju draugu.*  
*Es ciemojos draugu mājā. u.tml.*

7 Pārvaldīt svarīgākos neverbālās komunikācijas elementus atbilstoši standartsituācijai un izteikuma saturam (piemēram, apstiprinājums ar galvas mājieni, norāde uz objektu ar roku, žesti, lai parādītu kādu vārdos neizsakāmu priekšmetu, parādību u.tml.

Komunikatīvi orientēta pieeja ir svarīga mūsdienīgā valodas mācīšanas kursa sastāvdaļa — šobrīd arī latviešu valodai, kura ir jāmāca reālai lietošanai. Komunikatīvo funkciju un to eksponentu mērķtiecīga izmantošana paver skolotājam plašas un daudzveidīgas iespējas, kuras teorētiski vajadzētu apzināt arī latviešu valodas kā svešvalodas (vai otrās valodas) mācīšanas didaktikā.

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## Summary

Communicative functions are realized in their exponents or means of expression, i.e. in typical words, word combinations, expressions, phrases and sample sentences. They express the speaker's idea and determine the respective linguistic means in different communicative situations. The corresponding exponents are grouped in typifying

models widely applied in teaching different conversational themes in foreign language or second language training course.

The present article deals with problems of the communicative method contents and communicative strategies. Since this approach in teaching Latvian to foreigners has been introduced relatively recently, the questions regarding its contents and strategy have not been sufficiently investigated. However, the comprehension of the communicative situation and adaptation of appropriate linguistic expression means is one of the basic questions for communicative training orientation. In the course of training, various situations from real life and conversational themes should be introduced, and students should find the corresponding linguistic means and use these adequately. Attention should be paid to skilful application of listening comprehension strategies. The article points out several approaches and suggestions of communicative language teaching method, envisaged for the beginners' training course.

## Compounding in English and Latvian

Compounding (composition) is the joining together of several words which occur separately in a language to produce a new single form. Elements of compounding are present also in blending and there are similarities between compounding and affixation, most prominently seen in so called semi-affixes. Compounding is very common both in English and Latvian and extremely popular in some Germanic languages, e.g. German and Dutch. Icelandic for example turns not only most of the foreign compounds into loan translations but also prefers compounding of native components for translation of foreign stemwords, e.g. **fire-flight (rocket)**, **giant's apple (melon)**. This was to some extent true of Old English (See further: **leech-craft**, **gold hoard**) and Early Latvian too, when many new notions were expressed by means of interesting word combinations and compounds, later to be ousted by borrowings or derivatives: **meža zirgs (kamielis)**, **skolas-bērns (skolnieks)**, **zemes-strēķis (apgabals)**, **putru-ābols (ķirbis)**, **gāju-zvaigzne (planēta)**, **laiku grāmata (kalendārs)**, **biszāles ((šaujam)pulveris)**, **krievu ābols (gurķis)**, **Vāczemes ābols (citrons)**. The German tradition seems to have affected Latvian compounding pattern very much and compounding is the most productive word-formation type in Modern Latvian while second after affixation in English. Among the English neologisms composition accounts for 29.5%, thus being the primary word-formation pattern (Cannon, 1987: 279). Comparing with the two main contact languages compounding in Latvian is less common than in German but more popular than in Russian. Depending on the text type it can constitute from 3% of word use in Latvian fiction to more than 10% in science texts (Ahero, 1979). Compounding is less spread in Romanic languages, e.g. Spanish and French. As English has borrowed extensively from Latin and French, some of the early Anglo-Saxon compounds have disappeared **leech-craft** being superseded by **medicine** and **gold-hoard** by **treasure**.



Still others are unrecognizable today, e.g. the Old English **wer-eld** (*age of man*) with its modern meaning of *world*. Contact with the Romance languages has somewhat limited compounding in English in comparison with German.

In linguistics there is a long controversy as to the essence of compounding. There is no one formal criterion that can be used for a general definition of compounds in English. Various approaches have been suggested as concerns the main criteria of compounding. Usually structure, pronunciation and spelling are taken into account, but often the semantic aspect is involved (Quirk, 1972: 1020) to supplement the syntactic Transformational Generative approach (Levi, 1978), which did not see much difference between sentence and compound models. There exist also other definitions of compounding, for example, the language-independent one (Hacken, 1992), which is based on the relation between the elements of a compound and the behaviour of compounds in semantics and discourse.

The notion of compounds in English is broader than that in Latvian. Partly due to the rather flexible spelling system (see further) there is a mass of compounds which go in and out of the language according to need (Lint, 1983). This makes the borderline between compounds and free phrases rather vague.

Compounds in Latvian (unless neologisms) are generally suggestive of the "established compounds" as generally in Latvian the tendency to fuse is much stronger and stable units (especially two-component ones) tend to melt together in solid form.

In both Latvian and English compounds normally consist of two elements, while, for example, in German more extended compound structures are not infrequent, e.g. **Selbsterhaltungstrieb** — *self preservation instinct*, **Selbstanschlussfernsprechamt** — *automatic telephone exchange*, or the notorious **Vierwaldstattersee-schraubendampfschiffgesellschaft** — *Vier-wald-statter lake screw steam shipping agency*, **Kraftfahrzeugreparaturwerkstätten** (motor vehicle repair shop). For comparison Russian **rentgenoelektrokar-**

**diographicheskiy roentenoecardiographic.** There are occasional three and more stem compounds in English, too, yet they are not really characteristic of the language, (usually being lexicalized syntactic groups), e.g. **mother-in-law, deaf-and-dumb, good-for-nothing, commander-in-chief, aircraft-carrier, forget-me-not, stick-in-the-mud.** Latvian multi-component words are rarely lexicalized syntactic groups (those are of occasional character only) but mainly words of terminological character **fluorūdeņražskābe, pamatvidusskola, siltumvadītspēja, resorlaikraksts, saldskābmaize, viendīgļlapji, deviņvīruspēks.**

A huge number of English compounds and an increasing number of Latvian (internationalisms) are compounds which do not contain free forms but Latin and Greek elements — often called neoclassical compounds (Adams 1973: 31). In English linking of Greek stem with Latin one is quite widespread: **television (Greek tele + Latin visio), genocide (Gr.genos + L.cide).** English — a semihybrid language itself, has no constraints in coining hybrid compounds (Ayers, 1986), e.g. **battle-ax (Latin battle + native ax)** though in the past they were viewed as barbarisms. As international compounds are borrowed in large numbers in Latvian this trait is widely spread in Latvian too. Modern Latvian though preferring non-hybrid forms in fact does not have constraints on hybrid compounds either, e.g. **ultraskaņa, infra (Latin ultra or infra plus Latvian skaņa), anti viela, antidaļiņas (Greek anti plus Latvian viela, daļiņas), augstfrekvence (Latvian augsts plus Latin frequentia), makrolīmenis, makrostāvoklis (Greek makro plus Latvian līmenis or stāvoklis), aerofotouzņēmums (Greek aero plus Greek foto plus Latvian uzņēmums).** The hybrid formations in contrast to English are generally words of terminological character only. Basic stock has few hybrids **lielskungs (Latvian liels plus Germanic kunig), augstskola (Latvian augsts + Germanic, schole, from Latin, Greek), rātsnams (German Rat + Latvian nams),** though a tendency to use some semiaffixes with Latvian stems is growing (See further).

Compounds can be divided in the following way:

### 1. Proper compounds

- English

1. In English the two stems are typically joined together without any connecting elements, e.g. **wallpaper, textbook, teapot, gunboat, airport** so they can be viewed as compounds of free forms. Here one should include also the open compounds: **business man, world view, coffee cup**.

2. The bound or linked forms in English occur relatively rarely, e.g. (infix -o-, -i-, etc.) **Anglo-American, Afro-American, Balto-Slavic, socio-economic, politico-social, speedometer, tragicomic handicraft**; old Genitive **boatsman, statesman, sportsman, dog's-ear** or old plural **beeswax, salesman**, are rather uncharacteristic.

