European Transfer of Culture in Literature, Language and Foreign Language Teaching

PAŃSTWOWA WYŻSZA
SZKOŁA ZAWODOWA W NYSIE

EUROPEAN TRANSFER OF CULTURE
IN LITERATURE, LANGUAGE AND FOREIGN
LANGUAGE TEACHING:
A MONOGRAPH CELEBRATING ACADEMIC
COOPERATION BETWEEN NYSA AND LVIV

Edited by:

Mariusz Kamiński, Marcin Walczyński, Małgorzata Kurpiel
Michail Bilinsky, Alla Paslavska

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Introduction

The present volume contains a collection of papers exploring the transfer of culture in a variety of interlingual contexts, from foreign language teaching, literature and translation, to the study of languages. The book is the outcome of the research conducted by linguists and literary scholars from Poland and Ukraine.

The volume is divided into four parts, each of which reflects one of the major fields in which culture can be studied. The first one comprises papers that focus on foreign and second language teaching. In the opening paper, Alina Dittmann presents the benefits of use of literary texts in the classroom. The author explains how the transfer of the cultural content of the texts can improve intercultural as well as lexical and communicative competences.

In the following paper, Małgorzata Kamińska discusses types of competences, including the intercultural one, and shows a range of ways of incorporating cultural elements into the classroom teaching. The author concludes that among the benefits of intercultural teaching are broadening learner's cultural perspectives, and the growth of learners' cultural awareness and tolerance.

The paper by Małgorzata Kurpiel analyses written final secondary exams in the German language taken in one of secondary schools in Nysa from 1861 to 1937. On the basis of the analysis, the author throws light on the direction of the education system reforms that took place in that period of time.

The article by Svitlana Lukyanenko addresses the issue of multilingual competence of future teachers in Ukraine. It proposes the creation of a trilingual textbook model as an aid to learning English as a second foreign language on the basis of the knowledge of German as the first foreign language. As Svitlana Lukyanenko concludes, the knowledge of German provides great opportunities for the positive transfer and intensification of English language learning. The reverse sequence of language learning is addressed in the following article by Marta Wiśniowska, who studies the influence of the knowledge of English on learning German. The author points to lexical similarities between the two languages, and provides recommendations for teaching German to students with the knowledge of English.

The second part is devoted to translation training. The first paper by Julian Maliszewski presents a new level of integration among different approaches to special language teaching. The author brings together the research from various fields of language study in order to explore the interrelation between translation and teaching. In the paper by Iwona Sikora and Marcin Walczyński, the authors present the process of educating translators and interpreters in the Polish context, and explore their roles in the transfer of culture across Europe. By presenting

examples of the activities of the European Union, the authors explain how the EU contributes to the Polish education of translators and interpreters.

Part three has papers adopting various perspectives to explore language as a culture-related phenomenon. In the first paper, Olha Ivashchyshyn analyses secondary derivation in the English terminological system, and suggests practical applications of the results of her study in teaching and learning specialised English. In the following paper, Mariusz Kamiński explores the treatment of culture-specific words in bilingual and monolingual dictionaries. The author concludes that dictionaries vary in this regard, and deplores the fact that they have gaps in the coverage of culture-specific information.

Nataliya Kashchyshyn studies English diplomatic sublanguage. The author draws special attention to the meaning and function of terms in this type of discourse and concludes that terminology plays a crucial role in discourse formation and differentiation. The paper by Anna Kuzio presents a contrastive analysis of compliments and responses in English, Polish, and Russian. Based on the data obtained through questionnaires, the author observes that similarities and differences in paying compliments is a culture-dependent phenomenon. The paper by Svitlana Markelova and Nadiia Vilkhovchenko discusses the characteristics and functions of terminology used in science fiction. It describes the peculiarities of the semantic structure of the terminology used in this type of text, and explains the main ways of the semantization of quasi-special vocabulary units. In the following paper, Bohdan Maxymtschuk discusses the development and mutual penetration of specific parts of speech. The author investigates the causes of these processes, and observes the rise and demise of word qualifiers in the history of German. The final paper in this part is by Ruda Olga, who investigates the evolution of the Ukrainian-English dictionaries from 1950 to 1999. A special focus is placed on dictionaries of terms published after 1950, which, as the author maintains, have played an important role in the formation and consolidation of the Ukrainian professional language.

The final part is devoted to literature as a means for exploring culture. It contains two papers. One of them, written by Beata Giblak, reports on the project launched at the University of Applied Sciences in Nysa, as a didactic task in which students were engaged in the study of literary texts by Max Herrmann-Neisse. The other paper, by Agnieszka Kaczmarek, analyses the vision of Poland shown in the 1993 travel narrative by Eva Hoffman, a Polish-American writer. The author discusses Hoffman's expectations and observations of Poland in the early 1990s in order to verify Hoffman's comments.

We hope that the current volume will contribute to the further development of the mutual cooperation between the University of Applied Sciences in Nysa (Poland) and Ivan Franko National University of Lviv (Ukraine).

The editors

Acknowledgements

Part 1.

FOREIGN AND SECOND LANGUAGE
TEACHING

Alina Dittmann
Staatliche Fachhochschule in Nysa

KULTURTRANSFER ALS ZIEL DER FREMDSPRACHIGEN LITERATURDIDAKTIK – ANHAND DES TEXTES VON ROSWITHA SCHIEB: *REISE NACH SCHLESIEN UND GALIZIEN. EINE ARCHÄOLOGIE DES GEFÜHLS.*

[The Transfer of Culture as a target for the Didactic of Literature in a Second Language Class. Based on Roswitha Schieb's text: *Journey to Silesia and Galicia. An Archeology of a feeling.*]

Abstract: The article focuses on the transfer of cultural content during the work with literature in a second language class. The cultural content can positively influence the second language acquisition. The cultural content in the literary texts helps to develop not only the intercultural competence but also the lexical and communicative competences. Moreover it supports immediately the four language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. It refers especially to cultural texts with aesthetic features like the literary texts. These texts are both – informative and interrogative. They put questions on the readers and involve them into a dialogue and they deliver many topics for a conversation on intercultural issues what motivates for reading and learning. The article discusses the goals of a second language Class based on literary texts and the problems of dealing with culture based contents in these texts like ex. Functions and effects / impact of the stereotype in the adoption of aesthetic texts and such phenomenons like poeticization and polarization of cultures.
A text example is here the journey essay from a German writer Roswitha Schieb: 'Reise nach Schlesien und Galizien. Eine Archäologie des Gefühls' (2000) [Journey to Silesia and Galicia. An Archeology of a Feeling]. The Essay compiles the both cultural provinces not only on the background of the similar destiny of their native inhabitants after 1945 but also the author exposes and reveals the particular cultural layers and defines the multicultural locale populations which have been influencing the cultural heritage of these regions during many centuries.

Einführung

Die Orientierung an kulturellen Komponenten literarischer Werke öffnet die Germanistik auf ästhetische, sprachliche und diskursive Dimensionen fremder (und eigener) Wirklichkeiten. Die Verbindung interdisziplinärer Aspekte mit Literatur- und Fremdsprachenstudien geht mit dem erweiterten Begriff der Germanistik als einer wissenschaftlichen Disziplin einher. Seit etwa zehn Jahren (Neuland/Ehlich/Roggausch 2005) werden Forderungen nach einer transnationalen

und kulturwissenschaftlichen Erweiterung der europäischen Nationalphilologien erhoben, was im Zusammenhang mit der Internationalisierung des Hochschulwesens erfolgt. Insbesondere wird das Aufgreifen von interregionalen Traditionen der europäischen Literaturen postuliert sowie die Untersuchung neuer kultureller Felder, die sich im Austausch der europäischen Nationen herausbilden (Gutjar 2006; Esselborn 2010). Diese Tendenzen finden ihren Niederschlag nicht nur in der Verankerung des sozial- und kulturanthropologischen Ansatzes in der inter-kulturellen Literaturdidaktik der Auslandsgermanistik, sondern auch in Konzepten für den DaF- und DaM- Unterricht. Was das Literaturstudium anbelangt, skizziert Karl Esselborn in seiner Monographie zur interkulturellen Literaturvermittlung seine Aufgabenbereiche in Zukunft folgendermaßen:

> Eine an Kulturthemen orientierte transnationale Literaturwissenschaft würde speziell Differenzen und Übergänge zwischen den Kulturen, und nicht zuletzt die von der interkulturellen Germanistik thematisierten Fremdheitserfahrungen (auf Reisen und im eigenen Land) sowie die Interkulturalität der Literatur von Minderheiten, der Migration, des Exils usw. untersuchen und dabei Fragen der Regionalität vs. Globalisierung, der zweifelhaft gewordenen nationalliterarischen Zuordnungen, der Erweiterung des Kanons usw. aufgreifen (Esselborn 2010: 65).

Innerhalb dieser Erscheinung entwickelt sich auch eine transkulturell orientierte ethnologische Literaturwissenschaft (Bachmann-Medick 1996), die sich an den Themen: Hybridität der Kulturen, Deterritorialisierung und die sog. Glokalisierung[1] orientiert.

Wie eine kulturanthropologisch-ethnographisch angelegte Arbeit mit literarischen Texten in einem Fremdsprachenstudium verlaufen kann und inwiefern bei Gelegenheit des Erwerbs einer (inter)kulturellen Kompetenz auch sprachpraktische Fertigkeiten entwickelt werden können, soll anhand eines Projektvorschlags für polnische und ukrainische Germanistikstudierende in Anlehnung an den Text Roswitha Schiebs über Schlesien und Galizien illustriert werden.

1. Kulturkompetenz und linguistische Kompetenz versus literarische Texte.

Kulturtransfer mittels literarischer Texte in einer Fremdsprache als ein didaktisches Ziel und Mittel ist zweifellos nur einer der vielen Lehrziele im Fremdsprachen-unterricht, die man beim Lesen fremdsprachiger Literatur verfolgen kann.

Wenn man sich die (inter)kulturelle Kompetenz und die Entwicklung von Sprachfertigkeiten als Ziele der Arbeit mit literarischen Texten vor Augen hält, ist zu bedenken, dass Kultur (wie auch immer der Begriff verstanden wird) und Sprache – als ein verbaler Code einer Kulturgemeinschaft – unzertrennbar miteinander verbunden sind. Das bedeutet, dass Sprache ein Träger der Kultur und ein Schlüssel zur Kultur ist sowie ein Ausdruck und die ‚Interpretin' der

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[1] ‚Glokalisierung' verstanden als eine enge Verbindung des Lokalen mit dem Globalen (Esselborn 2010: 286).

Kultur. Man kann durchaus behaupten, dass Sprache der vollständigste Index der Kultur ist (Burszta 1986; Whorf 1963; Levi-Stross 1958; Malinowski 1944).

Es ist unumgänglich bei der Analyse der Ziele und Effekte des Kulturtransfers im Umgang mit fremdsprachigen Texten auf den gegenwärtigen Kulturbegriff hinzuweisen, denn es wird für die Art der Rezeption der Texte von Bedeutung sein, was wir als ‚Kultur' verstehen. Der aktuelle Kulturbegriff orientiert sich an der Spannung zwischen Globalität und Homogenität, Lokalität (Regionalität) und Tradition. In der Zeit einer Hyperrealität der Populärkultur sucht der Mensch nach Formen einer tatsächlichen Erdung und Verwurzelung. Ein solcher Kulturbegriff ist nicht mehr primär an der Dauerhaftigkeit flächendeckender Kulturmuster interessiert sondern er zeigt Prozesse, Transformationen und Veränderlichkeit, denen diese unterliegen. Auf die Konstruktion des Begriffs der Kultur in der Fremdsprachendidaktik hatten und haben immer eben diese anthropologischen und soziologischen Definitionen der Kultur den größten Einfluss. Es ist hier zu betonen, dass weder die fremde noch die eigene Kultur ein homogenes und statisches Gebilde sind.

Ferner wäre der Platz, den die Interkulturalität und die ästhetischen Texte in der Fremdsprachendidaktik einnehmen, zu klären. Warum ist die interkulturelle Kompetenz im Lernprozess einer Fremdsprache so wichtig? Welchen Einfluss haben literarische Texte auf die Gestaltung der interkulturellen Kompetenz beim Lerner?

Der Fremdsprachenunterricht/das Fremdsprachenstudium ist ein Ort einer intensivierten Begegnung mit dem Fremden. Bernhard Waldenfels fasst den ‚Anspruch des Anderen' als eine „fundamentale Gegebenheit der menschlichen Existenz, und die Antwort auf den Anderen als die Konstituierung auch des Eigenen" (Waldenfels/Därmann 1998) auf. Diese Wechselbeziehung soll im Unterricht bewusst gemacht werden, damit sie im praktischen Leben effektiv gemeistert werden kann. Das bedeutet, dass ein Bewusstsein dafür entwickelt werden soll, dass das Fremde ein Bestandteil des Eigenen ist. Andrea Leskovec charakterisiert die Begegnung mit dem Fremden im sozialen Raum als unumgänglich. In dieser Begegnung wird das Fremde gewöhnlich entweder teilweise aufgegeben oder es bleibt als unauflösliche Spannung bestehen (Leskovec 2009: 13). Literarische Texte haben ein großes Potential effektives Handeln in interkulturellen Kontexten zu vermitteln. In fiktionalen ästhetischen Texten ist ein, diesen Texten immanentes, wichtiges Merkmal enthalten, und zwar die Funktion der ‚Desautomatisierung' der Wahrnehmung anhand literarischer Mittel. Bilder, die unsere herkömmliche Sichtweise dominieren, z. B. mittels moderner Medien, sind leicht einprägsam und lassen keinen Widerstand zu. Die Desautomatisierung der Wahrnehmung während des Lesens literarischer Texte erhält deswegen eine starke gesellschaftliche Komponente und konstituiert ein neues Sehen, den sog. ‚schrägen Blick', das heißt eine differenzierte Wahrnehmung (Wintersteiner 2006: 123). Somit ist Literatur eine kreative Antwort auf das Fremde. Sie steht in Bezug zur außerliterarischen Wirklichkeit,

aber hat auch einen autonomen Charakter (Riceur 1986). Als Funktionen der Literatur gelten u. a. kognitiv-reflexive, moralisch-soziale, hedonisch-emotionale und ästhetisch-autonome Funktionen. Besonders die letztere lässt keine Instrumentalisierung literarischer Texte zu und keine ‚Depriviligierung des Literarischen', was Schößler (Schößler 2006: 15) als Verkürzung der Texte auf ihre referenziellen Funktionen kritisiert. Andererseits ist auch die Reduzierung der interkulturellen Aspekte der Literatur auf ausschließlich rezeptionsästhetische Phänomene nicht wünschenswert. Ein idealer Leser der Literatur ist ein „Beobachter zweiter Ordnung, der die Konstruiertheit literarischer Texte bewusst wahrnimmt und die eigene Beobachterposition gleichzeitig problematisiert, um sich der wahrnehmungslenkenden und beeinflussenden Aspekte bewusst zu werden" (Leskovec 2009: VIII).

Insofern ist das Erlangen bestimmter Kompetenzen, die während der Rezeption literarischer Texte von Studenten eingeübt werden können, das Ziel des Fremdsprachenunterrichts mit Literatur. Diese Kompetenzen sind vor allem das produktive Handeln (Problemlösungskompetenz) und die Ambiguitätstoleranz[2] (Stierstorfer 2002: 127). Ein literaturorientierter interkultureller Unterricht kann aber unterschiedliche weitere Ziele verfolgen, wie z.B.:

− Erweiterung des kulturellen bzw. Weltwissens (Medium zur Kulturmündigkeit)
− Bewusstmachung der eigenen Wahrnehmung als Voraussetzung einer kritischen Selbstreflexion
− Bewusstmachung der konstruktiven gesellschaftlich akzeptierter Realitätskonstruktionen
− Sensibilisierung der Aufmerksamkeit (Leskovec 2009: 23-24).

Es ist dabei zu bemerken, dass die Interkulturalität über das Erfassen von Kulturunterschieden oder Kulturspezifika und die Thematisierung der fremdkulturellen Rezeptionserfahrung weit hinausgeht. Leider herrscht in den bisherigen Konzepten zu einer interkulturellen Hermeneutik ein reduzierter und instrumentalisierter Fremdheitsbegriff vor, den Andrea Leskovec kritisch hinterfragt. Ein solches Verständnis von Interkulturalität definiert Fremdheit ausschließlich als eine kulturelle Differenz. Es bleibt also die Frage bestehen: wie sich Kulturen mit Hilfe von Literatur noch anders beschreiben und analysieren lassen, insbesondere in einem Zeitalter, in dem man nicht mehr von Gesellschaften als ‚Entitäten' spricht sondern von ‚sozialen Systemen' und ‚Kommunikationsgemeinschaften' (Leskovec 2009: 3-5). Angesichts der Fülle von Vorschlägen und Konzepten zum interkulturellen Lernen bleibt die wichtigste Kompetenz übrig, die als Output des interkulturellen Unterrichts unverändert wünschenswert und unangefochten erscheint, die ‚Dialogbereitschaft'. „Der

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[2] ‚Ambiguitätstoleranz' ist die Bereitschaft zur Akzeptanz der auf lange Sicht für die eigene Identität als destabilisierend empfundenen Auswirkungen von Fremderfahrungen - auch als Bereitschaft zum Aushalten der Fremdheit charakterisiert (Stierstorfer 2002: 127).

interkulturelle Dialog, der die je eigene Auffassung für andere Meinungen öffnet, ist das leitende Prinzip interkulturellen Lernens", wie Hans Hunfeld betont. Ein solches interkulturelle Gespräch ist zugleich Ziel und Mittel des Lernens. Sein Anliegen ist der Austausch der persönlichen Erfahrungen der Lerner mit z.B. einem literarischen Text (Hunfeld 2004: 409- 415).

Im Fremdsprachenunterricht mit Literatur haben literarische Texte oft noch weitere Funktionen, wie:

− sie sind Kontextinstrument zur Vermittlung von lexikalischen oder (seltener) sogar grammatischen Informationen,
− sie bilden eine Grundlage für eine systematische Entwicklung des verste-henden Hörens und des lauten und leisen Lesens, u.a. Entwicklung der Fähigkeit zur schlussfolgernden Bedeutungsbildung beim Lesen,
− sie fungieren als ein Modell für die Entwicklung des Sprechens und Schreibens, z.B. Entwicklung der Fähigkeit zur Diskussionsteilnahme,
− sie sind ein Material zur Förderung des selbständigen Lernens und ein authentisches Material, das die fremde Sprache bedeutungsvoller macht,
− schließlich sind literarische Texte Kulturprodukte der Zielnation, mit denen sich der Lernende bekannt machen kann,
− nicht zuletzt ist die Gewinnung und Verarbeitung von Informationen anhand literarischer Texte zwangsweise und automatisch auch ein Ergebnis des Umgangs mit ihnen, allerdings nicht das wichtigste Ziel des Literaturunterrichts (Kozłowski 1991: 49-50).