3. Compounds with linking elements — usually prepositions or conjunctions **matter-of-fact, bread and butter, gin and tonic, good-for-nothing, son-in-law, up-and-coming, forget-me-not**.

- Latvian

In Latvian the joining of two stems usually takes some additional elements or changes, i.e. the forms are normally bound:

1. Loss of ending of the first component, e.g. **vienalga, mugurkauls, zilpelēks, klavierkoncerts, biezpienmaize, upmala, vējdzirnavas, skāblietus, krūšturis, krūškabata, laikraksts, trešdaļa, kontrolsvari, kuļmašīna, viņdien, labprāt, nākošnedēļ** (more than 90% of cases). The first components in genitive of 1st, 2nd and 4th declension and plural normally drop the ending **ābolkūka, kājsargs, saulsardzene**. The ending is also dropped if the second component starts with a vowel **darbaudzināšana, kultūrainava**.

2. The first component retains its genitive or accusative endings. There may be vowel loss, e.g. **rudzupuķe, dažubrīd, galapunkts, sēt(a)s-vidus, katr(u)reiz, sniegavīrs, acumirkļis, jūrastrīce, krūšutēls**.

3. The first component retains nominative case ending, e.g. **lielskungs, trīdesmit, vecaistēvs**.

4. The use of infix **-o-** in Latvian is characteristic of compound loans **bioķīmija, socioloģija**, in which the first, second or both elements are of international wordstock, even if compounding itself takes place in Latvian: **elektrosakari, velotūrisms, velobrauciens, politoloģija, magnetoterapija, magnetofons**. There are some parallel forms **magnētterapija, magnetoterapija** especially in the new borrowings. In these cases a loss of ending in the first component is preferred if the second component is an independently used word in Latvian (Skujiņa, 1993).

**2. Derivational compounds** where a suffix keeps the two stems together — without it the second element does not exist separately:

- English

Very many of these would be hyphenated in English, e.g. **kind-hearted, high-minded, absent-minded, eye-opener, latecomer, blue-eyed**.

- Latvian

In Latvian these would be the predominantly old nominal compounds like **labdaris, mijkrēslis, kājgalis, galvgalis, zeltkalis, plikadīda, garlaicība, sārtvaidzis, gaišmatis, mežmale**, (often connected with a change in gender), and words functioning in attributive function only, e.g. **pieczaru, divstāvu, apļveida, četrmotoru**. Some traits of this type are similar to the confixative derivatives.

### 3. Compound phrases.

- English

In English compound phrases are widespread, especially when used attributively, e.g. **do-it-yourself idea, Alice-in-the-Wonderland idea**. This phenomenon often affects free word groups which when used attributively may turn into compounds, e.g. **old age** but **old-age pensioner, last minute** but **last-minute change**. Compound phrases can reach considerable length, e.g.

None of this **can-you-get-by-with-half-a-ball-of-string** nonsense. (Ian McEwan. *The Innocent*)

- Latvian

In Latvian this is a rare and always occasional phenomenon, possessing certain stylistic effect:

Rūdītais **lai - ar - kādi - vēji - pūš** politiķis Nikolajs, jeb kā viņu mīļi dēvē Uldis Ģērmanis, Koļa Neilands... (Diena, 7.3.1994.)

Tieši tādā mērā kādā dzeja ir nelietderīga un bez saistībām, tā ir nepieciešama, jo tā sniedz cilvēkiem priekšstatu par **realitāti - aiz - realitātes**. (Grāmatu Apskats, 1994, 13. 1., lpp.)

Mūsdienų zinātniekiem, kad klonēšanas briesmas un **sazin - vēl - kas** draud, noteikti nebūs grūti panākt, ka katra meitene dzimtu jau ar vijoli rokās (Diena; Izklaide, 2.1.1999.)

"Laima sev raksturīgajā **bet - es - taču - arī - esmu - zvaigzne** manierē atbild (Diena, 20.1.1999.)

**4. Reduplicative compounds** are words formed from a repetition of a radical element in an older word. Some linguists set up reduplication as a separate word-formation type, but as the result is somewhat reminiscent of composition it is usually viewed under compounding (Marchand 1968). In English reduplication mainly concerns nouns and adjectives. Reduplication is based on repetition and repetition is a basic method of emphasizing something, e.g. *The noise got **louder and louder**. He is such a **goody-goody**.*

1. Reduplicative compounds proper are mostly based on onomatopoeic stem repetition, e.g. **hush-hush, murmur, pooh-pooh, blah-blah, ga-ga, pretty-pretty, goody goody, hear-hear, beriberi, tut-tut, tsk-tsk nursery puff-puff, quack-quack**

In Latvian reduplicative compounds proper are practically all of nursery language and imitate the sounds of animals:

**ņam ņam, tuk tuk, vau-vau, mū-mū, cibric-cibric, plunču-plunču, tū-tū, zum-zum, oi - oi - oi.**

There are other reduplicative compounds (adjectives) where repetition of the stem carries intensifying function **vecvecals**, **sensenais**, **sūrsūrais**, similar to the free reduplication, e.g. **mazs mazs vīriņš**. Some of the words are stable in the language others are of occasional character. Similarly occasional reduplication can be applied to verbs **skrietin skriet**, **bāztin bāzt**.

2. Ablaut combinations are forms consisting of one basic morpheme which is repeated in the other constituent with a different medial or final vowel, besides the member containing a higher vowel always precedes the one that has a lower level (Marchand, 1968:429), e.g. **sing song**, **chit-chat**, **dilly-dally**, **knick-knack**, **zig-zag**, **ding-dong**, **pingpong**, **flip-flop**, **tip-top**, **criss-cross**, **riff-raff**, **mish-mash**, **tittle-tattle**, **tick-tock**, **see-saw**, **tip-top**, **slip slap**, **shilly-shally**, **dilly-dally**.

In Latvian ablaut combinations are characteristic of sound imitation words designating some activity. There are many of them, and their origin is rather old — already in folksongs (Ozols, 1993: 116): **čibu-čabu**, **tik-tak**, **piču paču**, **ciku caku**, **šņiku-šņaku**, **tu-tū**, **pliku-plaku**, **klīpu klapu**, **ņīgu-ņegu**, **brīkš brākš**, **briku braku**, **limpadu lampadu**:

*Visi ēd no šņiku šņaku,*

*Pats cep citas pliku plaku. (Rainis. Kopotie raksti. 1949. 6. sēj. 193. lpp.)*

Apart from the mentioned ones there are numerous occasional ones.

3. Rhyme combinations are forms with a change of the initial consonants. These forms may be accidental or may often consist of two meaningless or fanciful elements joined in a rhyme, e.g. **humdrum**, **hurry-scurry**, **hob-nob**, **teeny-weeny**, **willy-nilly**, **higgledy-piggledy**, **harum-scarum**, **nit-wit**, **boogie-woogie**, **helter-skelter**, **hocus-pocus**, **hanky-panky**, **mumbo-jumbo**, **walkie-talkie**, **hotshot**, **fender-bender**, **bow-vow**, **razzle-dazzle**, **jet set**, **fat-cat**, **okey-dokey**, **rat-a-tat**, **hodge podge**.

English rhyming slang also contributes to compounding with the binominal phrases like **lion's lair** for *chair*, **lean and fat** for *hat*, etc.

(Franklyn, 1960) as these phrases cannot be split or changed, though here the rhyme is not between the components but between the sense word and the last component.

Rhyme combinations are present also in Latvian, some frequently used ones are to be found already in folk songs (Ozols, 1961) (sometimes triplication is used): **opsasā, trādi-rīdi, aijā žūžū, oliņ boliņ, hokuspokus, trallallā, kikerigū, murmulis, oki doki.**

Further we look at the four aspects of compounding.

### **Semantics.**

Semantic aspect is very important, as in many languages compound structures are widely different and orthography and phonology are not always sufficient to determine the status of a compound, e.g. French **pomme de terre (apple of earth = potato)**. Many Latvian proper compounds, for example, have similar parallel word groups: **ceļa mala — ceļmala**, usually the word group has additional meanings (Ahero, 1965: 18), the compound is more precise or particular, **augstceltne — augsta celtne**, there is a slight nuance differentiation **jauna celtne — jaunceltne, lauku saimniecība — lauksaimniecība**.