Nicht alle diese Funktionen literarischer Texte können im Unterricht parallel berücksichtigt werden. Das fremdsprachige Lesen an sich ist eine deutliche Herausforderung für Lerner. Die Verbindung im Unterricht der drei Faktoren: Fremdsprache + Literatur + eine fremde Kultur = bedeutet eine dreifache Verfremdung und Anstrengung für den Lerner. Nichtsdestotrotz ergeben sich aus einer solchen didaktischen Herausforderung Vorteile. Eines von Ihnen ist, dass der Sprachlernende eine Gelegenheit dazu haben muss, ein fremdsprachiges Wort in möglichst größter Zahl von Kontexten und Möglichkeiten kennen zu lernen, es durch viele Kanäle aufnehmen, bis er seine Bedeutung und seine Distribution stabil und sicher beherrscht. Zurückgehend auf die bereits erwähnte dreifache Verfremdung (Fremdsprache + Literatur + fremde Kultur) ist zu betonen, dass das fremdsprachige Lesen natürlich unter den bereits erwähnten Bedingungen der Anstrengung und Mühe geschieht. Das Lesen und Diskutieren unter erschwerten Bedingungen bildet eine reflexive Haltung gegenüber Fremdheit und Distanz heraus, die einen Teil der interkulturellen Kompetenz bildet und zugleich auch das Fremdsprachlernen fördert. Nicht zuletzt kann noch die Rolle der Verfremdung als ein Instrument der Motivation für Lerner einer Fremdsprache erwähnt werden. Fremdheit als Lernimpuls hat einen positiven Einfluss auf die intrinsische Motivation, insbesondere wegen ihrer ästhetischen Qualität.

Die kognitiven Funktionen ästhetischer kulturkontrastierender Texte in der Fremdsprachdidaktik sind dagegen direkt mit einem adäquaten sprachlichen Handeln verbunden, da kulturelle Standards Arten von Wahrnehmung, Wertung sowie der Funktionsweise einer Gesellschaft umfassen. Der Kulturaspekt ist somit sehr bedeutend für eine korrekte Kommunikation und er diktiert die Prinzipien der Konversation (soziokulturelle Konventionen). Jede sprachliche Kommunikation in einer Fremdsprache involviert das Ineinandergehen von zwei Kulturfeldern (Interferenz der Kulturen) (Bausch/Christ/Krumm 2003).

Hier nähern wir uns direkt der These dieses Artikels, und zwar dass *Kulturtransfer in literarischen Texten u.a. auch ein sprachlernfördernder Faktor sein kann, der seine positiven Effekte in dem Bereich des konnotativen Wortfeldes, der Auffassung von Ironie (kulturtradierte Stilistik), der Symbolik und des kulturspezifischen Fachwortschatzes hat.*

Gemäß dieser These fördert die interkulturelle Kompetenz nicht nur den Prozess einer kreativen und bewussten Teilnahme an einer Kommunikationssituation sondern garantiert den Komfort des Gesprächsteilnehmers und ist [indirekt] ein Indikator seines Sprachniveaus.

Kulturkundliche Inhalte enthalten auch ein differenziertes Reservoir an Lexik und zwar u.a. den sog. Kulturwortschatz, in dem je nach Kulturkreis bestimmte konnotative Bedeutungen eines Termins variieren. Die Bewusstheit dieses Phänomens erleichtert es den Lernern einer Fremdsprache die Bedeutungen einzelner Wörter und Phrasen kulturgerecht zu entschlüsseln und einzusetzen. Ferner sind literarische Texte mit kulturkundlichem Anspruch oft reich an Fachvokabular, das diese Texte bedeutsam und motivierend für Leser macht und die Progression im Bereich der Lexik beschleunigt. Diese nicht banalen Texte sind auch für Lerner motivierender, weil sie landeskundliche Aspekte enthalten und von höherer Informativität gekennzeichnet sind (Mihułka 2008: 43-52). Landeskundliche Elemente sind hier nicht primär als objektive Sachinformationen den Texten zu entnehmen sondern als nur teilweise auf die Wirklichkeit und Deutungsschemata der Alltagswelt referierende künstlerische Konstruktionen. Dank der Literarizität dieser Texte eben werden die Leser immer wieder angesprochen, intrigiert und provoziert und geben das Lesen nicht auf. Entscheidend ist, wie die Literatur jeweils mit den Realitäten umgeht, wie sie Wirklichkeit verdeutlichend, zuspitzend, übertreibend, verändernd, abstrahierend verdichtet, kommentiert, deutet, kritisiert, ironisch verfremdet, ästhetisiert (…)" (Esselborn 2010: 79).

Diese Überlegenheit literarischer Texte gegenüber den Sachtexten im Sprachlernprozess hat Hunfeld hervorgehoben, der die Literatur eine ‚Sprachlehre' an sich nennt, die den Angeredeten mündig macht und lehrt, „ohne dass sie lehren will." (Hunfeld 2004: 65). Im Kontext des interkulturellen Lernens ist auch auf die beiden Begriffe Hunfelds, die ‚Normalität des Fremden' und die ‚skeptische Hermeneutik' hinzuweisen, die während der Beschäftigung mit literarischen kulturvergleichenden Texten ein besonders hilfreiches Interpre-

tationsinstrument darstellen. Der erste Begriff (Normalität des Fremden) bezieht sich auf den Umgang mit dem (kulturell) Anderen.

> Der Fremde ist in unmittelbarer Nachbarschaft. Er ist vielfältig fremd. (…) Wenn also das Fremde heute normales Alltagsphänomen geworden ist (…) kann und muss [ich] den vielfältig Fremden nicht mehr im traditionellen Sinne verstehen, sondern muss ich ihn in seiner anderen Normalität anerkennen (Hunfeld 2004: 67).

Eine solche Haltung schließt die automatische ‚Inbesitznahme' des Fremden unter eigener Perspektive aus. Der Terminus ‚skeptische Hermeneutik' betont die Grenzen des Verstehens beim Lesen literarischer Texte und die Erfahrung der Schwierigkeit und Anstrengung des Verstehens:

> Stereoptypenbildung, Missverständnisse, Fehler sind normale Bestandteile aller Lernvorgänge. Voreilige Harmonisierung interkultureller Dialoge hindert, was diese eigentlich erreichen wollen: Die Einsicht in die Anstrengung und latente Gefährdung wechselseitigen Verstehens. (Hunfeld 2004: 418)

Als Fazit der Erwägungen über die Beeinflussung des Erwerbs sprach-praktischer Kompetenzen von kulturanthropologischen Elementen literarischer Texte kann bestätigt werden, dass kulturkundliche Inhalte in Verbindung mit ästhetischen und fiktionalen Merkmalen fremdsprachlicher literarischer Texte eine positive Auswirkung auf das Sprachenlernen selbst haben. Sowohl im Bereich der Lernmotivation als auch innerhalb der Entwicklung der lexikalischen Kompetenz u.a. im Bereich des Kulturwortschatzes und Fachwortschatzes, der Förderung des schlussfolgernden Lesens und des differenzierten kontextabhängigen Deutens von größeren Textpassagen kann sich der Umgang mit den genannten Texten als fördernd erweisen. Auch im Bereich der mündlichen Kompetenz können positive Einflüsse verzeichnet werden, wie Dialogbereitschaft, Mut zum Experimentieren mit Wortschatz und größere Risikobereitschaft beim Bilden von zusammenhängenden argumentativen mündlichen Aussagen, dem Aushandeln der Bedeutungen im Klassengespräch. Darüber hinaus sind kulturadäquates verbales und nonverbales Handeln sowie Gewinn und Verarbeitung von kulturkundlichen Informationen, die im Umgang mit den Sprechern der Zielsprache wesentlich sind, weitere mögliche Effekte der Beschäftigung mit fiktionaler kulturanthropologisch verankerter Literatur, die sich direkt auf den Sprachgebrauch beziehen (Esselborn 2010: 294).

2. Schlesien und Galizien als literarische Motive

Eine Zusammenstellung von Schlesien und Galizien als Themenkomplexe ästhetischer deutschsprachiger Prosatexte finden wir nicht nur in dem genannten Reiseroman Roswitha Schiebs. In ihrem Debütroman *Katzenberge* erzählt beispielsweise Sabrina Janesch von der Vertreibung des Großvaters aus Galizien und seiner Ankunft in Schlesien (Aufbau-Verlag, Berlin 2010). Eine solche Gegenüberstellung der beiden Provinzen ist insbesondere durch ihre deutschen und österreichischen Traditionen bedingt sowie durch den Bevölkerungstransfer aus der Westukraine nach Schlesien nach dem 2. Weltkrieg.

Es besteht ein sehr umfangreicher Textkorpus gegenwärtiger deutschsprachiger fiktionaler Texte der beiden letzten Jahrzehnte mit dem Schauplatz Schlesien oder mit schlesischen Motiven. Schlesien als Gegenstand der Literatur trat aber besonders intensiv bereits in der zweiten Hälfte des 20. Jahrhunderts auf, sowohl in der Prosa als auch innerhalb der Lyrik. Arno Lubos widmete der schlesischen Literatur seine dreibändige Arbeit *Geschichte der Literatur Schlesiens* (1960, 1967, 1974) und Louis Ferdinand Helbig dokumentiert u.a. die Belletristik zur Flucht und Vertreibung aus dem deutschsprachigen Osten (Helbig 1988)[3]. Martin-Opitz-Bibliothek in Herne sammelt dagegen die schriftlichen Überlieferungen zur Geschichte und Kultur der Deutschen im gesamten Raum östliches Europa, u.a. zu Schlesien und Galizien. [4]

Kulturell war die Region Schlesien schon immer, und mindestens seit der Barockzeit, ein herausragendes Gebiet der Literatur und der bildenden Kunst. Unmittelbar nach 1945 wird Schlesien oft in der deutschsprachigen Prosa und Lyrik zu einem Erinnerungsraum im Kontext der verlorenen Heimat stilisiert und aus Distanz als literarische Provinz konstruiert. Somit ist die Heimat ‚im Auftrag gegeben‘, sie gehört der Vergangenheit und der Zukunft an und ist ein ‚ununterbrochen kontinuierliches Dasein‘, denn „die Bedeutung der neuzeitlichen Heimatfigur wird durch Negativität, die Radikalisierung dieser Negativität, ihre Transformation und Affirmation strukturiert" (Drewniak/Dittmann 2012: 17).

> Die Relationen von materiellen und symbolischen Räumen sind bei der Fokussierung auf die‚verlorene‘ Provinz Schlesien und bei der spezifischen Zuordnung des Menschen und seiner Raumerfahrung und Raumwahrnehmung für die ars memorativa relevant. Dies gilt umso mehr, als dass literarische Texte in ihrer Funktion als spezifische Wahrnehmungsformen von Welt und Reflexionsinstanzen ein semantisches und performatives Archiv darstellen, das für die Selbstbeobachtung von (Erinnerungs-) Kulturen unverzichtbar ist (Zimnik 2008: 172).

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[3] Neuere Veröffentlichungen zu der Provinz Schlesien als Thema in der Literatur sind etwa**:** Białek E., & Buczek R., & Zimniak P. (Ed.) (2003)**:** *Eine Provinz in der Literatur. Schlesien zwischen Wirklichkeit und Imagination. Wrocław – Zielona Góra: ATUT* und Hałub M., & Weber, M. (Ed.): *Mein Schlesien – Meine Schlesier. Zugänge und Sichtweisen. Mój Śląsk – moi Ślązacy. Eksploracje i obserwacje*. (Schlesische Grenzgänger, Bd. 4) Leipzig: und Zimniak P. (2008): *Niederschlesien als Erinnerungsraum nach 1945. Literarische Fallstudien.* Wydania Specjalne ORBIS LINGUARUM; und auch: Adamski, M. & Kunicki, W. (Ed.) (2008): *Schlesien als literarische Provinz: Literatur zwischen Regionalismus und Universalismus.* Beiträge des Städtischen Museums Gerhart-Haupmann-Hans in Jelenia Góra; Bd. 2. Leipzig: Leipziger Universitätsverlag.

[4] Vgl. auch: http://www.galizien-deutsche.de/genealogie-und-ortsplaene/das-galiziendeutsche-archiv.htm und *Dokumentation der Heimatsammlungen in Deutschland. Ein Projekt am Seminar für Europäische Ethnologie/Volkskunde der Christian-Albrechts-Universität zu Kiel in Kooperation mit dem Bundesinstitut für Kultur und Geschichte der Deutschen im östlichen Europa*, Oldenburg.

Wie Rademacher bemerkt „[lassen sich] regionale Literaturräume (…), innerhalb bestimmter Sprachlandschaften, politischer und konfessioneller ,Reviere', in Verbindung mit spezifischen Arbeitswelten, kulturellen ,Brennpunkten' sowie besonderen orts- oder religionstypischen Kommunikationsräumen nachweisen" (Rademacher 1993:18). Norbert Mecklemburg (Mecklemburg 1982) spricht von der ,erzählten Provinz', die „eine Spannung von geographischer Referenz (…) und fiktionaler Geschlossenheit (…), die alle Wege ,nach außen' durch Unbestimmtheitsstellen gleichsam sperrt", kennzeichnet. Das Bedeutungspotential dieser Texte ist raumorientiert, weil sie sich auf Kulturräume ausgerichtet entfalten (Rademacher 1993: 19).

Nach der politischen Wende in Polen 1989 wird Schlesien intensiver von deutschen Schriftstellern besucht. Viele Schriftsteller bereisten auch Galizien, sowohl in den letzten zwei Jahrzehnten als auch bereits im 19. und 20. Jahrhundert. Manche entstammten aus der Region und wandten sich in ihren Werken der Heimat zu. Im 19. und Anfang des 20-sten Jahrhunderts waren die literarischen Reisen nach Galizien Reisen in die Welt der Kontraste:

> Galizien wurde zum multikulturellen Archetyp Arkadiens, zum Symbol des friedlichen Nebeneinanders vieler Völker, Kulturen und Konfessionen, zu einem unsterblichen Mythos, auch im politischen Sinne: dem Mythos einer Harmonie der Völker, die von der obersten Instanz des Kaisers gesichert wurde (Byczkiewicz 2007:1.15).

Der Mythos war aber mit der Realität nicht gleichzusetzen. Die sozialen Gegensätze und die „bitterste Not" kreierten einen anderen Archetyp dieser Provinz als eines Landes des Untergangs und der Dekadenz, den Stefan Kaszyński ,einen guten Ort zum Sterben' nennt (Kaszyński 1999). Wie Anna Byczkiewicz konstatiert, machten den Mythos Galizien nicht zuletzt die ,exotische' Landschaft und der Kolorit des ,halbzivilisierten Ostens' aus. Hier flossen die westliche Zivilisation und die symbolische ,weite Ebene' des Sarmatien ineinander.[5] Es etablierte sich sogar der Begriff ,Halb-Asien', der in Bezug auf Galizien verwendet und von Karl Emil Franzos' literarischem Zyklus der Kulturbilder aus Galizien geprägt wurde. Eine erneute Rückkehr in diese literarische und kulturelle Landschaft (allerdings nicht mehr geographische, wie A. Byczkiewicz betont), verzeichnet man Ende des 20. Jahrhunderts. Die in dieser Zeit entstandenen Texte sind literarische Dokumentationen faktischer geographischer, aber auch imaginärer Zeitreisen (Byczkiewicz 2007: 1.15)[6].

> Für GegenwartsautorInnen ist Galizien kein Land der politischen Harmonie, der Dekadenz oder der sozialen Hölle mehr. (…) Den Mythos bilden v.a. die

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[5] Vgl. etwa die Texte von Karl Emil Franzos, Soma Morgenstern und Joseph Roths Essays und Reisebilder.

[6] Vgl. z.B. zahlreiche Publikationen von Martin Pollack, z. B. 2006 (Ed.) Sarmackie krajobrazy. Głosy z Litwy, Białorusi, Ukrainy, Niemiec i Polski. Czarne, Wołowiec 2006. (dt. Fassung S. Fischer Verlag Frankfurt a. Main).

Multikulturalität dieser Grenzregion, ihre einmalige Vielfalt und das Nebeneinander der vielen Völker. Man vergisst allerdings zu schnell, dass diese mythisierte Welt nicht mehr existiert und dass die Idee der multikulturellen Landschaft eine Utopie ist (Byczkiewicz 2007: 2.15).

Zweifellos sind die Galizien-Texte der beiden letzten Jahrzehnte auch Berichte von einer Suche nach gemeinsamen mitteleuropäischen Wurzeln. Die diesjährige Buchmesse in Leipzig „tranzyt.kilometer 2014" war, ähnlich wie die zwei vorherigen, der Literatur aus Polen, der Ukraine und Belarus gewidmet, was bestimmt auch einen Einfluss auf das weitere Interesse der deutschsprachigen Literatur an den Kulturlandschaften dieser Länder, u.a. Schlesien und Galizien, nehmen wird.

2.1. *Reise nach Schlesien und Galizien. Eine Archäologie des Gefühls.* **(Berlin Verlag 2000). Fremdsprachendidaktische Qualitäten des Textes.**

Die Autorin Roswitha Schieb wurde 1962 in Recklinghausen geboren (beide Eltern stammen aus Schlesien). Sie studierte Literatur- und Kulturwissenschaft in Köln und Berlin und arbeitet z.Z. als freie Autorin in Borgsdorf bei Berlin.[7]

Die Analyse des genannten Textes von Roswitha Schieb steht in Verbindung mit einem intendierten didaktischen Projekt, bei dem Studenten der Germanistik aus Lemberg und aus Neisse die Zielgruppe bilden könnten. So wurde auch die Wahl des Textes motiviert.

Der im Jahre 2000 veröffentlichte Reiseroman von R. Schieb ist eine Spurensuche nach deutschen Wurzeln und Einflüssen in Schlesien und Galizien. Rolf Bernhard Essig beurteilt sehr positiv sowohl das reichhaltige Wissen der Autorin als auch den klaren, verständlichen Stil.

Der Roman nimmt Bezug auf einige Schlesien- und Westukrainereisen der Schriftstellerin aus den 90er Jahren und besteht aus informativen aber zugleich auch poetischen Bildern. Die sentimentale erste Familienreise nach Schlesien initiierte ein tieferes Interesse an der Region und weitere Reisen, die schließlich in einer Recherche über Galizien, die Heimat der Nachkriegsbewohner Schlesiens mündete und Reisen in die Westukraine zur Folge hatte.

> Es gibt wenige Regionen auf der Welt, in denen wie in Niederschlesien eine gesamte Bevölkerung gewaltsam ausgetauscht worden ist, und dieser Vorgang erschien mir plötzlich wie eine riesige Versuchsanordnung. Ich begann mir die Frage zu stellen, was für ein Verhältnis die neuen Bewohner zu den Zeugnissen einer Vergangenheit gewinnen konnten, die nicht die ihre war, ob es Traditionen gab, an die sie anknüpften, oder ob ihnen, den von der sozialistischen Propaganda ‚Repatrianten' genannten, die endlich in die ‚urpolnischen Gebiete' zurückkehren konnten, ob ihnen ihre neue Heimat fremd blieb (Schieb 2000: 7).

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[7] Neben Büchern über Peter Stein und seine Faust-Inszenierung veröffentlichte R. Schieb u.a. kulturhistorische Reisebücher. Von Herbst 2010 bis Februar 2011 führte die Autorin einen Literaturblog (www.jeder-zweite-berliner.de) über schlesische Spuren in Berlin und veröffentliche das Buch *Jeder zweite Berliner. Schlesische Spuren an der Spree* (Potsdam 2012).

Die Qualität des Textes von Roswitha Schieb, die ihn für ein kultur-komparatistisch-literaturwissenschaftliches Projekt in der Zielsprache Deutsch qualifiziert, ist seine Thematik, die sich auf die beiden den Lernern aus Polen und der Ukraine vertrauten Regionen Mittel(ost)europas, Schlesien und Galizien, bezieht, wodurch ein Wiedererkennungseffekt entsteht. Die distanzierte Erzähl-perspektive einer Außenstehenden (Deutschen) ist hier auch ein Vorteil und garantiert schon per se einen Verfremdungseffekt (die Drittperspektive liefert mit Sicherheit einen teilweise unterschiedlichen Blickpunkt auf die soziokulturellen, historischen und alltagsbezogenen Phänomene in den zwei genannten Provinzen, die Gegenstand des Textes sind, als ihre Wahrnehmung durch die Studierenden, die selbst diese Regionen bewohnen. Dadurch wird eine Grundlage zu einer balancierten Diskussion geliefert. Ein weiterer Vorteil des Buchs ist der Perspektivenwechsel. Die Beiträge einer naiven Erzählerin, die eine laienhafte Feldforscherin ist, wechseln hier mit narrativen Passagen, die fundierte historisch-kulturwissenschaftliche Informationen enthalten. Der Stil des Textes entspricht einer Ethnoreportage und ist stellenweise sowohl von einer sehr poetischen Prosa gekennzeichnet als auch von einem beinahe sachbuchähnlichen, faktendichten Bericht, was den Reiseroman sowohl zum ästhetischen Text als auch zu einer populärwissenschaftlichen Publikation macht. Die Projektteilnehmer haben hier also sowohl die Gelegenheit zu literaturwissenschaftlichen Studien als auch sie gewinnen aus dem Text Informationen, die sie verarbeiten und verifizieren können. Vor allem aber liefert der Text Kenntnisse über die Besonderheit der beiden Regionen, Schlesien und Galizien, die Konsolidierung ihrer Identität(en), ihre Transformationen auf dem Hintergrund der Jahrhunderte und schließlich ihre gegenseitige Beziehung. Die ‚archäologische' Darstellungsweise suggeriert die vielkulturellen Schichten der Regionen und lädt zu ihrer Zerlegung (Dekonstruktion) und Analyse ein, nachdem sie dann auf eine konstruktivistische Art von den Lesern wieder zu einem neuen Ganzen zusammengelegt werden können. Selbstverständlich sind Texte, die sich auf konkrete Kulturen beziehen und diese noch literarisch ästhetisierend umschreiben, eine Herausforderung für voreingenommene Leser, die ihre eigenen Erfahrungen mit den geschilderten Kulturen bereits gemacht haben. In diesem Sinne ist der vorgeschlagene Text auch ein Trainingsmaterial für die Herausbildung der interkulturellen Kompetenz und eines Modus' für den Umgang mit Stereotypen, insbesondere in literarischen Werken. Ästhetische Texte arbeiten sehr oft mit dem Stereotyp und integrieren ihn als eine Art literarisches Mittel. Der provokante Charakter fiktionaler Literatur gibt zahlreiche Impulse für einen Unterricht, der sowohl kommunikativ als auch rezeptionsästhetisch und kognitiv ausgerichtet ist.

2.2. Mögliche Umsetzung im Unterricht/Seminar.

Ein handlungsorientierter, kommunikativer, aber zugleich hermeneutisch-rezeptionsästhetischer Umgang mit dem Roman von R. Schieb erscheint für ein interkulturelles Projekt mit Studenten am meisten relevant. Die Leser werden auf

der ersten Etappe von den Textauszügen selbst angesprochen (werkimmanente Annäherung an den Text) und können dann ihre Reaktionen in einem Rezeptionsgespräch in der Gruppe, in Form von Eintragungen auf der moodle-Platform (sachliche Kommentare, eigene literarische Produktionen) oder auch bildhaft unter Einsatz von selbsterstellten graphischen Konstellationen, Skizzen etc. ausdrücken. Die Textdossiers mit Auszügen können den Teilnehmern zur Wahl angeboten werden (mehrere Dossiers). Die erste Etappe der Arbeit an dem Text soll eine Aperitif-Phase sein, in der die Motivation für die weitere Beschäftigung mit dem Gesamttext aufgebaut wird.

Hier erscheinen die ersten Reaktionen auf den Text, indem die Teilnehmer dem Text Fragen stellen, sagen, was sie an dem Text irritiert und äußern ihre Wünsche zur weiteren Arbeit mit dem Text (Was wollt ihr weiter machen: schreiben/dichten/modifizieren/kurzfassen?)

Beispielhafter Textauszug (R. Schieb):

> Auf dem Marktplatz von Breslau war mir ein Denkmal des polnischen Lustspieldichters Aleksander Fredro aufgefallen. Ursprünglich hatte es in Lemberg gestanden und war später von dort Vertriebenen nach Breslau mitgebracht worden. Ebenso wie die Erinnerungen meiner Eltern nach fünfzig Jahren noch sehr deutlich waren, mussten es auch die Erinnerungen der älteren Bewohner Schlesiens sein, die aus Galizien, dem Ehemaligen Ostpolen stammten. Galizien mit der Hauptstadt Lemberg gehört heute zu Ukraine und ist im Westen weitgehend in Vergessenheit geraten, außer bei einigen kulturell Interessierten, für die Galizien durch die Bücher von Joseph Roth und Karl Emil Franzos sowie die historischen Schtetl-Fotografien von Roman Visniac zu einer melancholischen Projektionsfläche geworden ist.
> Um den anderen Schauplatz der Westverschiebung zu sehen, brach ich nach Galizien und Lemberg auf. Es ist ein wenig mühsam, dorthin zu gelangen. Man benötigt ein Visum, und der Zug von Berlin braucht fast vierundzwanzig Stunden. Die Strecke führt über Breslau, Oppeln und Gleiwitz, also durch Schlesien, sie führt über Krakau, bis der Zug in Przemyśl, dem ostpolnischen, westgalizischen Grenzort, hält. Lemberg liegt nur neunzig Kilometer hinter dieser Grenze, in einigen Jahren möglicherweise die neue EU-Grenze, und für diese letzte kurze Strecke benötigt der Zug, der sie Anfang des zwanzigsten Jahrhunderts in einer Stunde zurücklegte, heutzutage fünf Stunden. Hier, an dieser Grenze, die im Herzen Mitteleuropas liegt, endet die mitteleuropäische Zeit, und die Moskauer Zeitrechnung beginnt.

Auf der zweiten Etappe des Projekts ist eine Zusammenstellung der Textauszüge aus dem Roman mit den sog. Zubringertexten möglich, die andere literarische Texte derselben oder anderer Gattungen sein können oder auch Sachtexte zum Thema Schlesien und Galizien, bzw. zu interkulturellen Bezügen im Mittelosteuropa u. ä. Es können aber auch Bilder, Karten, Fotos usw. sein. Die Teilnehmer können die einzelnen Dossiers auswählen oder an allen nacheinander z.B. im Rahmen des Stationenlernens arbeiten.

Die einzelnen Dossiers können betitelt werden, was die Besprechung der Texte in eine konkrete Richtung steuert und thematisch eingrenzt oder auch titellos belassen werden.

<u>Vorschlag:</u>
DOSSIER 1 „Globalität und Homogenität"
Textauszug 1 (R. Schieb)

> (…) als der Zug weiterfuhr, skandierte er für mich Ga-li-zi- ein, und das Land war weit, Feld an Feld, abwechselnd strohfarben und grün, und jedes mit einer neuen Kirche, die die Wellblechdächer der kleinen Häuser weit überragte, schiefergraue Kuppeln im Abendhimmel. Es gab keinen Schatten außerhalb der Dörfer, die sich langsam zu beleben schienen, als die Sonne sich dem Westen zuneigte, Bauern mit gegerbten braunen Gesichtern und Strohhüten, Ziegen und Kühe, festgepflockt auf dem Grasstreifen entlang, der Bahnschienen, Heuhaufen auf den Weisen in ordentlichen Reihen (…) über meinen ewigen Hang zur Nostalgie und schwelgte sofort weiter in der Anmut dieser Landschaft wie aus dem Bilderbuch von Joseph Roth, und es störte mich auch nicht, dass die Häuser sich mehr und mehr in die Landschaft schoben in der Dämmerung, bis alles plötzlich nur noch Stadt war, die Schienen sich bündelten und die große Bahnhofshalle sich öffnete, Lemberg, Lwów, Lwow, Leopolis, Lwiw, lasen wir, als der Zug hielt, pünktlich auf die Minute, wir waren wirklich da, und als wir die Eisentüren öffneten und hinausstiegen, hatten wir die bekannte Welt längst hinter uns gelassen. (…) (S.110)

Zubringertexte: Karten von Galizien v. 1914 und Preußisch-Schlesien und Gedichte v. G.Trakl *Grodek* und von Max Herrmann-Neiße *Ein deutscher Dichter bin ich einst gewesen*[8] und Sachtext über ethnische und soziale Verhältnisse in Galizien um 1914.

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[8] Max Herrmann-Neiße, *Ein deutscher Dichter bin ich einst gewesen* (1934): http://gedichte.xbib.de/Herrmann-Neisse_gedicht_Ein+deutscher+Dichter+bin+ich+einst+gewesen.htm, Galizienkarte: http://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Galizien, Schlesienkarte: http://www.oberschlesien.org/calendar/Schlesien-Preussisch.jpg (eingesehen am 17.07.2014)

Ein deutscher Dichter bin ich einst gewesen, M. Herrmann-Neiße (1934)

Ein deutscher Dichter bin ich einst gewesen,
die <u>Heimat</u> klang in meiner Melodie,
ihr <u>Leben</u> war in meinem <u>Lied</u> zu lesen,
das mit ihr welkte und mit ihr gedieh.

Die Heimat hat mir <u>Treue</u> nicht gehalten,
sie gab sich ganz den bösen Trieben hin,
so kann ich nur ihr Traumbild noch gestalten,
der ich ihr trotzdem treu geblieben bin.

In fremder Ferne mal ich ihre Züge
zärtlich gedenkend mir mit Worten nah,
die Abendgiebel und die Schwalbenflüge
und alles Glück, das einst mir dort geschah.

Doch hier wird niemand meine Verse lesen,
ist nichts, was meiner <u>Seele</u> <u>Sprache</u> spricht;
ein deutscher Dichter bin ich einst gewesen,
jetzt ist mein Leben <u>Spuk</u> wie mein Gedicht

Grodek, Georg Trakl (1914)

Am Abend tönen die herbstlichen Wälder
Von tödlichen Waffen, die goldnen Ebenen
Und blauen Seen, darüber die Sonne
Düster hinrollt; umfängt die Nacht
Sterbende Krieger, die wilde Klage
Ihrer zerbrochenen Münder.
Doch stille sammelt im Weidengrund
Rotes Gewölk, darin ein zürnender Gott wohnt,
Das vergossne Blut sich, mondne Kühle;
Alle Straßen münden in schwarze Verwesung.
Unter goldnem Gezweig der Nacht und Sternen
Es schwankt der Schwester Schatten durch den schweigenden Hain,

Zu grüßen die Geister der Helden, die blutenden Häupter;
Und leise tönen im Rohr die dunkeln Flöten des Herbstes.
O stolzere Trauer! ihr ehernen Altäre,
Die heiße Flamme des Geistes nährt heute ein gewaltiger Schmerz,
Die ungebornen Enkel.

DOSSIER 2 „Lokalität (Regionalität) und Tradition"
Zubringertext

In Westgalizien stellten die Polen und in Ostgalizien stets die Ruthenen die Mehrheit. 1900 hatten die Polen und Ruthenen in Galizien folgende Bevölkerungsanteile: Polen 54,75%, Ruthenen 42,20%. Die Polen bildeten den galizischen Adel, die Städtebevölkerung und im Westen auch den Bauernstand.

Das *Königreich Galizien und Lodomerien* hatte im Jahr 1914 eine Fläche von 78.497 km². Hauptstadt war Lemberg (heute ukrainisch *Lwiw*).

Problematisch blieb in der strukturschwachen Region die Lage der ländlichen Bevölkerung und der größtenteils nicht assimilierten Juden im Osten. Auch deshalb entstanden bald populistische Bewegungen der Bauern, die die Grundlagen für die in der Zwischenkriegszeit mächtigen Bauernparteien legten. Das liberale geistige Klima am Vorabend des Ersten Weltkrieges ermöglichte auch die Aufstellung paramilitärischer Verbände, die für die Wiedererlangung der Unabhängigkeit kämpfen sollten. Es fehlte zunächst aber ein klares und allgemein unterstütztes politisches Konzept für die weitere Entwicklung.

Die Bevölkerung vermehrte sich bis 1914 auf mehr als acht Millionen Menschen. Da etwa drei Viertel der Einwohner von der Landwirtschaft lebten, wurde Ackerboden sehr knapp. Das führte zu großer Auswanderung: In dieser Zeit verließen pro Jahr viele tausend Menschen das Land. Sie wanderten entweder nach Übersee oder in die Provinz Posen aus oder gingen als Saisonarbeiter nach Deutschland, Frankreich oder Dänemark.
Quelle: http://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Galizien

Textauszug 1 (R. Schieb)

Wir rasten quer durch die Stadt, Mischa am Steuer, schnell wie der Teufel mit quietschenden Bremsen. (…) Kopfsteinpflaster und Hügel und enge Straßen. Marina rief aufgekratzt, hier ist die katholische Kirche der Polen und hier die russisch-orthodoxe und hier die griechisch-katholische und hier, sogar eine Moschee, und hier ist die Universität und die Oper und alles andere, was wir in der Dunkelheit nicht sehen konnten, und schon saßen wir am Familientisch und stießen mit Krimsekt an und gehörten dazu. (…) (S.111)

Die heiße Luft stand zwischen den Häusern und den Kirchen (…) Jegliches Ziel war uns abhanden gekommen, Glockenklänge zogen uns an und jede offene Kirchentür, Franziskaner und Benediktiner und Jesuiten und Karmeliter, alles griechisch-orthodox und frisch renoviert, was für ein klerikaler Wohlstand. (…) Mein Blick strich über die Fassaden, glatt, gewölbt oder gewellt und vom Mittelalter bis zum Jugendstil keine Lücke und kein Makel. Bronzeschwäne ragten in den heißen Sommerhimmel, und Steinlöwen bewachten Portale oder stützten mit ihren Steinmähnen geschwungene Balkone, Balkone aus Stein oder aus Metall, verspielt und

luftig wie ein Serail, durchweht vom afrikanischen Wind, glasierte Kacheln wie in Lissabon, Wappenkartuschen und Urnen und ovale Fensterchen an den Gesimsen, Voluten und Masken und Rustikaquader, Hermen, Ritter und Delfine, Engelchen und Säulen, heilige und Medaillons, Putten, die Wägelchen zogen, mit Waren beladen, Kisten und Säcke daherschleppten zur Mehrung des Reichtums und der Schätze der Handelshäuser (…) Füllhörner, die sich unablässig ausschütteten in der verschwenderischen Großzügigkeit der Löwenstadt, und doch niemals leer wurden. (S.120)

Textauszug 2 (R. Schieb)

Im November fiel uns ein, dass Neisse nicht nur der Geburtsort von Max Herrmann-Neiße gewesen war, sondern dass Max Herrmann erst im Exil seine Heimatstadt mit in seinen Namen aufgenommen hatte, weil er an ihr hing, wie wir seinen *Wallspaziergängen bei Neiße* entnehmen konnten, 1932 hatte er das geschrieben, im letzten Moment, in dem noch alles hätte anders kommen können, ‚man geht an einem Sommernachmittag gegen fünf, halb sechs über den Ring der schlesischen Stadt Neiße. Das Ganze hat eine leicht österreichisch gefärbte, legere Stimmung, eichendorffisch plätschert der Brunnen bei der Kreuzkirche, schlank blüht der Rathausturm … aus dem Stadthauscafé flattert eine lässige Musik … welch schwermutig glückliches, eigen leuchtendes Erlebnis, … ich ganz hinzugeben diesem sehr deutschen, romantischen Bilde (…). Das, wovon meine Mutter erzählt hatte, war nicht mehr da. Wir sahen die Waage, den schönen Brunnen, wir entdeckten sogar die gusseiserne Inschrift, ‚hier steh ich, schön bin ich, es goss mich der Meister Wilhelm Helleweg aus Wien im Jahre 1688‘ wir betraten die gotische Jakobikirche, bemerkten eine zweisprachige Eichendorfplakette an der Wand, wir sahen alle Sehenswürdigkeiten, wir schauten uns alles an, auch die Kasematten Friedrichs des Großen, aber die Brüche und Verwerfungen der Vergangenheit wirkten zu stark an diesem bleigrauen Sommertag, all diese Lücken, die in Berlin nicht störten, weil Berlin sowieso hässlich und groß genug war, um Lücken zu verkraften. Diese Stadt aber war klein und sehr schön gewesen, das schlesische Rom, das von den Bomben weniger Stunden und Tage bis zur Unkenntlichkeit verbrannt worden war. (…) Wir fanden den Jerusalemer Friedhof lange nicht, dann folgten wir der Ulica Josepha Eichendorffa, die offenbar erst seit kurzem so hieß und uns zum Friedhof führte, oben links müsste das Grab sein, erinnerte sich meine Mutter, indem sie ihr motorisches Körpergedächtnis zu aktivieren versuchte (…) und schließlich waren wir es, die das Grab entdeckten, ein Doppelgrab, gestaltet wie ein stilisiertes aufgeschlagenes Buch (…), gut sagte mein Vater erleichtert, der Eichendorff liebte, gut, freute er sich richtig, und jetzt können wir weiterfahren Richtung Osten, in meine Richtung, es kennt mich dort keiner mehr. (S.53)

DOSSIER 3 „Prozesse und Transformationen"
Textauszug 1 (R. Schieb)