Semantically compounds in both languages can be endocentric — denoting a subclass of the items denoted by one of their elements, like English **fingerprints, airport, haircut** and Latvian **svētdienskola, augstskola** and exocentric (bahuvrihi) compounds which are not hyponyms of either of their elements: **brainwash, butterfly, bluestocking** and Latvian **vienalga, ugunsgrēks, pilsēta, lielgabals**. Endocentric compounds are normally motivated while exocentric — unmotivated (idiomatic). Historically many of the latter, though, are also motivated.

In the process of composition demotivation often takes place. It is an etymological isolation when a word loses its link with other words with which it was formerly connected and associated. Thus the compound loses association with the original components and is usually not perceived as a compound anymore. The process of demotivation begins with semantic change, sometimes followed by graphical and

sound form change when the new meaning and structure predominates.

Thus in English **lady** (**hlāf dige**) (bread kneeder) **lord** (**hlāf weard**) (bread keeper) have undergone the full change while **already** (**all ready**) has changed the spelling but not pronunciation. **Breakfast** (**break fast**) has retained the original spelling, though it has fused together, while changing pronunciation.

In Latvian one can mention **pilsēta** (**pils sēta**), **vientulis** (**viens tulis**-related to **tūļa**), **vienalga** (**viena alga**), **paldies** (**palīdz Dievs**), **diemžēl** (**Dievam žēl**), **diezin** (**Dievs zina**).

### Structure.

Structurally compounds can be characterized by a specific order in which components follow one another. English and Latvian has a fixed order of compound components and the second component in two-component words is normally the structural and semantic centre of the compound which preconditions grammatical and semantic features of the first component. Thus in both languages determinative compounds predominate with the first component characterizing the second, unless they are reduplicative, copulative, e.g. **diennakts**, **kurlmēms**, **gaismēna** or of other exceptional cases.

English has a wide variety of stem composition, yet exceedingly dominated by the noun + noun combination. Compounding in general is mainly used in noun coinage: among compound neologisms more than 80% are nouns. (One should take into account that in English conversion makes practically any word combinations possible, e.g. **an also-ran**.) The most usual composition patterns are the following:

#### Nouns:

noun + noun **litterbin**, **dustbinman**, **swordfish**, **gasworks**, **price-reduction**

noun + (verb +er/or) **bottle-opener**, **radio-operator**, **rope-dancer**



noun + verbal noun **windsurfing, faultfinding, brainwashing, sleepwalking**

noun + (verb conversion) **hand-shake, table talk, gunfight, night fall, haircut, bee-sting, rainfall**

adj + noun **blackboard, blackshirt, greengrocer, pale-face**

verb + noun **pickpocket, cut-throat, hovercraft, crash-helmet, watchdog**

adverb + noun **aftershock, overcoat, afterbirth, afterlife**

adverb + (verb conversion) **downpour, outbreak, upkeep**

numeral + noun **first-aid, three wheeler, four-eyes**

pronoun + noun **he-goat, she-devil**

verbal noun + noun **sleeping-bag, sleeping-pill, working party, drinking-water, hiding-place**

Conversion cases of phrasal verbs: **play-off, hangover, passer-by, onlooker**

### Adjectives:

noun + adjective **threadbare, world-wide, sky-high, oil-rich, duty-free**

noun + participle 2 **gas-heated, home-made, moth-eaten, man-made, red-lipped**

noun + participle 1 **rent-paying, peace-loving, heart-breaking**

numeral + noun **first-class, second-hand, four-stroke**

adjective/adverb + participle 2 **far-fetched, widespread, well-read, thunder-struck**

adjective/adverb + participle 1 **hard-working, far-reaching, everlasting**

adjective/adverb + adjective **dark-blue, pale-green, bitter-sweet, Anglo-American, overanxious, over-sensitive**

There is a strong tendency to use various structures in attributive function: **long-distance (runner), run-of-the-day, fingers-only, all-weather, state-of-the-art.**

### Adverbs:

There are few compound adverbs and no strong models: **double-quick, off-hand, over-night, meanwhile, whenever, sometimes, fourfold.**

### Verbs:

There are few compound verbs, usually they are cases of conversion from nominal compounds or backformations:

verb + verb	<b>typewrite</b> from <b>typewriter</b> ,
noun + verb	<b>brainwash, lip-read, spotlight, stage-manage</b> from <b>stage-manager, playact</b>
adjective + verb	<b>dryclean, whitewash, blacklist</b>
adverb + verb	<b>overdo, underestimate, outlive</b>

### Pronouns:

There are few compound pronouns **anything, everyone, somebody.**

### Numerals:

Numeral compounds generally consist of numerals: **twenty-five, seventeenth.**

### Conjunctions:

**Onto, into, out of.**

Latvian has a broad system of componential make-up models of compounds consisting of the following components:

### Nouns:

noun + noun	<b>valstsvīrs, sētsvidus, darbietilpība, pirkstgali, sērkociņš</b>
adj + noun	<b>vecāmāte, garausis, sārtvaidzis, gaišalus</b>
pronoun + noun	<b>viņpasaule, mūsmājas</b>
numeral + noun	<b>trešdaļa, pirmapstrāde</b>
verb (stem, participle, Infinitive) + noun	<b>kuļmašina, sakāmvārds, dzīvotspēja, ilg(t)spēja</b>
adverb + noun	<b>mājupceļš, atpakaļceļš, klātesamība, prombūtne</b>

There is wide use of international elements (semiaffixes) in coining new terms both in prepositive and postpositive position (or as first or second elements). e.g. **aero-**, **avio-**, **fono-**, **-grāfs**, **-grāfija**, **-gramma**, **-logs**, **-tēka**: **aerodroms**, **aerodinamika**, **aviobumba**, **aviopasts**, **fonotēka**, **fonogramma**, **fonostudija**, etc.

#### Adjectives:

adjective + adjective **kurlmēms**, **labsirdīgs**, **ātrdarbīgs**, **gaišredzīgs**,  
**vecuvecais**

pronoun + adjective **visvarens**, **dažnedažāds**

noun + adjective **brīnumskaists**, **draudpilns**, **mantkārs**,  
**salizturīgs**,

adverb + adjective **tumšzils**

numeral+ adjective **pirmšķirīgs**, **otrrreizējs**, **četrkājains**

Among the adjectival compounds in Latvian there are very many translation loans from German: **pasaulslavens**, **sniegbalts**, **debeszils**, where the first nominal element describes or details the second adjectival component. This noun + adjective structure was occasionally viewed as unacceptable (Endzelīns, 1951), yet it is productive and it seems there can be no serious objections to this structure.

#### Verbs:

adverb + verb **garāmiet**, **prombraukt**

noun/ adjective + verb **pilnvarot**, **godalgot**, **labpatikt**

Verbs are generally prefixed so composition is not so popular.

#### Adverbs:

noun + adverb **vietvietām**, **diendienā**

adjective + noun **dažubrīd**, **labprāt**

pronoun + adverb/ noun **šorīt**, **šovakar**, **šonedēļ**, **citkārt**

verb (participle) + noun **nākošnedēļ**, **nākamgad**

numeral + noun **pirmdien**, **vienmēr**, **otrrreiz**

adverb + adverb/ noun **tikdaudz**, **vakarnakt**

In other word classes compounding is less relevant, though occasionally applied:

Numerals, numeral + numeral **piecpadsmi, sešdesmi, piecsimt, četrūkstoš**

Pronouns, particles + pronoun **jebkurš, ikkatrs, ikviens, neviens**

Conjunctions **tiklīdz, kolīdz, turpretī**

Prepositions **ārpus, leļpus, šaipus.**

## Phonology.

Pronunciation is one of the criteria that help differentiating compounds from phrases. English compounds usually acquire a new stress pattern. The usual options are:

1. one common stress on the first component, e.g. **claptrap, hothouse, dashboard**
2. more often there is double stress with a primary and secondary stress, e.g. **walk-on, white-collar**

In some cases stress may vary according to the part of speech of the compound: **overwork** (verb and noun) as well as sometimes it may differentiate two meanings of one compound: **mankind** 1. human race, 2. men. There is also a stress difference between British and American English.