Die Schönheit Lembergs, dieser im Westen vergessenen Stadt, traf mich wie ein Schlag. Eine derartige Urbanität und Anmut der Bewohner des heutigen Lwiw hatte ich nicht erwartet. Ich sprach mit etlichen Lwiwern, lief tagelang durch die sommerlich glühenden Straßen und besuchte Gottesdienste verschiedener Konfes-

sionen. Ich fuhr über Land bis Tarnopol, heute Ternopil. Das am östlichen Rand Galiziens liegt. Obwohl das ehemalige Vielvölkerland Galizien mit seiner Hauptstadt Lemberg heute ethnisch größtenteils homogen ist, da es vorwiegend von Ukrainern bewohnt ist, lassen sich doch noch einige wenige polnische, österreichische und jüdische Spuren finden. (…)

Ebenso wie es in Schlesien kaum direkte Hinweise auf die siebenhundertjährige böhmisch-österreichisch-deutsche Geschichte gibt, fehlt in Lemberg jegliche bewusste Bezugnahme auf die etwa sechshundertjährige polnische Geschichte in Galizien. Im heutigen öffentlichen Bewusstsein spielt sie kaum eine Rolle – bis auf die Tatsache, dass das Mickiewicz-Denkmal immer noch unbehelligt an zentraler Stelle steht. (…)

Ich lief über polnische Gullideckel, wie ich in Schlesien über deutsche Gullideckel gelaufen war. Ich besuchte einen polnischen Gottesdienst. Ich las so viel über die Stadt wie möglich, um mir ihre komplizierte Geschichte, ihre historischen Schichten und ihre ideologischen Vereinnahmungen zu verdeutlichen. Ich traf Ukrainer, die ihrerseits im Zuge der ‚Operation Weichsel' nach 1945 aus Polen in die Ukraine vertrieben worden waren, und es wurde mir immer deutlicher, dass durch die Vertreibungen im zwanzigsten Jahrhundert vielen Millionen Menschen unterschiedlicher Nationalitäten bleibende Traumata zugefügt worden waren. Das Gras ist längst darüber hinweggewachsen. In der Ukraine sind die Menschen durch die ökonomische Katastrophe in Permanenz einem täglichen Überlebenskampf ausgesetzt. Die jungen Leute in Polen verlieren das Interesse am romantischen Lemberg-Mythos, am östlichen Sarmatien und schauen vor allem nach Westen. In der Bundesrepublik war das Interesse an den Vertriebenen von Anfang an gering. Der Osten galt als verdächtig, da er vom Westen aus unbewusst mit der Kriegsschuld und der Schuld an der Shoah in Verbindung gebracht wurde. (…) Das Ausblenden des Ostens konnte als eine Befreiung von Schuld erscheinen. (S. 11)

Zubringertext

Deutsche in Galizien

Maria Theresia ließ um 1774 in Lemberg die ersten Handwerker aus dem deutschen Reich ansiedeln. Nach dem Tod der Kaiserin im Jahr 1780 begann unter Kaiser Joseph II. die eigentliche, nach ihm benannte Kolonisation des Landes durch deutsche Bauern und Handwerker. Mit dem Ansiedlungspatent von 1781 wurden die Bedingungen dafür festgelegt. Bis zur Revolution des Jahres 1848 strömten in die neu erworbene Provinz Scharen von deutschen Beamten, Lehrern und Offizieren, derer der neue Staatsapparat bedurfte. Das Deutsche wurde im Schulwesen als Unterrichtssprache eingeführt, als Amtssprache in die Landesverwaltung und das Gerichtswesen.

»Heim ins Reich«

Für die deutsche Minderheit verwendete man im 20. Jahrhundert die Bezeichnung Galizien- bzw. Wolhyniendeutsche. 1940, infolge des Deutsch-Sowjetischen Grenz- und Freundschaftsvertrages, wurden sie im Rahmen der Aktion »Heim ins Reich« in die besetzten polnischen Gebiete umgesiedelt, zum großen Teil im Gebiet um Łódź (Lodz, Litzmannstadt), aus dem die polnischen Vorbesitzer zuvor vertrieben worden waren. Mit der Flucht 1945 wurden die deutschen Umsiedler über ganz Deutschland verstreut. Die Polen Galiziens wur-

den nach dem Zweiten Weltkrieg vertrieben bzw. in die ehemals deutschen Gebiete im Westen Polens ausgesiedelt. Umgekehrt wurden Ukrainer aus Polen in die Westukraine umgesiedelt.

Quelle: http://www.kulturforum.info/de/topic/1019489.galizien.html

DOSSIER 4 „Identität und Nomadisierung"

Textauszug 1 (R. Schieb)

Das einzige Restaurant in Grottkau hieß Grodek und war ein kleiner sozialistischer Kubus direkt neben dem Gefängnis. (…) Grodek, Grodek, fiel mir im November ein, so hieß ja auch das letzte Gedicht von Georg Trakl, Grodek, Kriegsschauplatz 1914, damals in Österreich gelegen, ‚am Abend tönen die herbstlichen Wälder" und dann wurde es polnisch, aber das hatte Trakl nicht mehr erlebt (…). Wer weiß – vielleicht siedelten sich die Leute aus Grodek in Grottkau neu an, wo sie den kleinen sozialistischen Restaurantkubus zärtlich nach ihrer Heimatstadt benannten, wer weiß. (S. 29)

Wir hatten auf der Karte das Dorf meiner Mutter gesucht, aber es war nicht drauf. Es war zu klein. Da kann man nichts machen, sagte ich fast erleichtert, was sollen wir auch dort, ich will da gar nicht hin (…). (S. 30)

Wir klopften an die Tür. Ein älterer Mann, dessen braune Augen uns verwirrt musterten, öffnete. Wir entschuldigten uns und fragten nach Frau Szuka. Er nickte. Wir stellten uns vor. Sein Gesicht hellte sich auf, die Tochter von der Konetzke Maria, ihr macht wohl eine Reise durch Großdeutschland, wir schwiegen befremdet, kommt rein. Er leitete uns in einen niedrigen quadratischen Vorraum, in dem sich unsere Augen nur langsam an das Dämmerlicht gewöhnten und dann Ärmlichkeit wahrnahmen und einen bunten Kittelrücken, der sich im Krebsgang eine steile Holzstiege herunterbewegte, gebeugt, fast kriechend, kam er uns entgegen, zentimeterweise und mit den Händen an einen Aufnehmer und an die Treppenstufen geklammert, und dieser Kittelrücken war die Szuka Grete. (…) Als sie unten war, stützte sie sich auf zwei Krücken, wandte sich um, starrte uns an, während der Szuka Herbert, ihr Bruder, wie wir bald erfuhren, uns voller Stolz vorstellte, da regte sich ihr Gesicht zu einem Lächeln, ach, da seid ihr, wie geht's denn der Mutter, gut, ja, ich habe ihr nicht schreiben können zu Weihachten, ich hatte Herzinfarkt (…) Wie geht's denn Lenchen, die Knie, jaja, ich kann auch fast nicht mehr laufen seit dem Herzinfarkt, seit langem bin ich nicht mehr aus dem Haus (…) wir haben ja auch alles, wo wir so gut haushalten, deutsche Wirtschaft, die wir hier führen, und vieles bekommen wir von meinen beiden Schwestern, Ärztinnen in Köln. Die haben uns so oft gefragt, ob wir nicht zu ihnen in den Westen kommen mögen, aber erst wollten wir nicht weg, wir haben ja hier unser Gehöft und unser Land, hier gehören wir hin, dachten wir immer, und vielleicht ändert sich hier eines Tages alles, hatten wir gehofft, und jetzt sind wir zu alt.

(…) Wir traten in den Nachmittag zurück und gingen langsam die Dorfstraße weiter. Das war das Haus deiner Familie, deutete der Szuka Herbert auf einen grauen leerstehenden Hof, die Fensteröffnungen ohne Glas oder zugemauert wie auch die Tür (…) Der Hof wurde zu einer Schweinemästerei, nachdem deine Familie vertrieben worden war, er gehörte zur Kolchose, wie das meiste Land hier im Dorf. (…) Er öffnete das Lettentor und hieß uns auf den zubetonierten ramponierten Hof treten. Unvorstellbar, dass meine Mutter in diesem Haus groß geworden sein soll,

dass sie darin ihre Schularbeiten gemacht, gespielt und gestritten, nicht mal, dass sie darin gegessen, sich gewaschen und geschlafen haben soll, konnte ich mir vorstellen, als zwei Bälle über das Lattentor flogen und zwei schräg grinsende Mädchen aus dem Nachbarhaus auf diese Weise ihre Neugier und ihre angestammten Rechte bekundeten. Ach, das sind ja die Enkelinnen der Barthel Annelies, das ist außer uns die einzige Deutsche, die hier geblieben ist (…).(S. 35)

Zubringertext: lyrischer Text von Adam Zagajewski *Nach Lemberg Fahren,* (aus dem Polnischen von Karl Dedecius)[9]

Eine solche Arbeitsweise ist lediglich ein Vorschlag, weil sich in einem hermeneutisch orientierten Sprach- und Literaturunterricht eine detaillierte Festlegung des Verlaufs und der Ziele der Stunde/Veranstaltung nicht formulieren lässt. Vielmehr sind die spiralförmige Progression und das impulsgesteuerte Lernen (Hunfeld 2004) die Faktoren, die die Beschäftigung mit dem Text strukturieren. Im handlungsorientierten Lernen werden wiederum die aktive Teilnahme aller Lerner und konkrete Produkte als Output vorausgesetzt. In autonomen offenen Projektformen entscheiden die Teilnehmer über den Verlauf des Projekts und die Produkte. Selbstverständlich sollte der Lehrer auch Vorschläge nennen.

Die Lektüre des gesamten Romans kann auf der nächsten Etappe erfolgen, wobei die Studenten während individuellen Lesens und einer Lektüre in Peer-Gruppen ihre Fragen an die einzelnen Textpassagen stellen können und eine kritische Analyse in Hinblick auf die Konstruktion des Textes, die stilistischen Merkmale, die Wirkung auf den Rezipienten und die Informativität des Romans durchführen. Interessant erscheinen mit Sicherheit die Frage der Darstellung der Landschaften und Mentalitäten, die Kreation der beiden Provinzen als multikultureller Kulturlandschaften und die von der Erzählerin hergestellten Bezüge zwischen den beiden Regionen, Schlesien und Galizien.

> Zwar handelt es sich im Falle regional bezogener Literaturprojekte um eine festgelegte Region, die teilweise vertraut ist. Ihre Behandlung aber durch zwei oder drei verschiedene nationale Literaturen liefert oft unterschiedliche Auffassungen sozialgeschichtlicher Wirklichkeit, die in dem kollektiven Gedächtnis der jeweiligen Nationen vorhanden waren bzw. immer noch fortleben und als literarische Fiktionen den untersuchten Textkorpus ausmachen. In einem solchen Falle dienen literarische Texte als Modelle, die die Entstehung fiktiver Bilder eines Landes oder einer Kultur illustrieren (Schrader 1996: 234).

Hier wäre also eine Zusammenstellung des Textes von R. Schieb mit anderen Texten, die dieselben Regionen illustrieren, wünschenswert. Ferner könnte auch der in dem Text befindliche Kulturwortschatz etymologisch untersucht werden, wie z. B. die zahlreichen metaphorischen Bezeichnungen, die sich auf Schlesien und Galizien (auch auf Neisse und Lemberg) beziehen, z.B. ‚Ruthenien‘, ‚Klein

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[9] http://www.ji.lviv.ua/n12texts/zagajewski-ger.htm

Wien', ,schlesisches Rom'. Die Textauszüge könnten während einer Stadtrally vor Ort in Neisse und Lemberg mit konkreten Orten in den Städten in schriftlichen Texten der Studenten zusammengestellt werden. In der Arbeit mit fremdsprachigen Lesern spielt immer auch die Frage der Aktivierung der einzelnen Sprachfertigkeiten beim Umgang mit Texten eine Rolle. Sprechen, verstehendes und reproduktives Lesen, Schreiben und eventuell auch verstehendes Hören bilden wichtige Lehrziele des Projekts und werden um die Entwicklung kognitiver Kompetenzen (u.a. literaturkritischer und interkultureller) ergänzt.

Schlussfolgerungen

Im Zentrum des Artikels steht der Kulturtransfer mittels Literatur als ein sprachlernförndernder Faktor. Kulturelle Inhalte in fremdsprachigen Texten können nicht nur die interkulturelle und kulturkundliche Kompetenzen entwickeln helfen, sondern sie beeinflussen auch positiv die linguistische Kompetenz, insbesondere die lexikalische und kommunikative Kompetenzen und direkt auch die vier Sprachfertigkeiten. Insbesondere gilt dies für ästhetische Texte mit kulturkundlichen Inhalten, denn sie sind sowohl informativ als auch sie stellen Fragen an den Leser und fordern ihn zum Dialog heraus. Der Beitrag bespricht Ziele der fremdsprachlichen Literaturdidaktik und Probleme des Umgangs mit kulturellen Inhalten in literarischen Texten. U.a. werden Funktionen und die Wirkung des Stereotyps in der Rezeption literarischer Texte beurteilt sowie Phänomene wie Poetisierung und Polarisierung von Kulturen analysiert. Als Textbeispiel wurde der Reiseessay von Roswitha Schieb gewählt, der die beiden Kulturlandschaften Schlesien und Galizien nicht nur auf dem Hintergrund der Schicksalsgemeinschaft ihrer Uhreinwohner zusammenstellt sondern auch auf eine beinahe archäologische Weise die einzelnen Kulturschichten aufdeckt und auf multikulturelle lokale Gemeinschaften hinweist, die das kulturelle Erbe dieser Regionen über Jahrhunderte hinweg beeinflussten.

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Pictures:
Galizienkarte: http://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Galizien,
Schlesienkarte: http://www.oberschlesien.org/calendar/Schlesien-Preussisch.jpg

Note on the author:
Alina Dittmann, PhD, is Lecturer of the Section of German Studies (Institute of Modern Languages, University of Applied Sciences in Nysa).
Studies: 1992-1997: German Philology at the University of Opole and Julius Maximilian University of Würzburg, 1997-1998: Teacher Trainer Course for German as a Second Language (Zentralstelle für das Auslandsschulwesen, BVA Köln), 2004 doctorate in Literature didactics of German as a Second Language (University of Opole), 2007-2008: Study of English as a Second Language and Bilingual Issues in Education (University of California Berkeley and Las Positas College Livermore/CA).
Fields of work: Literature Didactics in German as a second language, Methods and didactic strategies in Second Language Education and Teaching of heritage languages, bilingual and multilingual issues in children and adult education.
e-mail address: alina.dittmann@pwsz.nysa.pl

Małgorzata Kamińska
University of Applied Sciences, Nysa

INTERCULTURAL ISSUES IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

Abstract: This paper aims to demonstrate relationships between culture and language in the context of foreign language teaching. Different ways of incorporating cultural elements into the classroom teaching are presented. Emphasis is placed on linguistic competence as one of the main goals of teaching language and culture. The paper emphasizes the importance of teacher competence and of a well-designed program. The problem of intercultural issues in didactics is placed in the context of the suggestions of the European Council regarding the inclusion of cultural studies in foreign language curricula. The author concludes that the benefits of intercultural teaching include the broadening of learners' cultural perspectives, the growth of learners' cultural awareness and tolerance.

Introduction

The aim of this paper is to emphasize relationships between culture and language. The paper draws attention to the importance of cultural studies in the process of foreign language teaching. It attempts to define the concept of cultural studies and to show different ways of incorporating cultural elements into the classroom teaching. Emphasis is placed on linguistic competence as one of the main goals of language teaching. Teacher competence and a well-designed program are presented as discriminants of the quality of the teaching process. The paper also highlights the suggestions of the European Council regarding the inclusion of cultural studies in foreign language curricula.

1. Types of competences and foreign language teaching

Nowadays special emphasis is placed on students' cultural awareness as an indispensable factor determining the way they can function in the modern multilingual and multicultural world. In order to develop this type of awareness, one should acquire not only the ability to notice similarities and differences between one's own culture and the target culture, of which the language is being studied, but also an ability to perceive people from the point of view of the members of that culture. Only after acquiring these abilities, can one understand the complexities of the foreign culture. It is also important to use this knowledge in order to acquire a more objective picture of one's own culture, habits, traditions, ways of thinking and the skills of dealing with communication problems generated in intercultural communication. It follows that in order to master a foreign language at a level that ensures communication with native speakers of that language, learners should be aware of the necessity to acquire certain competencies.

According to Czerepniak-Walczak (1999), "Competence is a conscious, acquired through training, satisfying, though not extraordinary, level of skills that determines effective performance in a certain domain". Zawadzka (2004: 110) calls it "an ability to use knowledge effectively, including the skills of its critical interpretation and argumentation". The definition shows that competence is such a level of skills that determines effective performance in a certain domain, for example in foreign language teaching. In pedagogy this term is used to describe a man's disposition acquired by learning. A higher level of competence is acquired in this domain. Competences mean a harmonic competence of knowledge, skills, understanding and desires. They are understood in a wider sense than skills or abilities. One can talk about competences when the learner is aware of their own potential, which gives them an opportunity for development and undertaking appropriate actions.

Let us now turn to cultural competence. This term was used for the first time by Dell Hymens in 1967 to refer to an ability generating an infinite number of sentences that are grammatically correct and that follow social-cultural rules determining use of language in specific types of social interaction. Emphasizing the concept of cultural competence, Dell Hymens maintains that "[a speaker] capable of any and all to use, not knowing when to talk and when to stop, would be a cultural monstrosity" (1972: 16). In turn, Hall treats culture and linguistic communication as the same phenomena, explaining that culture is equivalent to communication. He maintains that decoding the message without the change of the original is possible only with preserving socio-cultural rules, the knowledge of which is very important. He maintains that socio-cultural norms of activities determine and create interpersonal relationships and that they refer directly to us (Hall, 1990).

In what follows I will deal with the concept of intercultural competence, a term that appeared in foreign language teaching in the 80s. The concept attracted great attention in societies which were a mixture of different cultures. It was first used in education in the countries with settlements of emigrants who had to assimilate in a new environment and integrate with local communities. Then the concept permeated into pedagogy, as people of united Europe saw a need to learn foreign languages. Introduced in the latter half of the 80s, a new intercultural approach is understood as a merger of language and culture.

According to Pfeiffer (1980), cultural studies must be closely connected with the language study, which is the basic element of the glottodidactic process. In this context, language studies should serve not only developing linguistic skills but also eradicating bias and schematic thinking. Culture studies should provide learners with a true image of a nation, create the basis for better understanding of its culture and reality, and contribute to agreement between nations. Biechele and Padrós (2003: 91) offer a definition of intercultural competence, which takes into consideration a combination of linguistic and psychological skills. They include the awareness of different communicative activities in different cultural environ-

ments, the ability to distinguish meanings in context, the ability to identify different communicative styles, a strategy of the analysis of the comprehension gap or misunderstanding in communication, and the readiness to feel empathy with foreign cultural perspectives.