In Latvian a compound is a phonetically bound unit and the stress practically always falls on the first component (except in some compound pronouns and numerals).

In spoken speech stress helps to differentiate between the free phrase and the compound:

**'ceļa 'mala — 'ceļmala**

## Spelling.

Spelling in Latvian is one of the criteria for compound and phrase differentiation, while only a partial criterion in English. The spelling of compounds — separately or together — is an inconsistent one in English. With different dictionaries and different authors the spelling of the same words varies. Thus the same combination can be spelled either together (solid compounds) **headmaster, airline, loudspeaker;**

with a hyphen (hyphenated compounds) **head-master, air-line, loud-speaker**; or with a break between the words (open compounds) **head master, air line, loud speaker**. This may cause great problems for lexicography and has to be kept in mind, e.g. **timelag, time-lag and time lag** (Jackson, 1988: 3) Moreover the types of spelling do not usually indicate different degrees of semantic fusion, e.g. **common sense, commonsensical; blue whale, bluefish, bluebird, bluepencil, blueprint; the White House**.

The general tendency is to have solid compounds when the components are short, e.g. **teapot, blackbird**, while those that would look strange if combined are likely to be open e.g. **coffee cup**. Also, the older the component the more likely it is to be solid which points to a gradual and slow evolution towards the solid form of composition. But beyond that the traditional practice appears to be "When in doubt, use a hyphen" (Oxford, 1992: 245).

In Latvian uncertainty in spelling of compounds lasted up to the end of the 19th century and beginning of 20th century. Until then the German tradition was mainly employed (Bergmane, 1988: 99) — generally more compounds were written separately than today or double hyphen (=) was used which is not the tradition now, e.g. **Preekscha=Sihme, Deenas=Widdus, Karra=Spehks**, (in the Bible). From 1880 A.Stērste "Latviešu valodas mācība" it was determined that compound elements are to be written together if they constitute one meaning and the stress lies on the first word. This is the general rule adhered to. The few exceptions would concern mainly the reduplicative compounds (see above). Smaller and particular problems have been dealt with later and one can consider the spelling of Latvian compounds as rather well codified and normalized. ●

In Latvian there is a distinct historical tendency for phrases to turn into compounds: **kara vīrs - karavīrs, medus mēnesis - medusmēnesis, zilā zeķe - zilzeķe, mietu pilsonis - mietpilsonis, dons žuāns - donžuāns:**

... *jo mietu pilsoņiem... Ludermands savu "Sodu" sarakstījis ( Baltijas Vēstnesis, 1894, 83.)*

...dēvēdams viņu par Cīrulenes un Elku muižas **Donu Žuānu un slepkavu** ( J. Janševskis. Dzimtene, 4. )

This becomes apparent when viewing older sources: **caurais vējš (caurvējš), vēja dzirnas (vējdzirnavas), acīm redzot (acīmredzot)** in Stenders' grammar, **aču mirklis (acumirkļis), dzerama nauda (dzeramnauda), sakāms vārds (sakāmvārds)** (Mancelius, 1638), but can be felt also in Modern Latvian. Most two-component terms tend to take the form of a solid compound from the moment of coinage, even when the phonological aspect seems to interfere: **ilg(t)spēja, skāb(j)lietus, matricprinteris**.

Also the modern tendencies seem to be similar in both languages — there is a widespread use of semi-affixes or pseudo-stems (first or second components) which seem to massproduce large quantities of neologisms (Bušs, 1986) and occasional words of the type of **quasihemidemisemiquaver** or simpler and more usual ones, e.g.

<b>-proof</b>	<b>shockproof, bombproof, kissproof, foolproof</b>
<b>-friendly</b>	<b>reader-friendly, user-friendly, environment-friendly, computer-friendly</b>
<b>-burger</b>	<b>hamburger, beefburger, fishburger, beanburger, cheeseburger</b>
<b>-pot</b>	<b>crackpot, fusspot, sexpot, tinpot, gluepot, fleshpot, rumpot</b>
<b>para-</b>	<b>parasailing, parascending, paranormal</b>
<b>Euro-</b>	<b>Europarliament, Eurojet, Eurofighter, Eurocredit, Eurofarmer, Eurotunnel</b>
<b>post-</b>	<b>post-communist, post-modernist, post-boomer, postworld</b>

E.g. an excerpt from Financial Times article May 17, 1994: *Tokyo banks tire of **Euro-mess**. Japanese banks are experiencing a bad case of **Euro-phobia**.. anything which starts with 'Euro' ends up in a mess...Large European projects such as **Eurotunnel** and **Euro Disney** have become big disappointments.*

or from 'Time' 1992, 52: **Euro sclerosis II** *On the eve of 1993 and the advent of the E.C's Single Market, Europhoria has been replaced by Euroangst.*

There are fewer desemantized second components of this type in Latvian, mainly semi-prefixes or first components, which constitute more than 90% of the compounds (less than 10% of the compounds have a first component which does not repeat in another compound) ((Ahero, 1979). The same to lesser degree is true of the second elements (semi-suffixes):

<b>pseido-</b>	<b>pseidozinātne, pseidokultūra, pseidohumānisms, pseidouzvara</b>
<b>pus-</b>	<b>pusatbilde, pusnodevība, pusfolklorā, puskompromiss, pusbads</b>
<b>vien-</b>	<b>vienpatnis, viensliežu, vienvadība, vienvaldība, vienveida, viendabīgs</b>
<b>paš-</b>	<b>pašizziņa, pašcieņa, pašapsūdzība</b>
<b>maz-</b>	<b>mazlauciņš, mazlietotājs, mazšķūnītis</b>
<b>retro-</b>	<b>retromūzika, retroizstāde, retrokomēdija, retrotoņi</b>
<b>super-</b>	<b>superdarbiņš, superideja, supermarionete, superspēcīgs,</b>
<b>eiro -</b>	<b>eironauda, eirodomāšana, eirovirziens, eiropārvalde, eirogars,</b>
<b>kop-</b>	<b>kopsaimniecība, kopgalds, kopdarbs, kopsaucējs</b>
<b>-veida</b>	<b>āķveida, cigārveida, gripveida, sirdsveida, trīsstūrveida, tārpeida</b>
<b>-veidīgs</b>	<b>vienveidīgs, daudzveidīgs, vēžveidīgs, masveidīgs, plānveidīgs</b>

As mentioned above the semi-affixes occasionally enter into hybrid compounds: **antiviela, infraskaņa, makrostāvoklis, diskodeja, diskomūzika, diskomeitene, diskolaikmets, diskolaukums, pseidobērnišķīgs, pseudoizpratne, retrodziesma, retroatkāpe** etc.

Of late one can note quite many occasional (and stylistically charged) compounds sometimes having more than two components: (Veisbergs,

1997; 1998) **Natoremonts, fotoaugstskola, sportseksbalets, seksamatierfoto, popkorntūta, ultraseksīgs, vešmašina, jāļautiņi, eksvīrs**

*Eihmaņa sarīkotajam natoremontam būs sekas* (Diena, 13.10. 1998).

### **Ratio.**

Contrastive analysis of parallel texts shows that in a translation from German the ratio of compounds is 100 to 8 which means of German compounds only 8% are translated as compounds. About 70% of German compounds turn into word groups in Latvian, about 10% into simple root words or derivatives. More detailed analysis of the semantic processes behind this phenomenon has been provided by I. Celmrauga (1969).

Several studies of compounding in English and Latvian produced the following results. In parallel and paired, binary translated texts the number of compounds used in English exceeded that in Latvian by about 30% (J. K. Jerome, J. Galsworthy, R. Kipling).

An experiment with an English translation into Latvian shows that 25-35% of English compounds turn into Latvian compounds, about 35% into a word groups, about 5% into rootwords or derivatives. However, a number of compounds are created during the translation having no counterparts in the English original. As a result the Latvian text normally stayed at some 25% below the general "norm" (of being 30% "poorer") in compounds than the English text.

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## Summary

Compounding exists and is well spread and productive in both English and Latvian. There is a large number of identical compounds both in structure and meaning. These are the internationally widespread words, usually of Latin and Greek origin, where the constituents border on semi-affixes. Moreover, the compound types (proper, derivational, phrases, reduplicative) are similar (seen in translation). In both languages the qualifying component normally takes the first component place. Both languages have endocentric and exocentric compounds. In both demotivation of compounds has been historically relevant. The types of connectives used, component order and componential make-up are similar, though their distribution varies. In English the simple composition (components are free forms) as well as noun + noun type predominates. In Latvian compound elements usually consist of bound forms. Loss of ending of the first component is most frequent. Most Latvian compounds correspond to the model adj + noun.

In Latvian spelling, structure semantics and pronunciation are the criteria for compound identification, in English the phonological, semantic and structural aspects are similarly valid, while orthography cannot be viewed as a determining criterion. Thus English is characterized by absence of formal signs of composition, difficulty of separating compounds from phrases.

In both languages verbal compounds are not widespread. Latvian compensates this relative shortage by prefixation, English mainly by use of postposition (which is similar as to the semantic result to Latvian prefixation) as well as by conversion where noun or adjective compounds are converted into verbs (**handcuff — to handcuff**, **blacklist — to blacklist**), backformation (**baby-sitter — to baby-sit**). Both languages show a close link between affixation and compounding. English has freer, more individual and occasional compounds, not present in dictionaries, especially of the attributive type: **birth-related**, **mind-controlled**, **sun-drenched**, **much-needed** as well as extended compound phrases which are very rare in Latvian.

## Translating across Power Differentials

In this paper I would like to offer a reconciliatory approach towards the allegedly hegemonistic aspirations of the so-called major languages and cultures. I would like to question if their assimilationist ethics towards the so-called minority discourse is as pronounced **in all** contexts as some postcolonial translation scholars proclaim. Hasn't translation been demonized, as Douglas Robinson asks (1998:106). Having been involved in the compilation and translation of anthology of Latvian literature, I tend to see a major language, in our case English, as a "gateway language" for opening up to other cultures rather than a tool of power.

Representing a culture of undeniable marginality, I was and still am fascinated by post-colonial theories of translation which see translation as ideology-driven manipulation. Over the last five years translation studies have been considerably affected by Lawrence Venuti who vehemently claims that translation is an unequal cultural exchange where the minor culture is exposed to the hegemony of the major culture. Consequently translation enacts an imperialistic domestication and exclusion of a cultural other, fostering values and policies grounded in inequality and exploitation (1998:89).

Indeed, there are well-known cases revealing the tendency to negate the strangeness of the foreign work. I would like to mention the Peter Hoeg case, a Danish writer whose novel "Miss Smilla's Feeling for Snow" in its British translation and "Smilla's Sense of Snow" in its American translation has now become an international bestseller. At least in the icebound Northern part of Europe, we all followed with bated breath the success story of Miss Smilla. **She did it** irrespective of her impossible name, irrespective of too much ice and snow all around, her odd expression and tone of voice which is not "normal" As Merete Reis, Peter Hoeg's Danish publisher tells us, it was not

easy. Initially letters were not answered, carefully prepared summaries and translated excerpts remained unread. Afterwards there were requirements "to straighten and smoothen and adjust the peculiar text to fit the standard", e.g. to cut out, say, 100 pages of ice and snow and things which would only frighten the reader in a more sunny part of Europe. It was only because "the gentle, sweet and modest young Dane was self-assured and not to be pushed around" that the book survived in the shape we know it today. And even after the book became an international bestseller and publishers from all over the world suddenly found their way to the remotest corners of the Frankfurt Book Fair, at the proposal to publish all the wonderful writers and marvelous books that deserve to be translated into the so-called major languages, made the faces go blank again. No, not a woman, not a middle aged writer, not somebody writing in this or that style about this or that topic. They wanted someone like, you know, like Peter Hoeg ("Danish Literary Magazine" 1998: 36-38).

True, in America Miss Smilla had to fight harder as, apart from revision or deletion of discursive features that emphasize cultural differences, requirements for political correctness had to be met. "Miss" was out of the question but then just Smilla after all is not that bad considering that Andersen's little mermaid was not allowed to have white arms, as anything that can remotely be considered racist is subject to scrutiny irrespective of whether the 19th century author ever thought in these terms or not. The little mermaid was deprived even further - the prince is allowed to sleep with his head on the mermaid's shoulder, not on her breast, as he does in the original and also, for example, Latvian translation, to keep safe of sexual allusions. Well, one has to be careful, considering how sensitized the American citizen is today to sexual frivolities. Thus cautious, fluent style is adopted in order to accommodate the majoritarian target reader. In this case the English language is used as part and tool of American culture. Andersen's English translator William Glyn Jones complains that Andersen's American publishers ignored his objections and the only thing he could do was to withdraw his name from his own translation (1993).

My contention is, however, that English as a target language may be used in a variety of culture situations which are not always so easy to identify. The existence of variety of Englishes has blurred the boundaries of Anglophone culture to the extent that the language – culture unity is disrupted.

I will resort now to another case study. In 1997 we completed work on compiling and also translating an anthology of Latvian literature into English. Our aim was cultural, naturally not commercial, to create a work of minor literature within the major language. This anthology under an exotic title “Bear’s Ears” (compiled and edited by Ieva Zauberga, Andrejs Veisbergs and Andrew Chesterman) has been published by Helsinki University Press. A rather typical arrangement for minority literary works which are as a rule perceived as difficult, mysterious, inscrutable, esoteric and in need of a small circle of intellectuals to interpret them. Naturally to be published in minuscule quantities for a specialist audience by small presses and academic publishing houses. The purpose of this book was to create a representative picture of Latvian literature from its origins to 1940 (the Soviet invasion) and offer it to as mixed an audience as “the rest of the world” This anthology was created in response to the interest in Latvian culture and literature expressed by a number of visitors of Riga, mainly intellectuals of various cultural backgrounds, who were astonished by the fact that there were no translations of Latvian literature available. We decided upon the English language even though we did not aim at specifically Anglo—American readership. This definitely is not a case when the use of the English language facilitates the hegemony of Anglo-American cultures. These translations serve as just another example of English being used as a system of communication for mutual understanding. In this case it hardly qualifies as a dominant language which is forced on other people along with the foreign world-view and culture, like Russian in the Baltic states during the Soviet period. Neither can it be any longer regarded as “the stepmother language” [ term John Skinner uses to describe old and new literatures in old and new worlds in the new postcolonial situation (1998:92)]. Well, some stepmothers

eventually become part of the family which I find an appealing metaphor. Mary Snell-Hornby, among other scholars, argues that the world wide application of English as international means of communication has actually made the English language lose track of its cultural identity and turns it into reduced "plastic" language (1997:30). General accessibility makes the language lose the edge of its expressivity and when the international expansion of the English language and Anglo-American culture is discussed, we also need to consider the other side of the coin. As we recognize today variants of the English language depending on the geographical region in which it is spoken (the so called "old Englishes" like American, Australian or Canadian English and "new Englishes" like the Singapore, Philippines or South African English), we could distinguish native English from international English which is used by representatives of different cultures as a language of communication in the modern world. Robert Wilkinson uses the term "European English" which is "a convergence that obtains between functionally adequate varieties of English existing in various European language communities which permits sophisticated communication between the members of these communities without necessarily requiring the application of the same rules of syntax, morphology, phonology, semantics, discourse etc. that native speakers of English would use" (1990:325). Sounds very much like bad English! And this variety of English may as well work in the interests of the source culture as anglophone values have been submitted to local differentiation.