The definitions presented above suggest that the process of foreign language teaching is complex. The process is determined by a number of elements, including the development of relevant interrelated competences. Linguistic competence is closely related to the cultural one, as the language of a nation reflects its culture. It is impossible to separate language from culture. Although linguistic competence includes grammatical competence, the latter is not sufficient to use language efficiently. In order to communicate in intercultural context, one should possess a developed communicative competence and be able to use linguistic means and strategies. Furthermore, one should learn both cultures, the native and the foreign one, in order to be able to compare them, distinguish their norms, recognize potential problems in communication caused by intercultural differences, and work out possible strategies and solutions. They will ensure successful communication in intercultural situations.

In order to highlight the above relations between different types of competences and to distinguish linguistic competence from the intercultural one, we will now concentrate on a situation reported by Marcjanik (2007: 21). After the successful completion of a course of the Polish language for foreigners organized by Wrocław University, the participants brought a bunch of flowers to the teacher in order to thank her for effort and say hello. Such a gift is typical of Polish culture and is regarded as an expression of students' gratitude towards the teacher. However, students' unfamiliarity with Polish culture was revealed later on, as the teacher noticed that the flowers were on a spruce branch, flower heads were stuck on sticks, and the whole bunch was tied up with a ribbon with a surprising note: "The last farewell". The wording of the message indicates that the students had a developed linguistic competence, but the fact that they brought what the Poles bring for a funeral shows that they lacked communicative and intercultural competence.

By describing the above situation I wanted to emphasize relationships between specific types of competence and the fact that foreign language learners cannot have gaps in either of them. The development of all types of competences presented above guarantees successful communication between speakers of different cultures, which is what the European Council places emphasis on.

2. Cultural studies: typology

It was in 1980 that Pfeiffer provided a classification of cultural studies for the purposes of language didactics. He distinguishes cultural studies *sensu largo*, divided into four subdomains: life and institutions, countries, social studies, and cultural studies *sensu stricto* (2001: 157). Cultural studies should describe physical reality, for example, money, stamps, tickets, tourist guides, and photos of for-

eign objects that are different from the ones found in the native culture. Real objects make teaching authentic and stimulate students' motivation. The knowledge of countries contains the history and geography of a country, as well as the knowledge of its political, economic and cultural institutions. Social studies are related to habits and situational and linguistic activities of members of a community. This domain sets out to fulfill cognitive and educational functions. The aim of learning social studies is to understand and accept the behavior of members of other communities but not necessarily to adjust to the life in a foreign community.

Cultural studies *sensu stricto* are related to the creation of human intellect, that is literature, art, music, painting and architecture (Pfeiffer, 2001: 157-59). Pfeiffer's classification of cultural studies presented above was used in glottodidactics, especially in the practice of developing and evaluating teaching materials for classroom use. It also helped teachers to incorporate cultural studies into the process of foreign language teaching. It has been reflected in the newest documents of the European Council, which aims to develop a system of education common for all the European countries. The European Council pursues general aims of the systematic promotion of foreign language teaching, including its social and cultural aspects, as developed by the creators of Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). They are as follows:

- the ability to use foreign languages for communicative purposes as planned in the program for a particular proficiency level,
- respect and tolerance for beliefs, values and activities of people from different cultures and nations, and the ability to perceive intercultural similarities and differences,
- the ability to take responsibility for self-education,
- the will to cooperate, including the readiness to communicate with others,
- preparation for participation in a democratic society of the united Europe

The above aspects allow us to distinguish broader categories of teaching goals, including the basic ones, which cover intercultural awareness resulting from differences in languages and cultures, and a positive attitude towards other languages and tolerance for other cultures.

As has been already mentioned, the European Council places a special emphasis on cultural awareness, of which indispensable elements are:

- the ability to notice similarities and differences between the native and foreign cultures,
- the ability to perceive people and their affairs from the point of view of members of the foreign culture and to understand their point of view,
- the use of the above knowledge for achieving a more objective image of one's own culture, habits, traditions and ways of thinking,
- the ability to deal with comprehension gaps and intercultural misunderstanding and conflicts (The Central European Framework).

As is seen, an international program conducted according to the guidelines of the European Council places a special emphasis on culture, and treats intercultural competence as one of the major teaching goals. The following section discusses intercultural competence, its classification, and its influence on foreign language use.

3. Intercultural competence

Intercultural competence is often mentioned as the main goal of foreign language education. It is often perceived as a complex ability or a set of skills of dealing with new, difficult intercultural communicative situations (Aleksandrowicz-Pędich, 2006: 11; Lubecka, 1998: 61). The concept of intercultural competence is understood as an excellent knowledge of a foreign language and culture (Wilczyńska, 2005: 22). Taking the above into consideration, we can define intercultural competence as:

- personality determined conditions, or *savoir-être*, that is the ability to dispose selfish attitudes,
- the ability to learn, or *savoir-apprendre*, that is a cognitive ability to analyze new cultural phenomena, including the tradition, activities and beliefs of a foreign community,
- declarative knowledge, or *savoir*, that is the knowledge of those phenomena and activities, and elementary knowledge of cultures, including information on geography, history, economy, art of the country of which the language is being studied,
- procedural knowledge, or *savoir-faire*, that is the ability to behave properly in contact with members of other cultures.

The intercultural competences mentioned above can be evaluated by such determinants as the ability to notice immediately ethnocentric actions among the members of one's own society. Other determinants include the ability to spot ethnocentric elements in a text and their description and the ability to spot and describe the mapping of the manifestations of other cultures onto one's own society. Thus, intercultural competence may be perceived as a complex ability to function and deal with new multicultural communicative situations.

Rubin maintains that the ideal learner of a foreign language demonstrates seven basic abilities:

1. the ability to express respect,
2. the ability to refrain from expressing biased or premature opinions,
3. the ability to recognize one's own knowledge as undogmatic and relative,
4. the ability to show empathy,
5. the ability to adjust to new situations,
6. the ability to accept ambiguity,
7. the knowledge of basic conversational responses, schemata, and social interactions.

That it is impossible to learn a foreign culture has been shown by specialists researching a communicative process. They believe that it is impossible to master every single rule observed in all interactive activities. According to the scholars, one should refrain from learning cultural stereotypes that reduce a rich repertoire of activities down to a few basic ones and delay the formation of independent opinions. However, it should be emphasized that stereotypes are undoubtedly a source of knowledge about the unknown reality. Their power to categorize, stigmatize, generalize results in a stereotypical and emotionally charged image. They hamper formulating personal independent opinions.

It should be mentioned that in spite of mastering the grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary of a foreign language, speakers of different languages may have serious communication breakdown caused by cultural differences. There are still learners who think that if they know basic social-cultural rules regulating the use of the Polish language, they will not encounter any problems with the use of English or any other foreign language. However, familiarity with foreign culture can prevent effective communication between speakers of different languages.

It follows that the aim of the teacher is to help learners understand intercultural differences, preventing them from misunderstanding, and minimizing a negative experience of cultural shock. In order for the above help to be effective, foreign language teachers should have appropriate working conditions such as well-equipped language classrooms and well-designed teaching programs. Other important factors include teachers' attitude, knowledge and skills.

4. Didactic materials and process

The didactic process can be understood as conscious and systematic actions of teachers and students which enable the latter to acquire the knowledge of a specific subject field. Teacher competences and a well-designed teaching program are the determinants of the quality of the didactic process. The teacher should have interactive, pedagogical, linguistic, didactic and intercultural skills. It should be emphasized that a basic goal of a teacher conducting the didactic process is to create a specific environment, or climate, that makes teaching effective. As Arends (1995: 122) puts it,

> The environment that facilitates teaching is characterized by the following: a friendly atmosphere, in which students respect each other, their partners and the class as a group; structures and processes that meet the students' needs and make students deliberately involved in didactic activities, cooperating with the teacher and peers; students' acquisition of social skills, which are indispensable for meeting cognitive and social requirements of the environment. (My translation)

It follows that cognitive motivation in students is fostered by a friendly atmosphere, well-organized classes, and the teacher's authority. The teacher's pedagogical skills are also important. Interesting teaching activities can stimulate the learning process. According to Arends (1995: 139):

"A motivation for success is undoubtedly related to the students' level of interest in a given didactic activity. Both teaching materials and the ways they are used in didactics create new opportunities for teachers to relate to students' interests" (My translation).

A foreign language teacher should show excellent linguistic skills. His or her linguistic proficiency, a deep knowledge of a given foreign country can greatly contribute to the arousal of students' attention and interest.

Motivation can be fostered not only by great care given to class preparation and use of correct target language but also by the presentation of extra real materials through a variety of techniques. A well-motivated student can learn a foreign language faster and easier, search for new information about the foreign culture, and show a will to establish contacts with the representatives of this culture. All the above actions may arguably influence the development of student's intercultural competence.

A teacher introducing cultural elements into the classroom should remember the following:

- cultures are not uniform, and thus should not be perceived as cultures of one and the same concept or idea;
- students should be introduced to details of a culture in order to ensure an accurate interpretation of cultural facts. The more general account, the lower chance of an accurate interpretation;
- cultures should not be viewed through stereotypes, as this may lead to generalization and even bias;
- teachers should skillfully combine factographic elements with the skills of representing their own opinions on selected topics;
- teachers should organize the didactic process in such a way that students are active participants in the process of acquiring cultural knowledge;
- teachers should present cultural elements in a way that the elements create a unified part of a larger educational process, while student can deal with new inter-cultural contents and problems in an individual, productive and effective way;
- activities and tasks should be prepared in such a way that they combine new intercultural contents with the known ones.

It should be stressed that the development of intercultural competence can be greatly influenced by appropriate teaching materials, such as textbooks, dictionaries, workbooks, newspapers cuttings, films, literary texts, real objects related to a given language, photos, songs. A rich source of such information is the Internet. While selecting didactic materials, teachers should check to what degree the potential materials are capable of developing all competences, including the intercultural one. These criteria are as follows:

- functionality of materials;
- appropriateness of materials with regard to students' age and interests;

- diversity of information conveyed;
- realism of materials;
- diversity of authentic materials;
- presentation, description, and comparison of stereotypes;
- richness of graphic materials presenting the reality of the target foreign country;
- intercultural dimension of materials to encourage an intercultural dialogue;
- richness of forms and techniques of work.

The foregoing discussion shows that the development of language proficiency can be greatly influenced by appropriate conditions, including a language laboratory equipped with modern technical and didactic aids as well as well-chosen didactic materials used frequently in the classroom. An important role is played by the teacher who manages the didactic process. The teachers' attitude, experience, as well as factual and linguistic preparation for this profession are essential. The following section offers a few proposals for incorporating cultural elements in the teaching process.

5. Incorporating cultural elements into didactic process

The incorporation of cultural elements into the didactic process has a number of advantages. Firstly, learners show more motivation and interest in learning. Secondly, cultural knowledge contributes to rejecting stereotypes about foreigners.

In foreign language teaching, history is an important element of cultural studies. It helps reduce the temporary and cultural distance. When incorporating elements of history into the teaching process, the teacher should remember to explain to the students why a particular past event or situation is important for people living in the modern times. The teacher should be careful about the selection of topics, because that decision has a great potential of developing learners' cultural sensitivity, which in effect helps them to make contact with the members of the foreign culture, to mediate between their own and foreign culture, and to deal with intercultural misunderstandings and conflicts.

In recent years Polish culture has been permeated by British customs and habits. Let me illustrate how such cultural facts can be exploited in the classroom. A set of stimulating exercises can be found in Bogusławska & Mioduszewska (2011). For example, for the purpose of teaching some facts about the Valentine's Day, students are asked to do the following tasks: brainstorm Valentine associations, discuss questions (e.g. "*What is your opinion on Valentine's Day*"), discuss controversial issues (e.g. "*Valentine's Day is too commercialized*"), role-play according to short guidelines (e.g. *"It's Valentine's Day ... you are not interested in making friends, especially with strange and importunate men. Unfortunately, one of them is doing his best to ask you out. Do your best to get rid of him!*"), read texts and answer checking questions, explain how to prepare dishes for an ideal dinner, design a Valentine Card, etc. (ibid, 18-25). Such exercises engage students

in real-life situations and demonstrate relevant vocabulary in context. Worth noting is the way students are introduced in this book to potentially difficult words. In the text which they are asked to read, such words are highlighted, while a post-reading task requires them to match the words with definitions. This method of presenting vocabulary, which combines a contextual approach with an explicit explanation of meaning through definitions, can be a great aid to vocabulary memorization and retention.

Conclusions

The benefits of intercultural teaching include the broadening of learners' cultural image and mental horizon, the growth of learners' cultural awareness, especially with regard to differences between their own and foreign cultures. An obvious benefit is the growth of tolerance, which manifests itself in the acceptance of a foreign world co-existing with the learner's own one. It follows that mastering a foreign language is only possible when cultural elements are incorporated into teaching on a regular basis. Only then can a foreign language learner benefit from the numerous advantages of being a citizen of the European Union. As the European Council sets out future goals, a citizen of Europe should be multilingual, tolerant, and respectful of democratic rules and of other people's cultures. Cultural knowledge contributes to intercultural education, which is essential for the European integration process. By gaining this knowledge, students learn respect for other nation's achievements and are capable of perceiving their own culture from a different perspective.

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Note on the author:

Małgorzata Kamińska, PhD, is a linguist, specialising in the field of lexicography, a graduate of the University of Wrocław with an MA in English Studies. She has received a PhD from the University of Opole. Currently, she works at the University of Applied Sciences in Nysa, where she teaches undergraduate English studies courses, including practical English, introduction to didactics, and the history of the English language.

e-mail address: malgorzata.kaminska@pwsz.nysa.pl

Małgorzata Kurpiel
Staatliche Fachhochschule in Nysa

DEUTSCH - ABITURANFORDERUNGEN IM NEISSER CAROLINUM IN DEN JAHREN 1861-1937

Abstract: *In this article I attempt to present the reforms in secondary education on the basis of written final secondary education examinations in the German language taken in Nysa Secondary Education School "Carolinum" within the period from 1861 to 1937. In this period, educational curricula were frequently reformed, typical humanistic education was gradually abandoned and the curricula were adjusted to the historical changes of the new times. All topics mentioned in this article were drawn from the original secondary school written final examinations by students of Nysa Carolinum, kept in the National Archives in Opole.*

Einleitung

Die Änderungen in den Lehrprogrammen des höheren Schulwesens 1861-1937 sind mit den historischen Ereignissen eng zu verbinden. Ich versuchte darzustellen, wie sich die Abiturthemen des Neisser Carolinum im Verlauf dieser Jahre geändert haben, also was für einen Einfluss die historischen Vorgänge auf die Lehrpläne in den höheren Schulen hatten. Der genannte Zeitraum umfasst eine riesige Zeitspanne, in der das einheitliche deutsche Staat gegründet wurde, durch den Ersten Weltkrieg bis zum Zweiten Weltkrieg. Die Jahresberichte aus der Bibliothek des Carolinum und die Abiturthemen, entnommen aus den Abitur-arbeiten aus dem Oppelner Staatsarchiv sind Zeugnis jener Zeit und jener an den Änderungen reichen Ereignisse.

1. Einführung in die Reform des deutschen Schulwesens in Preußen im Rückblick auf Neisser Carolinum

‚«Tun am Denken, Denken am Tun zu prüfen, das ist die Summe aller Weisheit, von jeher anerkannt, von jeher geübt, nicht eingesehen von einem jeden», insbesondere aber von den Schulhäuptern der Humanisten und der Realisten" (Lohbeck 2005: 9) wurde das Zitat Goethes von Fritz Blättner, dem bekannten Pädagogen, in einem Rückblick auf den Schulstreit zwischen dem Humanismus, der Latein und Geschichte bevorzugte, und dem Realismus, der Deutsch in Verbindung mit Geschichte und Erdkunde und mehr exakten Wissenschaften propagierte, im 19. Jahrhundert ergänzt. Goethe versuchte das Ideale mit dem Praktischen zu preisen, um das Wahre mit dem Schönen zu verbinden. Das 19. Jahrhundert in seiner Gestaltung des Schulwesens bestätigte das aber nicht. Im 19. Jahrhundert begann

der Streit zwischen den Humanisten und den Realisten, was Widerspiegelung in den Schulen gefunden hat, der von den Realisten gewonnen wurde.

Der Kampf war auf einigen Etappen gewonnen: die Realien mussten von den Gymnasien akzeptiert werden und die Gleichberechtigung mussten den Realschulen zugestanden werden. Nach langem Kampf der bürgerlichen Frauenbewegung mit der Regierung wurde die Auseinandersetzung gewonnen und Ende des 19. Jahrhunderts durften die Mädchen Abiturprüfung ablegen und sich um die Aufnahme an die Hochschulen bewerben.

Ich versuche nur die wichtigsten Momente der Gymnasiumsentwicklung - am Beispiel des Neisser Carolinum - und die Änderungen im deutschen Schulwesen zu interpretieren, was mit den Reifeanforderungen eng verbunden ist.

Um die Umwandlung des deutschen Gymnasiums gezeigt werden kann, muss kurz die Geschichte der Schulreformen skizziert werden.

Der Beginn ist das Jahr 1717. In diesem Jahr wurde das "General Edict" proklamiert, das die Schulpflicht in Preußen eingeführt hat. Diese Pflicht, jetzt auch Unterrichtspflicht genannt, galt damals vor allem für die Volksschulen, in die die Kinder vom fünften bis zum zwölften Lebensjahr gehen sollten und erst die Schule abschließen durften, wenn sie lesen, schreiben und den Katechismus auswendig konnten. Dieser Begriff "Volksschule" muss historisch mit dem Gedanken einer Bildungseinrichtung für das Volk und mit der Einführung einer Schulpflicht verbunden werden. Das Wort „Volk" bezeichnet dabei die einfache Bevölkerungsschicht, die den gehobenen Bevölkerungsklassen gegenüber steht, und in der Verbindung mit "Schule" „eine Mindestausbildung, die jeder eines Volkes besitzen muss" (VSch) bedeutete. 1763 wurde "Generalschulreglement" verkündet und im Jahr 1794 trat Schulpflicht als Allgemeines Landrecht in kraft. Seit diesem Moment entwickelte sich das mehr für die verschiedenen Bevölkerungsschichten zugängliche Schulwesen.

1787 wurde von der preußischen Regierung in Berlin das Oberschulkollegium als zentrale Aufsichts- und Planungsinstanz für das höhere Schulwesen (auf der Grundlage von Lateinschulen, Gelehrtenschulen, Stadtschulen und Ritterakademien mit nicht besonders hohem Bildungsniveau) berufen. Ein Jahr später 1788 führte man das Abitur als Abschlussprüfung in den höheren Schulen als Nachweis der Studierfähigkeit ein. Im Jahr 1812 war das Abitur wie früher keine Voraussetzung zum Studium, aber es hat sich einiges geändert: das Abitur war eine Bedingung, wenn man in den Kirchen- oder Staatsdiensten Prüfungen ablegen wollte (1820 – Übernahme eines katholischen Kirchenamtes, 1833 Prüfung in evangelischer Theologie, 1831 Staatsexamen für das höhere Lehramt, 1832 juristisches Staatsexamen) (DSchS). Mit dem Erlass 1812 wurden die inhaltlichen Anforderungen für die Abiturprüfungen bestimmt, die während der Examina überprüft werden sollen. In den neuen Schulplänen wurden drei Fächer genannt:

- − Sprachen,
- − Mathematik,
- − Naturkunde, Geschichte und Erdkunde (Blättner 1960: 125).

Seit dieser Zeit wurde das Examen in zwei Teile gegliedert: in eine schriftliche und eine mündliche. Zu der schriftlichen Prüfung gehörten Aufsätze in Deutsch, Latein, Französisch und Mathematik, eine Übersetzung aus dem Griechischen und ins Griechische. Die mündliche Prüfung umfasste alle Sprachen, Mathematik, Geschichte, Erdkunde und Naturlehre. Der Vorrang des Lateinischen ist aber sichtbar – nach vielen Auseinandersetzungen und der Begründung, dass die Abiturienten die Kenntnisse im Lateinischen in Medizin-, Jura- und Theologie-studium benötigen.

1834 wurde das Abitur zur Voraussetzung für alle Studiengänge außer Philosophie. Seit dieser Zeit durften die Abiturprüfungen nur und ausschließlich an den Gymnasien abgelegt werden.

Natürlich steht das Abitur mit den im Gymnasium unterrichteten Fächern in enger Verbindung. Die Stundenzahl des Deutschunterrichts ist zu merken, die unten dargestellte Tabelle der Stundenzahl (Blättner 1960: 127) zeigt den Rang der Fächer:

1812	1837
Latein 76	Latein 86
Griechisch 50	Griechisch 42
Deutsch 44	Deutsch 22
Mathematik und Physik 60	Mathematik 33
	Physik 6

Mit der Circular-Verfügung des Staatsministers des Ministeriums der Geistlichen, Unterrichts- und Medicinal-Angelegenheiten von Raumer vom 12. Januar 1856 versuchte man die Abiturientenprüfung präziser zu formulieren. Zu der schriftlichen Prüfung gehörten: ein deutscher Aufsatz, ein lateinisches Extemporale und ein Aufsatz, ein kurzes einfaches griechisches Skriptum, eine Übersetzung ins Französische und eine mathematische Arbeit. Die den Lehrern zur Verfügung stehenden Noten waren: nicht befriedigend, befriedigend, gut, vorzüglich (Blättner 1960: 128).

"Die mündliche Prüfung der Abiturienten ist auf diejenigen Fächer zu beschränken, welche den sichersten Anhalt darbieten, die Reife derselben zu den Universitätsstudien zu beurteilen, nämlich auf das Lateinische, das Griechische, die Mathematik, Geschichte und Religion." (Blättner 1960: 128).

Im selben Jahr wurde die Aufteilung der Fächer in die Sprachen von den Wissenschaften für sinnlos anerkannt. Latein, Griechisch und Deutsch wurden für Wissenschaften anerkannt, also die artes wurden scientae geworden (Blättner 1960: 129).

Die Bestimmungen aus dem Jahr 1856 galten eine lange Zeit, d.h. bis zum Jahr 1882. Die Änderungen in den angeforderten Abiturfächern im Laufe der Zeit sehen wir in der Tabelle (Blättner 1960: 130):

Schriftlich

1812	1834	1856	1882
- <u>deutscher</u>, lateinischer, französischer, mathematischer Aufsatz - Übersetzungen aus dem Griechischen und ins Griechische	- <u>deutscher</u>, lateinischer Aufsatz - lateinisches Extemporale - französische Arbeit - mathematische Arbeit - Übersetzung aus dem Griechischen	- <u>deutscher</u>, lateinischer Aufsatz - lateinisches Extemporale - Übersetzung ins Französische - mathematische Arbeit - einfaches kurzes griechisches Skriptum	- <u>deutscher</u>, lateinischer Aufsatz - Übersetzung ins Lateinische - Übersetzung aus dem Griechischen - französische Übersetzung - mathematische Arbeit

mündlich

- <u>alle (4) Sprachen</u> - Mathematik - Geschichte und Erdkunde - Naturlehre	- Religion - Philosophische Propädeutik - *alle Sprachen (4)* - Mathematik und Physik - Geschichte - Erdkunde - Naturlehre	- <u>nur Latein und Griechisch</u> - Mathematik - Geschichte - Religion	- Religion - Latein (Griechisch) - Französisch - Geschichte - Erdkunde - Mathematik

Die Themen der Reifeaufsätze im Neisser Carolinum aus dieser Zeit widerspiegeln diese Tendenz. Die Abiturthemen waren eng mit Latein und Griechisch verbunden. Das Examen in der deutschen Sprache sollte die Anforderungen der Schulkonferenzen erfüllen:

1858/59	1. Über die Wahrheit des Ausspruchs:
	    Und wenns gelingt, dann ist es auch verziehen,
	    Und (dann) jeder Ausgang ist ein Gottesurteil.
	2. Worauf haben wir die unserem Verkehre mit der Welt zu achten, wenn wir von ihr gern gelitten sein wollen?

1859/60	Welche Verhältnisse beförderten die Blüthe der deutschen Poesie im Mittelalter?
1860/61	Inwiefern kann das Unglück zur Vervollkommnung des Menschen beitragen?
1861/62	Sind Kenntnisse der beste Reichtum?
1862/63	Was lehrt uns der Spruch des Horaz: Nihil est abomni parle bealum?
1863/64	Worin beruht die weltgeschichtliche Bedeutung Griechenlands?
1864/65	Wem Gott will rechte Gunst erweisen, den schickt er in die weite Welt.
1865/66	Was tröstet den Menschen, wenn er von Andern verkannt wird?

1866/67	Daß sie die Perle trägt,
	Das machte die Muschel krank,
	Dem Himmel sag' für Schmerz,
	Der dich veredelt, dank.
1867/68	Bewahren ist oft schwerer als Erringen.
1868/69	Gehorsam und gebieten muß der Wille dem Gefühle,
	Sonst bist du starrer Marmor, oder gleich dem Wellenspiele.
1869/70	Welches ist die mächtigste Waffe der Menschheit,
	Schwert, Zunge oder Feder?
1870/71	1. Inwiefern kann der Deutsche auf sein Vaterland stolz sein?
	2. Fest stehe immer,
	Still stehe nimmer.
1871/72	O blicke nicht nach dem, was Jedem fehlt,
	Betrachte was noch einem Jeden bleibt!
1878/79	1. Was entbehrt der Jüngling, der die altklassischen Schriftsteller nicht kennt?
	2. Wodurch ist die Charakterisierung Kriemhildnes im Nibelungenliede gerechtfertigt?
1879/80	Des Menschen Engel ist die Zeit.
1880/81	1. Bist du arm, so sei ein Mann!
	Bist du reif, so sei ein Mensch!
	2. Warum finden große Männer oft erst nach ihrem Tode gerechte Anerkennung?
1881/82	Inwiefern kann das Unglück zur Vervollkommnung des Menschen beitragen?
1882/83	Wem wendet sich unsere Teilnahme in höherem Grade zu, den Athener oder den Spartanern, und aus welchen Gründen?

Die Stundenzahl der gelehrten Fächer musste sich nach den Konferenzen 1882 und 1891 ändern (Blättner 1960: 131):

	1882 (1856)		1891
Religion	19 (18)	Religion	19
Deutsch	21 (20)	Deutsch	26
Latein	77 (86)	Latein	62
Griechisch	40 (42)	Griechisch	36
Französisch	21 (17)	Französisch	19
Geschichte und Erdkunde	28 (25)	Geschichte und Erdkunde	26
Mathematik	34 (32)	Mathematik	34
Physik	8 (6)	Physik	10
Naturwissenschaft	10 (8)	Naturwissenschaft	8
Zeichnen	6	Zeichnen	8
Schreiben	4	Schreiben	4
	268 (ohne Turnen)		252

Obwohl sich die Stundenzahl im Fach Deutsch änderte, galten weiter vor allem Themen aus der Geschichte der griechischen und deutschen Literatur. Man lag aber mehr Wert auf die Patriotismuserziehung. Der Lehrer hatte die Aufgabe, nicht den Inhalt der Arbeit zu beurteilen, sondern nur die orthografischen, grammatischen und stilistischen Fehler zu korrigieren, das betraf auch die Beurteilung der Abituraufsätze.

1884/85	Über den Ausspruch Götze's im Tasso, II, 3: "Inwendig lernt kein Mensch sein Innerstes; Erkennen; dann er mißt nach eigenem Maß Sich bald zu klein und leider oft zu groß".
1885/86	Themen zu dem deutschen Abiturienten-Aufsatz *(Vorschläge)*: 1.In der Stunde der Gefahr bewährt sich allein des Mannes Tugend. 2. Auch die Natur spricht zu uns die mächtigen Worte: glaube, liebe, hoffe! 3. Was ist nachteiliger für den Charakter eines Menschen: unverdientes Lob oder unverdienter Tadel? In der Stunde der Gefahr bewährt sich allein des Mannes Tugend.
1886/87	Michaelis: Leichter ist es, im Unglück nicht verzagen, als bescheiden großes Glück zu tragen. Ostern: Grundzüge des Charakters des römischen Volkes nach seinen Licht- und Schattenseiten.
1887/88	Der Mann ist wacker, der sein Pfund benützend zum Dienst des Vaterlands kehrt seine Kräfte.
1888/89	Michaelis: Der Rückblick auf unsere Vergangenheit kann uns zur Belehrung, zur Warnung und zum Troste dienen. Ostern: Arbeit und Fleiß, das sind die Flügel, sie führen über Strom und Hügel.
1889/90	Michaelis: Themen zu dem deutschen Abiturienten-Aufsatz *(Vorschläge)* Der Anblick der Natur ist für den Menschen ermutigend aber auch erhebend. Ohne Wahl verteilt die Gaben, Ohne Billigkeit das Glück, Denn Putrokles liegt begraben Und Theryiles kehrt zurück. Ostern: Themen zu dem deutschen Abiturienten-Aufsatz *(Vorschläge)* 1. Stets ist der Weise frei, der Thor bleibt immer Knecht. 2. Noch ist es Tag, da rühre sich der Mann. Die Nacht tritt ein, da niemand wirken kann.
1890/91	Michaelis: Inwiefern unterscheidet sich der Chor in Schillersdrama "Die Braut von Messina" von den Chören der alten griechischen Tragiker? Ostern: Zu welchem Zweck schrieb Horaz die sogenannten Römeroden?
1891/92	Michaelis: Welche Beweise lassen sich für die Richtigkeit des Satzes, daß die Verdienste großer Männer oft erst nach ihrem Tode gewürdigt werden, aus der alten Geschichte anführen? Ostern: Ist der dem Horaz gemachte Vorwurf allzugroßer Schmeichelei dem Augustus gegenüber gerechtfertigt?

1892/93   Michaelis: Warum hat der Dichter den Laokoon schreiend dargestellt, der Bildhauer aber nicht?
Ostern: Hat sich die Hoffnung des Horaz, die er in der Schlußode des dritten Buches ausspricht, erfüllt und warum?

1893/94   Michaelis: Welche Vorzüge rühmt Tacitus in seiner Germania an den alten Deutschen und welche Fehler tadelt er an denselben?
Ostern: Warum mussten die Bildner des Laokoon im Ausdruck des körperlichen Schmerzes Maß halten?

Das Jahr 1901 brachte noch weitere Änderungen in den Lehrplan - Latein erhielt 68 Stunden und blieb weiter das Hauptgegenstand, obwohl die anderen Fächer an Bedeutung gewannen. In der Zeit des Kaisers wurden Schwerpunkte auf Deutsch, Geschichte, Erdkunde und moderne Sprachen gelegt, die von den Humanisten für sehr wichtig gehalten wurden, weil "*wahres Menschentum, Kraft des Geistes, Sinn für Wahrheit und Schönheit, allseitige Ausbildung der menschlichen Kräfte nicht nur an den alten Sprachen und Dichtungen, sondern ebenso auch an den Sprachen und Dichtungen der Muttersprache und der modernen Sprachen, an den Wissenschaften von der Geschichte, der Erde und der Natur gewinnen könne*" (Blättner 1960: 132).

1901/02   Ostern: Der deutsch-französische Krieg 1870-71 ist zu vergleichen mit den Befreiungskriegen von 1813-1815.

1902/03   Herbst: „Euch, ihr Götter, gehört der Kaufmann. Güter zu suchen, geht er, doch an sein Schiff knüpfet das Gute sich an" (Schiller).
Ostern: "Ferrara ward durch seine Fürsten groß" (Goethe, Tasso, I.1) angewandt an Preußen.

1903/1904   Abteilung I
Herbst: Inwiefern kann Lessings Nathan ein herrliches Loblied auf die Vorsehung genannt werden?
Ostern: Auf welche Weise vollzieht sich allmählich ein innerer Bruch zwischen Jason und Medea? (nach Grillparzers "goldenem Vlies").
Abteilung II
Ostern: Welches sind die retardierenden Momente in Schillers "Braut von Messina"?

1904/05   Abteilung I
Herbst: Die Entwicklung eines Stromes und der Lebenslauf eines bedeutenden Mannes. (Nach Anregungen in Goethes Gedicht "Mahomets Gesang").
Ostern: Was lehrt die Geschichte über den Einfluß der Seemacht auf die Geschichte der Völker?
Abteilung II
Ostern: Die Töchter König Lears (Shakespeare).

1905/06   Abteilung I
Herbst: Das Wort Illos in Schillers "Wallenstein": In deiner Brust sind deines Schicksals Sterne", erläutert an Wallenstein.
Ostern: Streit und Versöhnung zwischen Tasso und Antonio. (Nach Goethes Tasso).
Abteilung II
Ostern: Wie bewahrheitet sich in der preußischen Geschichte des 16. Jahrhunderts das Wort Schillers: "Der Krieg ist schrecklich wie des Himmels Plagen, doch ist er gut, ist ein Geschick an sie?"

1906/07   Abteilung I
Herbst: Warum wird der Kurfürst Friedrich Wilhelm von der Geschichte mit Recht der große Kurfürst genannt?
Ostern: Wie rächt sich in Schillers "Braut von Messina" die Schuld der Eltern an den Kindern?
Abteilung II
Herbst: Not entwickelt Kraft, nachgewiesen aus der Geschichte.
Ostern: Beatrice und Iphigenie. Ein Vergleich. (Nach Schillers "Braut von Messina" und Goethes "Iphigenie").

1907/08   Abteilung I
Herbst: "Der Sieg des Idealen" in Lessings Emilia Galotti.
Ostern: Der tragische Konflikt in der Antigone.
Abteilung II
Herbst: Wie haben sich die Worte des Horaz (IV.4) "Merses profundo, pulchior evenit" an den Geschichten Preußens bewahrheitet.
Ostern: Welchen Einfluß üben in Shakespeares Macbeth die Hexen auf die Entschließungen und Taten des Helden aus?

1908/09   Abteilung I
Ostern: Tasso und Antonio.
Abteilung II
Ostern: Die dramatische Gestaltung des Platonischen Dialogs "Gorgias" soll dargelegt werden.
Aufgabe für Extraneer: Die Grundpfeiler der Machtstellung Preußens und Deutschlands.
Michaelis: Das Wort Oktavio Pirrolominis "Im Kriege ist der Letzte nicht der Krieg" paßt auch auf die Kriege Preußens.
Die hervorstehendsten Charakterzüge Hektors nach dem sechsten Buche der Ilias.

1909/10   Die dramatische Gestaltung des Platonischen Dialogs "Gorgias" soll dargelegt werden.

1910/11   Herbst: Inwiefern bildet der Aufenthalt in Straßburg den Höhepunkt in der geistigen Entwicklung des jungen Goethe?
Ostern: Inwieweit ist Tassos Geschick in Goethes gleichnamigem Drama in seiner Naturanlage, inwieweit in gewissen äußeren Umständen begründet?

1911/12	Herbst: Wie werden Oktavio und Buttler in Schillers "Wallenstein" aus Freunden Feinde Wallensteins und wie bekämpfen sie ihn?
	Ostern: Wie bewährt sich in Shakespeares "Macbeth" das Wort vom "Fluch der Bösen Tat"?
1912/13	Abteilung I OI[1]
	Welche Umstände ermöglichten Preußen trotz seiner Erniedrigung einen hervorragenden Anteil an dem großen Befreiungswerke vor hundert Jahren?
	Abteilung II OI[2]
	Mit welchem Rechte kann man Shakespeares "König Lear" eine "Tragödie der Tragödien" nennen?
1913/14	Michaelis: Die Titelheldinnen in Lessings "Emilia Galotti" und Schillers "Braut von Messina" sollen in Bezug auf ihre Stellung in den betreffenden Dramen miteinander verglichen werden.
	Ostern:
	Abteilung I OI[1]: Inwiefern führt die Schuld, der Übel größtes, das Verhängnis herauf über die handelnden Personen in Schillers "Braut von Messina"?
	Abteilung II OI[2]: Wie hat Grillparzer in seiner "Sappho" das tragische Geschick der Heldin begründet?

Im Laufe des 19. Jahrhunderts wurde die Schulpflicht in Preußen durchgesetzt, in dem das Schulsystem organisiert, kontrolliert und zum Teil finanziert wurde. Der Einfluss auf die Entwicklung der Schulen hatte folgende Interessen:

→ das etatistische Interesse (kommt aus dem Französischen Etat - Staat), um die Schulen als Einrichtungen zu nutzen, die das Staats- und Nationalbewusstsein bilden,

→ das ökonomische Interesse, um qualifiziertes Personal in der Armee und in der Verwaltung des neu erwachenden Staates zu haben,

→ das emanzipatorische Interesse für Jedermann, damit die Lebensmöglichkeiten erweitert werden konnten (DSchS 2004: 5).

Die Ursache dieser Bewegung kann man in den statistischen Untersuchungen prüfen – zu Beginn des 19. Jahrhunderts besuchte kaum mehr als die Hälfte der Jugendlichen die Schule – am Ende des 19. Jahrhunderts fast alle Jugendlichen. Das betraf aber vor allem die Schulpflicht, indem sich das höhere, mittlere und niedere Schulen nach eigenen Gesetzmäßigkeiten entwickelten.