The bias of the translation thus does not depend on the target language but on the skopos or purpose of the translation. The hidden agenda of "Bear's Ears" was "packaging of Latvian culture" Consequently, we went for foreignizing translation strategy. In case of Latvian folksongs we even went as far as almost literal commented translation which qualifies as minoritizing translation in Lawrence Venuti's terminology. Relying on discursive heterogeneity, minoritizing translation promotes cultural innovation as well as the understanding of cultural difference (1998:12). True, it may frustrate a majoritarian reader but we never **hoped** for such readership. Actually in cases where the source texts

were less culture-bound, like literary fairy-tales, translations were made more fluent. The choice of foreignizing translation was not so much determined by the wish to oppose assimilationist ethic, as purely pragmatic ones – translating canonical works of a marginal culture, it is more realistic to draw certain readership by enhancing the informative function and leaving the literary effect in a secondary position. Such translation scopos automatically excludes “the average reader” and confirms the elitist element in the whole approach, so aptly pointed out by Douglas Robinson: “Foreignism just becomes a catch-all term for translations that appeal to me and people like me (because they’re difficult, because they require special knowledge, because they achieve unusual effects that only a few of us are able to recognize and appreciate), domestication for everything else, everything bought in great numbers by the large audience and praised by the people who write book reviews for that audience” (1997:112). Whatever were the background and motivation of the prospective reader of this anthology, it is clear the target audience cannot be but restricted.

This anthology is an imposition on the part of compilers, to use the term coined by Cay Dollerup (1997:46), i.e. it is source culture driven. It is not a translation desired by a target culture in which case it would qualify as a requisition and might as well be pragmatically adapted. It is the Latvian side who wants to tell a story and does so using the English language. So these translations act in the interests of Latvian culture without too much regard for the average expectations of the recipient culture. Actually we have a vague idea about the recipient culture – the book was meant to be published in Finland, included in the cooperation project with Germany, used as a course book for American students and intended to be made generally available to visitors of Latvia. To serve all these purposes, the language of translation had to be English which is difficult to be perceived as a tool of power in this case. On the contrary, the English language is often abused in the course of its multifunctional application as the language for airplanes, the language of translations made by non-native speakers like myself, the working language in Brussels organized workshops in

East European countries with the participation of Spanish, French and German speakers, the working language of Nordic feminist congress in Riga. Till it has developed into a European variety of English – a safe, if somewhat deprived, gateway language for lesser known cultures. And I certainly do not want to blame the self-sufficiency of great impact cultures for the fact that the anthology has received meager response. Actually a “museum piece”, it has not enjoyed much of appreciation among any readers. In fact, the hardest nut to crack was Latvian distributors who could not be persuaded to order even a limited number of copies from the Finnish publishers, even with a considerable discount. My conclusion is that there are many forces at play to achieve the recognition for a literary work in the modern world, above all, the general decline in the reading habits in the consumer postworld, the importance of market forces in publishing business, translational planning and only among other factors the position the source culture takes on the cultural map.

I would like to end on an optimistic note – we did not think we were launching a bestseller, our objective was to create a “cultural bridgehead” (i. e. Webster's Dictionary) *an advanced position seized in hostile territory as a foothold for further advance*. And this we feel we may have achieved.

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## **Biežāk sastopamās kļūdas, apgūstot latviešu valodas elementārkursu**

Šī raksta pamatā ir vērojumi, kas iegūti ilgāka laika periodā, mācot latviešu valodu dažādu tautību studentiem, kuri agrāk nav mācījušies baltu valodas. Lielākā daļa studentu prot vairākas svešvalodas, un uzturoties Latvijā, viņu motivācija latviešu valodas apgūšanai ir nepieciešmība apgūt saziņas minimumu praktiskai lietošanai sadzīves situācijās.

Latviešu valodas pamatkursa sākotnējā posmā valoda tiek mācīta galvenokārt ar netiešo metodi, t.i., ar angļu valodas kā kontaktvalodas starpniecību. Mācību procesa gaitā novērotas līdzīgas kļūdas fonētiskajā un morfoloģiskajā līmenī, kuras atkārtoti pieļauj dažādu tautību studenti dažādās grupās. Pastāv relatīvas situācijas, kurās tiek pieļautas kļūdas, pie kam to variācijas atkarīgas no individuāliem faktoriem. Pie tiem pieder, piemēram, valodu interference, kad jaunas valodas apgūšana traucē dzimtajai valodai raksturīgo fonētisko īpatnību un valodas gramatisko struktūru ietekme, vai arī kādas citas indoeiropiešu saimes valodas, kā svešvalodas, iepriekšējas zināšanas. Turpmāk gribētu norādīt uz nedaudziem tipiskiem kļūdu gadījumiem latviešu valodas izrunā un morfoloģisko struktūru pielietojumā.

### ***Biežāk sastopamās izrunas kļūdas***

Runājot par fonētisko aspektu valodas apgūšanas procesā nodarbību kursā iesācējiem, tiek norādīts, ka latviešu valodā skaņu un burtu atbilstība ir salīdzinoši precīza. Tādējādi jau apmācības sākuma posmā studenti tiek aicināti lasīt nelielus tekstus, piezīmējot, ka izruna nesagādā īpašas grūtības. Tomēr arī latviešu valodā, kā jebkurā citā valodā, atsevišķu skaņu artikulācija atšķiras no tādu pašu skaņu artikulācijas citās valodās.

Šis ir iemesls, kādēļ nereti atkārtojas izrunas kļūdas, kuras pieļauj dažādu tautību (amerikāņu, norvēģu, zviedru, vācu u.c.) studenti. Tā, piemēram, par problemātiskām var uzskatīt skaņas / c / un / dz /, kas nav sastopamas citās valodās. Mācot to izrunu, jāmin piemēri aptuvenai izrunai no studentu dzimtās valodas,

piem., "citi" - parents; cats (angl.)

"dziesma" - buds (angl.).

Tāpat jāatzīmē, ka burtam "c" latviešu valodā, īpaši vārda sākumā, atbilst tikai viena skaņa, turpretī angļu valodā šī burta skaņas atveides varianti var būt /k / un / s /, piem., "class"- [ 'k l a : s ], "city" - [ 's i t i ] (angl.), kas nereti ir iemesls nepareizai vārda izrunai latviešu valodā.

Skaņa / ģ / sagādā zināmas grūtības, jo tai grūti atrast atbilstošu skaņas izrunas variantu citās valodās, piem., angļu vai norvēģu valodā. Valodniece T.Budiņa-Lazdiņa grāmatā "Teach yourself Latvian", kā aptuveni atbilstošu skaņu kopu min [ dj ], piemēram, "due" (angl.). Lai iegūtu latvisko skaņu / ģ /, studenti izrunājot savieno skaņas / d / un / j /, tādējādi iegūstot skaņu, kas tomēr nav adekvāta latviskajai / ģ / skaņai,

piem., ģimene [ 'd j i m e n e ]

ģērbt [ 'd j e r p t ]

Līdzīga problēma pastāv ar skaņas / ķ / izrunu, kuru daudzi angļiski runājošie studenti izrunā kā palatalizētu / t /,

piem., ķibeles [ 't j i b e l e ]

ķert [ 't j e r t ].

Šeit gribētu pieminēt kādu interesantu faktu attiecībā uz nedaudzajiem ķīniešu un korejiešu studentiem, kas mācījušies latviešu valodu mūsu fakultātē. Tā kā palatalizēto skaņu spektrs šajās valodās ir ļoti plašs, vairumam studentu nesagādā nekādas grūtības izrunāt latviešu valodā vārdus, kuros vienkopus sastopami gan mīkstināti līdzskaņi, gan divskaņi,

piem., "šaursliežu dzelzceļš"

Skaņas / k /, / p /, / t / daudzās valodās izrunā ar stipru aspirāciju, turpretī latviešu valodā šīs skaņas netiek aspirētas. Piemēram, skaņai / t / angļu valodā ir apikāli alveolāra artikulācija, bet latviešu valodā - apikāli dentāla (Laua, 1997:113). Šī atšķirība izrunā ir iemesls tam, ka lielākā daļa studentu, kuriem dzimtā valodā ir angļu valoda, kā arī angļiski runājošie emigrācijā dzīvojošie latvieši, piem., vārdus "tēvs" "tev" u.c. izrunā ar stipru aspirāciju [ tʰæ: v s ]; [ tʰ e v ].