Die Bedingungen des Lebens, die Entwicklung Preußens und der neue mit der Industrialisierung bestandene Arbeitsmarkt zwangen die Schulstruktur zu weiterer Änderungen. Man begann das Lehrfach Deutsch anders zu beurteilen. Dieses Fach sollte den Patriotismus erwecken und zusammen mit der Geschichte und Erdkunde die Jugendlichen in neuem Geiste zu erziehen, man hat *"Forderungen der Gegenwart"* (Blättner 1960: 229) wahrgenommen. Nach dem bekannten Schulreformer Friedrich Paulsen ist das Lateinlernen ohne die Bedeutung, wie es früher hatte, denn *"das Gymnasium muss sich, wenn es die Schule für alle bleiben*

will, nach den Bedürfnissen und Forderungen aller strecken; darüber geht aber der klassische Unterricht innerlich zugrunde" (Blättner 1960: 231).

Der I. Krieg hat den Dialog unter den Pädagogen zum Thema der Reform der höheren Schule und Anpassung der Lehrpläne zu den Ereignissen in der Welt unterbrochen. Während des Krieges wurde die Schule zum Staatsinstrument, in voller Abhängigkeit von der Politik des Staates. Wenn man die früheren Themen mit den Themen aus der Zeit des I. Weltkrieges vergleicht, da sieht man sofort die Nationalrichtung – je näher dem Kriegsende, desto mehr erwecken sie die patriotischen Gefühle:

1914/15   Michaelis: Der siebenjährige Krieg und der Krieg von 1866. Ein Vergleich.
Ostern: Die Grundpfeiler der Machtstellung Preußens und Deutschlands.
Die Notreifeprüfungen vom 11. bis 13. August 1914: Ans Vaterland, ans teure, schließ dich an, das halte fest mit deinem ganzen Herzen! Hier sind die starken Wurzeln deiner Kraft.
vom 19. bis 22. Oktober 1914 (Extraner): Im Kriege selber ist das letzte nicht der Krieg, gezeigt an der preußischen Geschichte seit Friedrich dem Großen.

1915/16   Die Notreifeprüfungen:
a) Mit welchem Recht sagt Oktavio zu Max über Wallenstein (Schillers Pivvol. V 1): "Mit leisen Tritten schlich er seinen bösen Weg, so leis nur schlau ist ihm die Rache nachgeschlichen"?
b) 1. Der Nutzen der allgemeinen Wehrpflicht.
2. Jeder ist seines Glückes Schmied.
3. Not entwickelt Kraft.
Ostern: die ordentliche Reifeprüfung
Auf welche Ursachen ist die Einigung der deutschen Stämme unter Kaiser Wilhelm I. zurückzuführen?

1916/17   Die Notreifeprüfungen:
a) Glücklich bestandene Gefahren werden oft ein Segen für die Völker.
b) Ist in Schillers "Braut von Messina" Isabella berechtigt zu sagen: "Alles dies erleid' ich schuldlos"?
c) Der Ruhm der Vorfahren ein Hort, aber auch eine Gefahr für die Enkel.
Ostern: die ordentliche Reifeprüfung:
Er kann der Frömmste nicht in Frieden bleiben,
Wenn er dem bösen Nachbar nicht gefällt,
nachgewiesen an der vaterländischen Geschichte.

1917/18   Die Notreifeprüfungen:
a) am 25. Mai 1917: Die Ursachen der Kriege.
b) am 13. Oktober 1917: Der jähe Schicksalswechsel im Hause der Fürstin Isabella. Nach Schillers "Braut von Messina".
c) am 13. November 1917: Wie werden Oktavio und Buttler in Schillers "Wallenstein" aus Freunden Feinde Wallensteins, und wie bekämpfen sie ihn?

d) Das Leben ist der Güter höchstes nicht, der Übel größtes aber ist die Schuld. (Schiller, Braut von Messina IV 10, 62)

| 1918/19 | Die Notreifeprüfungen:
am 17.VI.1918: Warum darf der Deutsche mit Recht auf sein Vaterland stolz sein?
Ostern: Die ordentliche Reifeprüfung:
Welche Hindernisse treten Iphigenie bei der Erfüllung ihrer Lebensaufgabe entgegen, und wie werden sie von ihr überwunden? |

Nach dem verlorenen I. Weltkrieg ist es dem Nachfolger von Paulsen Hans Richert gelungen, eine umfassende Reform durchzuführen. Im Jahre 1919 kam es zum "Weimarer Schulkompromiss" über Konfessions- und Strukturfrage. Nebeneinander sollten drei Schultypen funktionieren mit den Kernfächern, in denen bestimmt wurde:

"Art. 148: I. In allen Schulen ist sittliche Bildung, staatsbürgerliche Gesinnung, persönliche und berufliche Tüchtigkeit im Geiste des deutschen Volkstums und der Völkerversöhnung zu erstreben...

Art. 149: Der Religionsunterricht ist ordentliches Lehrfach der Schulen mit der Ausnahme der bekenntnisfreien (weltlichen) Schulen..." (Blättner 1960: 256).

Man versuchte zur Synthese der Schule zu kommen, die viel praktischer sein sollte:

➔ "Der neue Staat und die neue Gesellschaft erfordern neue Menschen, d.h. eine neue Schule", (Frischeisen, Köhler 1919: 151-156),

➔ "Wir besitzen eine historisch gewordene, und zwar aristokratisch gegliederte Schule, die... nicht einfach zerstört werden darf" (Frischeisen, Köhler 1919: 151-156).

Ab 1919 bestand die Schulstruktur:

− aus der Volksschulunterstufe (der Grundschule) – mit den Klassen von 1 bis 4,
− aus der Volksschuloberstufe mit den Klassen von 5 bis 8,
− aus der Mittelschule nach der Volksschuloberstufe, mit den Klassen von 5 bis 10,
− aus dem Gymnasium nach der Volksschuloberstufe, mit den Klassen von 5 bis 13 (DSchS).

Die Abiturthemen begannen sich mehr in der deutschen damaligen gegenwärtigen Literatur (z.B. Arbeiterdichter), in den geographisch-historischen Themen, in der Weltliteratur zu bewegen und immer öfter kamen die nicht literarischen Themen zu Wort:

| 1919/20 | Die Kriegsreifeprüfungen:
am 11. Juli 1919: Die verhängnisvolle Bedeutung der Heimlichkeit in Schillers "Braut von Messina".
am 27. Januar 1920: Welchen Anteil haben in Lessings "Emilia Galotti" die Frauen an der Entwicklung der Handlung?
am 9. Februar 1920: Worauf werden in Lessings "Emilia Galotti" verbrecherische Pläne Marinellis vermittelt?
Ostern: die ordentliche Reifeprüfung: Auf welche Personen verteilt sich in Goethes Drama die Schuld an Tassos Unglück, und inwiefern? |

1920/21   Die Kriegsreifeprüfungen:
           am 12.VII.1920: Was erfahren wir schon in der Exposition zu Gesamt-
           dichtung "Wallenstein" zum Heere und die Möglichkeit eines Konflikts?
           am 25.II.1921: Inwiefern wird durch die Teilnahme des Brutus das Un-
           ternehmen der Verschworenen gefördert, der Erfolg aber vereitelt?
           (Nach Shakespeares Julius Cäsar).
           Ostern: die ordentliche Reifeprüfung: Wie zeigt und erklärt sich der
           Gegensatz in der Charakterentwicklung zwischen Macbeth und der Lady
           in Shakespeares Tragödie?

1921/22   Ostern: Ist in Schillers "Braut von Messina" von Cäsar berechtigt, seiner
           Mutter vorzuwerfen, ihre Heimlichkeit habe all das Gräßliche verschuldet?

1922/23   Ostern: Wie kann die schwere Notlage, in die der Friede von Versailles
           Deutschland gebracht hat, eine zur Gesundung unseres Volkes hinfüh-
           rende Schule werden?

1923/24   Michaelis: Die Goetheschen Gedichte "Prometheus", "Ganymed" und
           "Grenzen der Menschheit" sind nach ihrem Stimmungsgehalt und Ge-
           dankengang miteinander zu vergleichen.
           Ostern: Wie hat die Lektüre von Goethes "Iphigenie" meine Lebensan-
           schauungen bereichert und vertieft?

1924/25   Abiturienten der Anstalt: Die Bedeutung der Selbstverwaltung und ihre
           Entwicklung in Preußen.
           Fremdprüflinge oder Nichtschüler: Inwiefern wird das Wort Iphigenies:"
           Der Frauen Zustand ist beklagenswert" durch ihr eigenes widerlegt.

1925/26   Michaelis: Wie ist die geschichtliche Entwicklung der Völker durch die
           geographischen Verhältnisse ihrer Länder bedingt?
           Ostern: Ibsen, der Vorkämpfer gegen die falsche Moral der modernen
           Gesellschaft.
           Die politischen Folgen des Krieges von 1866.

1926/27   Michaelis:
           Die Einheit der Handlung in Shakespeares Hamlet.
           Die Tragik in Schillers Don Karlos.
           Die Bedeutung der Lage Deutschlands im Herzen Europas ist kulturpoli-
           tisch zu würdigen.
           Ostern:
           Welche staatsbürgerlichen Erkenntnisse gewann ich beim Lesen von
           Deutschlands Kranzrede?
           Die Bedeutung der Sudeten für Schlesien.
           Der leidende Mensch, der Typus von Gerhard Hauptmanns dichterischen
           Gestalten.
           Renaissance und Aufklärung sind in ihren Hauptwesenszügen und be-
           deutendsten Folgeerscheinungen miteinander zu vergleichen.

1927/28   Abteilung I
           Der Humanitätsgedanke bei unseren Klassikern. (Entwickelt nach Les-
           sings "Nathan", Schillers "Don Carlos" und Goethes "Iphigenie"). Wie
           steht der Römer seiner Wesenart nach zur philosophischen Spekulation,
           und welche charakteristisch-römischen Züge trägt die philosophische

Einstellung eines Cicero und Seneca?

Einheitsstaat oder Föderalismus? (Die Frage ist vom Geschichtspunkt der deutschen Einheitsbestrebungen aus zu beleuchten, und es ist dazu Stellung zu nehmen).

"Ich bin ein Deutscher", ein Wort des Stolzes und der Pflicht.

Abteilung II

Welche Gesellschaftszügen geitzelt Ibsen in seinen Dramen "Stützen der Gesellschaft", "Volksfeind" und "Gespenster", und wie wären sie zu vermeiden?

Wie ist Agamemnons Persönlichkeit von Homer in der "Illias" und wie von Aschzlus in der "Orestie" dargestellt, und wie erklären sich die Verschiedenheiten in der Charakterzeichnung?

"Ich bin ein Deutscher", ein Wort des Stolzes und der Pflicht im Hinblick auf die vaterländische Geschichte.

Der Wert der Wissenschaften und Künste.

1928/29   Abteilung I

Hebbel und Ibsen, zwei Vorkämpfer für die Freiheit der Frau!

Arbeiterseele. (Eine Betrachtung nach den Gedichten der Arbeiterdichter Barthel, Bröger, Engelke, Lersch u.a.).

Mit welchen Gründen erklärt Demosthenes in der 3. Philippika die Fortschritte Philips?

Welche Eindrücke habe ich bei meinen Theater-, Film- und Kinobesuchen über die Geschmacksrichtung des modernen Publikums gesammelt, und welche Erklärung habe ich dafür gefunden?

Abteilung II

Der Prinz von Homburg in Kleists Schauspiel als leidenschaftlicher Jüngling und sein Heranreifen zu seinem pflichtbewußten Manne.

Worin liegt das besondere Eigenmerkmal in der Arbeit eines Dichters, eines Geschichtsschreibers und eines Philosophen? In praktischen Beispielen ist die Lektüre des Homer, Thukydides und Platon heranzuziehen.

Die unfreiwilligen Verdienste der beiden Napoleons um die Einigung Deutschlands.

Was soll der junge Mann bei der Wahl seines Berufes berücksichtigen?

1929/30   Abteilung I

Welche weltgeschichtlichen Vorgänge haben in Aischylos "Orestie" ihren Niederschlag gefunden?

Worin besteht das Wesen und der Zweck des Staates?

Welche Werte gibt mir Goethes Faust beim Eintritt ins Leben mit auf den Weg?

Wie hat die Lektüre von Lersch' "Mensch im Eisen" und von Kaisers "Gas" in mir das Verständnis für die soziale Frage gefördert?

Abteilung II

Wie denke ich mir eine Führernatur?

Wie löst die Verfassung des Deutschen Reiches von 11. August 1919 die Aufgabe des modernen Staates, für eine gerechte Verteilung der Rechte und Pflichten der Bürger zu sorgen?

Die Briefe eines Menschen, ein Spiegelbild seines Charakters (Unter

Berücksichtigung der im lateinischen Unterricht gelesenen Briefe).
Die mitteldeutsche Gebirgsschwelle in ihrer wirtschaftlichen und ver-kehrspolitischen Bedeutung.

1930/31   Abteilung I
Welche Lebenserfahrungen entnehme ich aus Ibsens Schauspiel "Ein Volksfeind"?
Shakespeares Trauerspiel "Hamlet" als Charaktertragödie betrachtet.
Religiöses Gebot und staatliches Gesetz ihr Widerstreit und ihr Aus-gleich in Sophokles Trauerspiel "Antigone".
Das Reifezeugnis ein Freibrief, ein Schuldbrief, ein Adelsbrief.
Abteilung II
Die Herzlage Deutschlands, ein Segen und ein Fluch für seine Entwickelung.
Wie entwickelt sich Prinz Friedrich von Homburg in Kleists gleichna-migem Drama zum überlegten Staatsbürger?
Welche Umstände sichern der "Antigone" des Sophokles den Eindruck der Großartigkeit?
Wesen und Zweck der Kolonien.

1931/32   Abteilung I
Wie greift die Weltwirtschaftskrise in mein persönliches Leben ein?
Welche Anregungen und Winke mir der erdkundliche Unterricht für meine künftigen Wanderungen und Reisen mitgegeben hat.
Wodurch wird Pahlen und Retter seines Volkes in höchster Not? (Nach Neumanns Novelle "Der Patriot").
Wie erklärt es sich, daß einzelne Gestalten antiker Sage und Geschichte unvergeßlich im Gedächtnis der Menschheit weiterleben? (Die Wahl der einzelnen Gestalten bleibt dem Prüfling überlassen).
Abteilung II
Horaz, ein Führer auf meinem Lebenswege.
Die schlesischen Industrien in ihrer Abhängigkeit von geographischen Grundlagen.
Der Gegenwartswert der Goetheschen Iphigenie.
Was bedeutet Goethes Wort "Mensch sein, das Heißt Kämpfer sein" Für einen deutschen Abiturienten?

1932/33   Oberprima[1]
Die Klassengemeinschaft, eine Erzieherin zur Volksgemeinschaft.
Die deutsche Landschaft als Ursache zur Entwickelung der deutschen Stammeseigenart.
Wie kann ich die Kirche in ihrer sozialen Aufgabe unterstützen?
Gibt uns die Lektüre der griechischen Tragödie Anleitung, eine Lösung der Zwiespältigkeit unserer Zeit zu finden?
Oberprima[2]
Gibt es Heldentum nur im Kriege?
Despotismus und Menschheitswert im Widerstreit in Hebbels "Herodes und Marianne".
Landwirtschaft und Industrie in ihren Wechselbeziehungen zueinander.

In der Zeit des III. Reiches kam es zu Modifizierung der Schul- und Hochschulpolitik, mit der Richtung nach Beschränkung der Schuldauer im Gymnasium auf 8 Jahre. Die Lehrpläne wurden in ihrer Gesamtheit der Politik des Staates untergeordnet, so dass die Schule eine kurze Lebensetappe vor allem für die zukünftigen Soldaten spielte:

1933/34   Oberprima[1]

Worin besteht die deutsche Sendung Adolf Hitlers?

Wie kann ich den Grundsatz "Gemeinnutz geht vor Eigennutz" in meinem künftigen Leben verwirklichen?

Der große Kurfürst, eine bedeutende Führerpersönlichkeit aus vergangenen Jahrhunderten. (Nach Kleists Drama "Prinz Friedrich von Homburg").

Wie wirken Massenkundgebungen auf mich?

Oberprima[2]

"Menschenrecht bricht Staatsrecht". Kernsatz aus Hitlers "Mein Kampf", zu erweisen aus Literatur, Geschichte und Leben.

Altklassisches Gedankengut als politische Weisheit der Gegenwart.

Zeitgemäße Betrachtungen über Symbolik in Mephistos Ausspruch: "Blut ist ein ganz besonderer Saft".

"Kameradenschaft" in schulischem, bündischem und soldatischem Wortverstande.

1934/35   Ostern:

Oberprima[1]

Das 3. Reich, ein Reich der Kraft und der Freude zugleich!

Auf welche Weise sucht der Nationalsozialismus die infolge der Stammesunterschiede verschiedenartigen Kräfte der deutschen Seele zu wecken und zu einer Einheit zu binden?

Mit welchem Rechte sagte unser greiser Reichspräsident: "Die Anklage, dass Deutschland schuld an dem größten aller Kriege sei, weist das deutsche Volk in allen seinen Schichten einmütig zurück".

Die offene Lage unseres Vaterlandes, unser Fluch und unsere Gnade zugleich!

Oberprima[2]

Das Wort Schillers: "Nur der große Gegenstand vermag den tiefen Grund der Menschheit aufzuregen" ist einer geschichtlichen Rückschau und einen politischen Ausblick zugrunde zu legen.

Wie ich Alfred Rosenbergs Behauptung verstehe: "Am schönsten geträumt wurde der Traum des nordischen Menschentums in Hellas".

Des oberschlesischen Landvolkes Vorliebe für das Grelle in Tracht, Hausrat, Wort und Glaube.

Würdigung der Hausinschrift im oberschlesischen Grenzdorf Piltsch: "Gott, Dir empfehl' ich mich; du Welt, nicht hasse mich! Dir, mein Deutsches Volk, schaffe ich; Vaterland, Du rufe mich!".

1935/36   Oberprima[1]

Hat Legarde recht, wenn er sagt: ”Wir Deutsche haben noch nie eine Geschichte gehabt, es sei denn, man wolle den fortgesetzten Verlust deutschen Wesens deutsche Geschichte nennen”?

Kämpf und erkämpf dir eigenen Wert, hausbaken Brot am besten nährt, eine Mahnung an das deutsche Volk.

Die Wiederherstellung unserer Ehre durch unseren Führer Adolf Hitler.

Die "heilende Kraft der Menschlichen" in der Darstellung der Furchtbarkeit des Krieges (vor allem nach Wehner: Sieben vor Verdun).

Oberprima[2]

Volkstod - Volksleben. Gedanken zur Neuwerdung unseres Volkes.

Zeiten der Not sind Zeiten des Opfers. Die Wahrheit dieses Anspruches ist nachzuweisen an Notzeiten des deutschen Volkes.