Savukārt, šaurā un platā patskaņa / e; ē /, / æ; æ: / pareiza izruna sagādā grūtības studentiem galvenokārt tāpēc, ka šīm fonēmām ir viena rakstu zīme. Piemēram, V.Lasmanes latviešu valodas mācību grāmatā (A Course of Modern Latvian), fonēmu / æ / un / æ: / platais variants apzīmēts ar diakrītisku zīmi zem attiecīgā burta. Sākuma periodā tas ievērojami atvieglo studentiem šo patskaņu izrunas apgūšanu,

piem., "egle" - "elpa" "vējš" - "zēns"

Divskaņi / ie / un / uo / no pārējiem divskaņiem latviešu valodā atšķiras ar to, ka to otrais komponents ir plats un nav viendabīgs (Laua, 1997:28). Tas varētu būt par iemeslu tam, kāpēc grūtāk izrunājami vārdi, kuros divskaņi atkārtojas vairākkārt, piem.,

piedodiet, viesoties, iepazīties u.c.

Angļu valodā divskanis / i ə /, piem., vārdos "near" [ 'n i ə ]; "dear" [ 'd i ə ], nedaudz atgādina steidzīgu latviešu valodas divskaņa / ie / izrunu. Tas izskaidro, kāpēc amerikāņu studentiem ir tieksme izrunāt šos divskaņus ar samērā garu pirmo komponentu.

[ 'i: ə p a z i: s i m i: ə s ], [ 'p i: ə d u o d i: ə t ] u.c.

Savukārt norvēģu studentiem raksturīgi izrunāt / ie / kā / e ə /, kas ir visvairāk lietotais divskanis no četriem norvēģu valodā sastopamajiem.

[ 'p e ə d ə d e ə t ], [ 'v e ə s ə t e ə s ] u.c.

Lai gan īsie un garie patskaņu latviešu valodā veido divas patstāvīgas fonēmas, tiem ir viena artikulārā kvalitāte, vienīgā atšķirība starp īsajiem un garajiem patskaņiem ir tā, ka pēdējos artikulē nedaudz spriegāk

(Laua, 1997:14). Ārzemju studentu izrunā ne vienmēr tiek realizēta atbilstošā patskaņu kvantitāte.

Savukārt patskaņu garumzīmju lietošana sagādā daudz raižu rakstu darbos.

Studenti atzīst, ka sarunvalodā viņi nespēj saklausīt un atšķirt īsos patskaņus no garajiem.

Protams, izrunas procesā var būt ļoti individuālas iezīmes, kas lielā mērā atkarīgas no studentu dzimtās valodas, kā arī no svešvalodu zināšanām. Tiem studentiem, kas apguvuši vairākas svešvalodas, ir nesalīdzināmi vieglāk piemēroties jaunas valodas skaņu izrunas īpatnībām.

### ***Biežāk sastopamās kļūdas morfoloģiskajā līmenī***

Pārējot no fonētiskā aspekta pie morfoloģiskā, gribētu norādīt uz grūtībām, apgūstot lietvārdu, vietniekvārdu, īpašības vārdu un skaitļa vārdu deklinēšanu. Galotņu maiņa dzimtēs, skaitļos un locījumos rada sevišķas grūtības tiem studentiem, kuri nav mācījušies latīņu valodu vai kādu svešvalodu, kurā vārdšķiras tiek deklinētas. Nereti nākas skaidrot arī pašu vārdšķiru būtību, jo daudzi studenti atzīst, ka gramatikas mācīšanai skolā nav pievērsta pietiekama uzmanība.

Mācoties latviešu valodu, jau pirmajās nodarbībās studentiem nākas apgūt ievērojamu jauno vārdu krājumu. Tiem studentiem, kuri sākotnēji neiegaumē vīriešu un sievietes dzimtes nominatīva formas, vēlāk grūtības sagādā atšķirt dzimtes, pārējo locījumu un daudzskaitļa formas. Mācoties ģenitīva locījumu, studentiem nav grūti saprast, ka tas norāda uz piederību. Līdzīga nozīme ir angļu valodas piederības formai, ko rakstībā apzīmē ar apostrofu vārda beigās vai prepozīciju "of". Tomēr bieži vien, lasot tekstu latviešu valodā, studenti neatpazīst lietvārda ģenitīva locījumu, noturot to par sievietes dzimtes lietvārdu daudzskaitļa nominatīvā. Latviešu valodā homonīmiskas formas nav retums. Kā raksturīgu piemērus var minēt: **māsas** grāmata, **meitenes** skolotāja u.c.

Līdzīgas kļūdas nereti tiek pieļautas vietniekvārdu lietojumā, noturot

3. personas vīriešu dzimtes vietniekvārdus ģenitīvā par 3. personas sieviešu dzimtes vietniekvārdiem nominatīvā, piem.,

**viņa māsa / viņa ir māsa.**

Trešās personas sieviešu dzimtes vienskaitļa ģenitīva forma tiek saprasta kā trešās personas sieviešu dzimtes daudzskaitļa nominatīvs, piem.,

**viņas māja / viņas ir mājā.**

Tas izteikumu padara neskaidru, nereti zūd teikuma jēga. Arī piederības vietniekvārdu "mans" "tavs", "savs" pareiza locīšana kopā ar lietvārdiem pieskaitāma pie grūtāk apgūstamās gramatikas vielas. Dažas parādības latviešu gramatikā studentiem liekas īpaši interesantas, piemēram, īpašvārdu, tajā skaitā vārdu un uzvārdu deklinēšana.

Apgūstot datīva formas, īpaša vērība jāpiegriež tam, lai sarunvalodā un rakstītā tekstā studenti nekļūdīgi atšķirtu esamības vai piederības nozīmi. Nereti kļūdas rodas sekojošos piemēros:

viņš ir draugs / viņam ir draugs,

viņa ir vecmāmiņa / viņai ir vecmāmiņa.

Pievēršot galveno uzmanību verba "būt" 3. personas formai "ir", studenti nesaskata datīva formu personu vietniekvārdā. Līdzīga situācija rodas arī, lietojot lietvārdu datīvu piederības nozīmē, piem.,

māsa ir skolotāja / mācai ir skolotāja.

Akuzatīva formas, liekas, sagādā mazāk grūtību, jo šī locījuma galotnes ir samērā viegli iegaumējamās. Akuzatīva pielietojumu visai ikdienišķās situācijās, piemēram,

"Man, lūdzu, kafiju!" u.tml. frāzes studenti ātri iemācās lietot sadzīvē.

Arī lokatīva formas, dažkārt, izņemot vīriešu dzimtes daudzskaitli, piemēram, mežos, laukos, ciemos u.c. studenti lieto samērā nekļūdīgi. Turpretī sevišķas grūtības sagādā īpašības vārdu noteikto galotņu, kā arī kārtas skaitļa vārda lietošana. Īpašības vārdu noteiktās galotnes izveido savu īpatnējo deklināciju, kas atšķiras no lietvārda un nenoteikto

īpašības vārdu deklinācijas. Valodas apguves sākumposmā nepieciešams iegaumēt vismaz biežāk lietotās kārtas skaitļa vārdu formas, resp., vienskaitļa nominatīvu un lokatīvu, piemēram,

**Pirmais janvāris ir pirmdienā;**  
**Otrdiena ir nedēļas otrā diena;**  
**Sanāksme notiek trešajā stāvā;**  
**Koncerts būs ceturtajā martā.**

Vairums priekšstatu par vieglo un grūto, mācoties svešvalodu, balstās uz dzimtās valodas un svešvalodu salīdzinājuma pamata, bet tas ne vienmēr apstiprinās, analizējot kļūdas. Nav vienādas attiecības starp atšķirībām un grūtībām valodā. Skaņu artikulācijas atšķirības dzimtajā valodā un svešvalodā ir galvenais faktors, kas rada grūtības pareizai skaņu izrunai apgūstamajā valodā. Tomēr tās samērā ātri novēršamas nodarbību gaitā, atkārtojot izrunas vingrinājumus, kā arī izmantojot audio, video materiālus, kas ātrāk palīdz uztvert izrunas nianšes. Studentu saskarsmei ar dzimtās valodas lietotājiem sadzīves situācijās ir būtiska nozīme jebkuras jaunas valodas apgūvē. Savukārt latviski runājošiem, jāpievērš īpaša uzmanība tādiem valodas aspektiem, kā runas temps, intonācija un morfoloģiska precizitāte (pareizs un pilnīgs vārdu galotņu izrunas lietojums). Pretējā gadījumā, raugoties no psiholoģiskā viedokļa, students nesaskatīs savu latviešu valodas zināšanu pielietojumu un izjutīs diskomfortu. Īsajā praktiskās latviešu valodas apguves kursā, kas parasti ilgst trīs mēnešus, sākumposmā ļoti svarīgi ir sniegt studentiem izpratni par valodas gramatikas pamatstruktūru, tās formām, funkcijām un pielietojumu. Pakāpeniski ieviešot komunikatīvo valodas mācīšanas pieeju, tā būs efektīva ar nosacījumu, ja studentiem ir pietiekamas zināšanas latviešu valodas morfoloģijas pamatkursā.

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## Summary

The article reflects several observations based on the experience of teaching a course of elementary Latvian to foreign students. In this stage of the training course the indirect method of instruction is applied, namely English is used as a contact language. In learning a new foreign language problems usually arise with respect to the linguistic units different in the native and the foreign language. The survey singles out a relatively stable error corpus on the phonological and morphological level. In the phonetic error analysis attention is focused on the realization of the articulation of several sounds peculiar to Latvian, which are frequently the source of learning difficulties.

The morphological features of Latvian that cause problems to foreign students include an inadequate usage of such grammatical characteristics of the noun, pronoun and adjective as gender, number and declension cases. These apparently are caused by substantial differences in the systems of the respective languages. Discovering characteristic errors in the course of learning a foreign language contributes to reconsidering and occasionally changing the teaching methods.



**Newsletter of the Department of Contrastive Linguistics  
January - December, 1998.**

**Visitors**

**Klauss Bischoff, Tony Scot, Roderick Jones**

from SCIC, EU, Brussels, coordinated cooperation in training MA students of the Faculty of Foreign Languages, September 3 - 5.

**Dr. Schmidt**

from University of Mainz, Gernersheim, Germany lectured to BA and MA students of the Faculty of Foreign Languages, October 2 - 10.

**Prof. Karl-Heinz Stoll**

from University of Mainz, Gernersheim, Germany lectured to BA and MA students of the Faculty of Foreign Languages, October 25 - 29.

**Staff Activities**

**Ieva Zauberga**

Delivered a Course of Lectures on Methodological Aspects of Translation in the State Language Centre, Riga, January 6.

**Andrejs Veisbergs, Ieva Zauberga**

Participated in the TAIEX seminar "Training of Interpreter Trainers", Prague, January 28 - 31.

**Gunta Ločmele**

Participated with a paper "Jaunā profesionālo studiju programma angļu valodas tulkotāju kvalifikācijas iegūšanai" in LU 4<sup>th</sup> Annual Academic Conference, Riga, February 2.

**Andrejs Veisbergs**

Visited Britain meeting Simon Cave from ITI and Joanna Tulloch from Oxford University Press. London, Oxford, February 5 - 8.

**Gunta Ločmele**

Participated in EU Translator Training seminar in legal translation. Riga, February 6-7

**Šalme Arvils**

Lectured, researched, conducted a Latvian Language course in University of Münster, Germany, February 20 - Marz 1.

**Andrejs Veisbergs**

Participated with a paper "Viltus draugi latviešu valodā, problēmas un atspoguļojums vārdnīcā" in Endzelins conference, Riga, February 23 - 24.

**Maija Brēde**

Participated with a paper "Daži vērojumi par sonanta /l/ variantiem latviešu valodā" in Endzelins conference, Riga, February 23 - 24.

**Gunta Ločmele**

Participated with a paper "Latviešu reklāmas valodas attīstības tendences: informācijas kompresija" in Endzelins conference Riga, February 23 - 24.

**Gunta Ločmele**

Participated in LINGUA launching conference, Riga, March 1.

**Andrejs Veisbergs, Ieva Zauberga**

Visited and observed classes at Ventspils College, March 5.

**Ieva Zauberga**

Conducted EU simultaneous interpreting training programme in Brussels, February 8- March 14.

**Andrejs Veisbergs**

Conducted EU simultaneous interpreting training programme in Brussels, March 16 - 20.

**Andrejs Veisbergs**

Participated in the Ninth International Symposium on Lexicography at Copenhagen University with a report "Latvian Bilingual Dictionaries: Tradition and Change" Copenhagen, April 23 - 25.

**Ieva Zauberga**

Participated with a paper "English "Gateway Language" for Minor Literatures" in the 7<sup>th</sup> Nordic conference of English Studies, Turku, Finland, May 28-31.

**Andrejs Veisbergs, Ieva Zauberga**

Participated as examiners in the European Commission's Latvian interpreters examination. Riga, June 29 - 30.

**Andrejs Veisbergs, Ieva Zauberga**

Participated in an seminar on European Union Institutions for interpreters. Strasbourg, July 16 - 22.

**Andrejs Veisbergs**

Participated in EURALEX 98 Congress. Liege, August 4 - 8.

**Andrejs Veisbergs**

Was elected Chairman of Latvian Association of Translators and Interpreters. Riga, August 12.

**Andrejs Veisbergs**

Lectured in Translation and Terminology Centre. Riga, August 31.

**Andrejs Veisbergs**

Participated in ELSNET Bullet course in Terminology Management. Bergen, September 7 - 9.

**Ieva Zauberga**

Organized the cooperation and delivered 2 lectures in Translation and Terminology Centre, Riga, September 7 - 28.

**Andrejs Veisbergs, Ieva Zauberga**

Participated in a TAIEX seminar of Training of Interpreter Trainers. Riga, September 14-15.

**Andrejs Veisbergs**

Lectured in Valmiera High School on Latvian Language. Valmiera, September 23.

**Ieva Zauberga**

Participated with a paper "Rethinking Translator's Reliability" in the EST Congress in Granada, Spain, September 23-26.

**Gunta Ločmele**

Participated with a paper in the "Translated Advertisements in Latvia: the Battlefield of Cultural Influences" in Third ITI International Colloquium on Literary Translation. Sheffield, October 1 - 3.

**Gunta Ločmele**

Participated with a paper "Translation of Advertisements in Latvia: Cultural Aspects" in International colloquium. Translation and Cognition, in University of Joensuu, Savonlinna School of Translation Studies. Savonlinna, October 2 - 3.

**Andrejs Veisbergs**

Participated with a paper "Translation as a Form of language Contact and its Impact on Modern Latvian" in Ventspils College conference "Interpreting and Translation as Intercultural communication: Theory, Practice, Instruction Methods" Ventspils, October 29-31.

**Ieva Zauberga**

Participated with a paper "Rethinking Translator's Reliability" in Ventspils college conference "Interpreting and Translation as Intercultural communication: Theory, Practice, Instruction Methods" in Ventspils, October 29-31.

**Gunta Ločmele**

Participated with a paper in "On the Development of Latvian and English Languages of Advertising: Compression of Information and Methods of Translation" in Ventspils college conference "Interpreting and Translation as

Intercultural communication: Theory, Practice, Instruction Methods” in Ventspils, October 29-31.

**Andrejs Veisbergs**

Lectured on Contrastive Linguistics in Torino University. November 3 - 5.

**Andrejs Veisbergs**

Participated in AFinLA symposium with a presentation “Latvian Bilingual Dictionaries” Abo Academia. November 13 - 14.

**Andrejs Veisbergs, Ieva Zauberga**

Participated in setting up TIARA Latvian database at SCIC Brussels, December 10 - 11.