Der Große Kurfürst in Kleists "Prinz Friedrich von Homburg" und Herzog Ernst in Hebbels "Agnes Bernauer", vorbildliche Führer des ihnen anvertrauten Staates. – "Prinz Friedrich von Homburg" und "Agnes Bernauer" sind in der Zeit zwischen Oktober und Weihnachten dieses Jahres als Klassenlesestoff behandelt worden.

"Die Wogen zu bezwingen,

kann nur dem Boot gelingen,

wo <u>einer</u> fest das Steuer packt,

und alle Ruder schwingen im gleichen Takt". (Will Vesper)

1936/37   Herbst:

Was sagt mir das Wort unseres Führers: "Nationalsozialismus ist die Rückkehr zum Natürlichen"?

Das Antlitz der Zeit in meinem Heimatgau zu Beginn und am Ende meiner Schullaufbahn.

Worum ich im Fridericus-Gedenkjahr den Geist des großen Königs in seiner Lieblingsfestung beschwören möchte.

Von grôzer kuonheit (Was die Welt deutschen Vorkämpfern verdankt).

2. Carolinum

Die Geschichte der Schule, am Anfang Anaseminar, dann Jesuitenkolleg – das 1924 das hundertjährige Jubiläum feierte, greift das Ende des Dreißigjährigen Krieges. Nach den Kriegen (u.a. der Siebenjährige Krieg 1756-1763), in denen das Gebäude des Kollegium stark beschädigt wurde, und nach dem Säkularisationsedikt 1810 überging das ganze Gebäudekomplex in den Staatbesitz Preußens. Seit dieser Zeit war die Schule staatlich und musste sich nach den Lehrplänen der preußischen humanistischen "altsprachlichen" (Hellfeier, Jarczyk 1974: 17) Gymnasien richten, die für den ganzen Staat gültig waren. Die erste Reifeprüfung im Gymnasium Carolinum zu Neisse fand im Jahr 1816 statt. Zu den Sprachen im Gymnasium gehörten Latein, Griechisch, dann Französisch, und erst nach dem 1.Weltkrieg wurde Englisch als moderne Sprache berücksichtigt. Die anderen Sprachen wie Hebräisch oder Polnisch und Russisch traten nur als Wahlfächer auf. Das Gymnasium funktionierte dank den Unterstützungsfonds und der Gebühren für die Lehre, deren Höhe in jedem Jahresbericht erwähnt wurde (Abb. 1).

Jahresbericht

des

Königlichen katholischen Gymnasiums

zu

Neisse

für das Schuljahr 1887—88,

mit welchem

zu der am 24. März stattfindenden

Schlussfeierlichkeit

ergebenst einladet

der Direktor des Gymnasiums
Dr. Schroeter.

Beigegeben ist eine Abhandlung des Direktors Dr. Gustav Schroeter: Beiträge zur Kritik und Erklärung von Vergils Aeneis. III. Teil.

1888. Progr.-No. 185.

Neisse 1888.
Druck von F. Bär.

Der Direktor war verpflichtet, nach jedem Schuljahr einen ausführlichen Jahresbericht zu schreiben. In diesem Dokument waren folgende Punkte besprochen:

◇ Rede oder Beitrag zum Anfang jedes Schuljahres – das Thema war immer auf der Titelseite des Jahresberichts genannt (z.B. das Schuljahr 1887/1888 "Beitrag zur Kritik und Erklärung von Vergils Aeneis" vom Direktor Gustav Schroeter), – Schulnachrichten für den bestimmten Zeitraum,

I. Allgemeine Lehrverfassung,

    I.1. Übersicht über die einzelnen Lehrgegenstände,

    I.2 Verteilung der Unterrichtsstunden im Winter/Sommersemester – Tabelle mit der Stundenzahl,

    I.3. Übersicht über die absolvierten Pensen (alle Fächer mit den Lehrern und den Themen der Aufsätze, darin auch die Themen für die Reifeprüfungen),

II. Verfügungen der vorgesetzten Behörden,

III. Chronik des Gymnasiums,

IV. Statistische Mitteilungen mit 1. Frequenztabelle, 2. Religions- und Heimats-
verhältnissen der Schüler, 3. Abiturienten - Entlassungsprüfungen,

V. Sammlungen von Lehrmittel - Bibliothek: a) Lehrer – Bibliothek, b) Schüler –
Bibliothek, c) Programm – Sammlung,

VI. Stiftungen und Unterstützungen von Schülern,

VII. Mitteilungen an die Schüler und deren Eltern – z.B. Ordnung der Schlussfei-
er, das neue Schuljahr.

Was unsere Aufmerksamkeit verdient, ist die Ordnung, wenn es um die Doku-
mente geht. Die Jahresberichte teilten genau mit, wie das Schulleben ausgesehen
hat. Wenn man die Themen der Aufsätze in Oberprima analysiert, sieht man die
Ordnung, aber auch "die Kompaktheit" der Lehrpläne. Jede Klasse hatte von oben
zugeschriebene Lektürenliste und schon gefertigte Themen der Aufsätze.

Der Jahresbericht z.B. für das Jahr 1885 bestimmte für die Primanern (Schüler in
der Abiturklasse) den folgenden Lehrplan für Deutsch:

"... 2. Deutsch. 3 Stunden. Die Hauptmomente der Literaturgeschichte von 1700
an im Anschluss an die Lektüre. Logik. Vorträge über gegebene Themata. Gele-
sen wurde Lessings Laokoon und Goethes Iphigenie. Freie Aufsätze über folgen-
de Themata:.." (JhsB 1885/1886: 15).

Für dies Jahr schloss die Aufzählung der Aufsätze das Thema für die Entlas-
sungsprüfung:

"In der Stunde der Gefahr bewährt sich allein des Mannes Tugend" (JhsB
1885/1886: 15).

Auf der Literaturliste befanden sich solche Werke wie:

− von Lessing: Minna von Barnhelm, Emilia Galotti, Nathan der Weise, Lao-
koon, Hamburgische Dramaturgie,

− von Goethe: Faust, Iphigenie auf Tauris, Torquato Tasso, Egmont, Dichtung
und Wahrheit, Gedankenlyrik

− Schiller: Wallenstein, Demetrius und einmal auf 40 Jahren ein anderes Drama,
Gedankenlyrik,

− Shakespeare: Julius Caesar, König Lear, Hamlet, Richard II., Macbeth,
Corolian, Kaufmann von Venedig,

− Kleist: Prinz von Homburg, Katechismus der Deutschen,

− Hebbel: Agnes Bernauer, Herodes und Marianne, Maria Magdalena, Die Nibe-
lungen,

− Ibsen: Volksfeind, Brand, Rosersholm,

− Hauptmann: Die Weber, Florian Geyer, Hanneles Himmelsfahrt, Bahnwärter
Thiel.

− moderne Schriftsteller: Lersch, Kaiser, Brod, Wassermann, Stehr, Mühls,
Neumann,

− in der Zeit des III. Reiches: Flex, Erler, Burte, Ernst, Kolbenheyer, Bruck,
Enzinger, Graff, Grimm, Fitzek, Kaergel, Neschendörfer, Wehner, Griese
(Hellfeier, Jarczyk 1974: 17).

Schlussfolgerungen

Es gibt solche Wissenschaftler, die der Meinung sind, das das Gymnasium zweitausend Jahre alt ist. Es geht hier um den Weg von den griechisch – römischen Schulen zu den christlichen Jesuitenschulen, von der Lateinschulen bis zum Gymnasium unserer Zeiten. Die Lateinschule wurde in das Humoldtische Gymnasium verwandelt (Blättner 1960: 125). Jedes sich danach entwickelte Gymnasium stellte mehr oder weniger geänderte Schulprogramme und aufgrund der Stundenzahl, Lehrpläne und den Abiturthemata kann man bezeichnen, in wiefern sich heute das Gymnasium von den ehemaligen Gymnasien unterscheidet, das aber immer mit den Bedürfnissen der Zeit zurechtkommt. In einem gewissen Rahmen konnten die Gymnasien ihre Schulprogramme, Lehrpläne oder Stundenzeiten für die verschiedenen Fächer ändern. Mit großer Sicherheit kann man aber vermuten, dass sich zunächst die bürgerliche Erziehung bzw. Beeinflussung in den Aufsatzthemen widerspiegelt, in der Zeit vor und nach dem 1. Weltkrieg die nationale Aufbruchstimmung, sowie vor dem 2.Weltkrieg die nationalsozialistische Ideologie.

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Note on the author:

Małgorzata Kurpiel, MA, head and lecturer of the Section of German Studies (Institute of Modern Languages, University of Applied Sciences in Nysa), a certified translator and interpreter of German; her scholarly interests include: translation and interpreting, German linguistics and teaching German as a foreign language, specialized languages, German culture.

e-mail address: malgorzata.kurpiel@pwsz.nysa.pl

Svitlana Lukyanenko
Ivan Franko National University of Lviv

HOW THE USAGE OF GERMAN AS L2 FACILITATES LEARNING ENGLISH AS L3

Abstract: One of the main objectives of faculties of foreign languages is to prepare future teachers of foreign languages and translators fluent in several foreign languages. Here we will consider learning a second foreign language FL-2 (English) drawing on a first foreign language FL-1 (German) at the Faculty of Foreign Languages of Lviv Ivan Franko national university. We will propose the creation of a trilingual textbook model, and focus on the approach to methods of teaching vocabulary because it is at the stage of studying vocabulary when the impact of prior knowledge of FL-1 on FL-2 may be the most noticeable.

While studying the positive effects of FL-1 on mastering FL-2, we set the goal to develop a learning model of FL-2 (English) which involves students' experience of learning FL-1 (German), and where the process of "dual immersion" activates two foreign languages which are studied. It is sad but true that today there are no trilingual textbooks, which would give students the opportunity to incorporate their experience and knowledge of FL-1 while studying a FL-2. Therefore, the creation of the proposed trilingual textbook is believed to be indispensable.

A lesson model consists of the following parts: first we provide a German text on the proposed theme followed by the trilingual vocabulary to the text (in German, Ukrainian and English), then we supply exercises in order to activate new words. The exercises are composed on the principle from the simple to complex. We select thematic words and phrases from the German text, and then ask to choose or match their English and Ukrainian equivalents. All the following exercises are entirely in English and focus on learning and using the English vocabulary, grammar, and lead students to the text translation into English.

Introduction

In accordance with the present requirements, the graduates of Higher Education Establishments should achieve multilingual competence and know several foreign languages. In our case, we deal with adolescent students majoring in foreign languages who start learning English as a typical second foreign language after German or French. We argue that the process of learning a second and subsequent foreign languages must implement the principles of contrastive approach, relying on the students' experience of learning FL-1 as the students who have studied a FL-1 are familiar with the methods and have their own approaches to studying other foreign languages. Apart from being experienced language learners who

have their own strategies how to learn subsequent foreign languages faster and easier, the majority of our students are already bilingual, as they grow up with two languages from birth (Ukrainian and Russian) and bilinguals (this concept is supported by numerous studies) are better language learners than monolinguals. In addition, bilinguals have been reported to be more motivated than monolinguals when learning an additional language. As a result, accelerated learning, as well as bilingual competence, leads to multilingual competence.

We argue that there is a qualitative difference between the acquisition of a first foreign language and the subsequent acquisition of a second one. Since third language acquisition is not second language acquisition, it is suggested not to start from scratch, in particular when teaching adult students. Still, the closer the languages are, the easier the process of learning is. This idea is supported by Fouser (2001) and Ringbom (1986) who in their studies show that it is easier to learn L3 if L2 is typologically close to it. Cenoz in her theory of the effect of linguistic distance also claims that speakers borrow more terms from the language that is typologically closer to the target language and that the learners of English who are native speakers of a non-Indo-European language tend to transfer vocabulary and structures from other Indo-European languages they know rather than from their first language. Williams and Hammarberg (1998) present several criteria that they consider influential in the relationship between the L3 production and acquisition and L2, mainly: typological similarity, cultural similarity, students' proficiency in L2, recency of use, the status of L2.

Considering everything mentioned above, we consider that German as the first foreign language helps the students learn English as the second foreign language because it is typologically closer to English than their native language - Ukrainian.

1. How Close the German and English Languages Are in Terms of Subsequent Learning.

Having that in mind, we started to study both positive and negative effects of FL-1(German) on FL-2 (English) and concluded that the effect of FL-1 on FL-2 appeared to be not the same at the various levels of the language. For instance, mainly negative transfer occurs at the phonological level and the positive transfer is realized at the morphological and syntactic levels. English and German both belong to the Germanic branch of the Indo-European language family. Though they share many features, there are a number of aspects of German that commonly interfere with the correct production of English. The German alphabet contains the same 26 letters as the English alphabet, plus the umlauted letters: ä, ö, ü, and the ß (scharfes S or double –s). The students may have interference problems in class when the teacher spells out words. For example, beginners commonly write i or a when the teacher says e or r. The sounds of English and German are similar, as are stress and intonation patterns. However, the [th] sound as in words like *the*, and *thing* does not exist in German, and many speakers have problems

producing such words correctly. German words beginning with a w are pronounced with a [v]. This explains the mispronunciation of English words *when* or *where* as *ven* and *vere*.

There is a significant lack of correspondence between the tenses used in English to convey a particular meaning and those used in German. For example, German does not have a continuous tense form, so it is common to hear sentences such as *I can't help you now, I write my essay* or conversely *They are doing a quiz every day*. Another example of the lack of correspondence is the use of the present simple in German where English uses the future with *will*. This leads to mistakes such as: *I do it when I have time*. A further common problem for German majors is choosing the correct tense to talk about the past. Typically spoken German uses the present perfect to talk about past events: *Dann habe ich ein Bier getrunken*. The same tense when used in English produces the incorrect sentence: *Then I have drunk a beer*.

German is an inflected language. This means that most of the parts of speech change according to their function in the sentence. This causes many more difficulties for German majors as English is largely uninflected. German has three features of word order that do not exist in English: Firstly, the main verb must be the second element in the independent clause. This often requires an inversion of subject and verb. For example: *Manchmal komme ich mit dem Bus in die Schule*. (*Sometimes I come to school by bus.*) Secondly, the past participle must always be the last element in the independent clause. Example: Ich habe ihn night gesehen. (I have not seen him.). Thirdly, the main verb must be the last element in the dependent clause. For example: *Sie fragte mich, ob ich den Film schon gesehen hatte.* (She asked me if I had already seen the film.) On the other hand, the question formation in English causes a lot of problems as the auxiliary verbs *do, does, did* do not exist in the German language.

German and English share many cognates: *Winter/winter, Haus/house, trinken/drink*, etc. Many cognates, however, do not have the same meaning (i.e. they are false friends). For example, the German word *also* means *so* in English, not *also*; *aktuell* means *current* not *actual*. In addition, German has stricter punctuation rules than English. This can result in the unnecessary punctuation of sentences such as: *He said, that he was tired.* Nouns in German are capitalized, which often leads to students writing English nouns with capital letters.

So having those differences in mind, how can we incorporate positive effects of FL-2 while teaching different areas of the English language as L3?

2. Incorporating Positive Effects While Teaching Different Areas of the English Language

2.1. Pronunciation
The pronunciation of a FL-2 can be affected by a FL-1 if the FL-1 proficiency is high and the language is fresh in the mind. Recency is thus also a factor. There may also be a so-called 'foreign language effect': when they produce FL-2 words

many students seem to rely on lexical influence from German rather than from Ukrainian or Russian, perhaps because of a subconscious fear of relying on their mother tongue. We report here the evidence of combined transfer, namely the negative effect of the presence of similar vowel and consonant sounds in both FL1 and L1. However, being a bilingual allows the students to know two different sets of sound speech that gives them a greater sensitivity to sound units of words as they have already learned to differentiate the two different types of speech stream when acquiring and using the second language. Furthermore, the need to make careful distinction between both languages when using them allows bilinguals to develop a good control over the phonological usage of the language. Therefore, bilinguals have an edge in phonological awareness and it seems to be much easier for them to study a new language.

2.2. Using Cognates And Loan Words to Build Students' Vocabulary

Among the positive effects that promote rapid and profound learning of English as a second foreign language after German or French, we consider cognates and loan words, which are similar in meaning and close in spelling and pronunciation. While introducing cognates at the beginning of each topic we heavily rely on students' prior knowledge of their FL-1 and encourage them to exploit similarities.

For example, when introducing the topic "Food" we ask students to match the German nouns with their English equivalents and find the spelling differences:

> der Apfel, die Banane, das Brot, die Butter, der Fish, der Hamburger, das Ketchup, die Margarine, die Orange, der Pfeffer, der Salat, das Salz, die Schokolade, die Suppe, die Tomate.
> Salad, ketchup, salt, pepper, bread, chocolate, fish, margarine, butter, soup, an apple, a hamburger, an orange, a tomato, a banana.

We do the same when introducing the topic "A Human Body":

> Die Schulter, die Brust, der Arm, der Ellbogen, die Hand, der Finger, das Knie, der Fuβ, die Augenbrave, der Vund, die Lippe, das Auge, das Ohr, das Haar, das Kinn, die Nase.
> An arm, an elbow, a finger, a foot, a knee, a hand, a breast/chest, a shoulder, a chin, a nose, an ear, hair, a lip, a mouth, an eye, an eyebrow.

2.3. Similarities in Grammar

Not only vocabulary but also a prior knowledge of the grammatical system of FL-1 can be beneficial for learning FL-2. Students are encouraged to compare and contrast various grammatical phenomena that can be found in both German and English. For example:

The degrees of comparison of adjectives:

> Gut – besser – der/die/das beste; good – better – the best
> Alt – alter – der/die/das älteste; old – older – the oldest

Irregular verbs:

Habben – hat – hatte; have – had – had
Hängen – hängt – hing; hang – hung – hung

Impersonal sentences:

It is warm. – Es ist warm.

Modal verbs:

I can – Ich can; I must – Ich muss.

The possibility to compare and contrast foreign languages in different areas of their linguistic systems may considerably increase the effectiveness of teaching those languages. In the case of FL-2 instruction, not only the lexical and grammatical similarities with FL-1, but also well-developed learning strategies and the ability to cope with foreign language contexts may be beneficial. The opportunity to use analogies between languages allows the students to develop reading comprehension skills better in FL-2.

3. The Development of the Trilingual Tutorial and Formal Instructions

3.1. The Development of the Trilingual Tutorial

While studying the positive effects of FL-1 on mastering FL-2 we set the goal to develop a learning model of FL-2 (English) which involves the students' experience of learning FL-1 (German), and where the process of "dual immersion" activates two foreign languages which are studied. Still we decided to incorporate Ukrainian as the students' L1 at the initial stages of the learning process in order to avoid misinterpretation of the new vocabulary.

It is sad but true that today there are no trilingual textbooks, which would give students the opportunity to study FL-2 on the basis of their experience and knowledge of FL-1. Therefore, the creation of the proposed trilingual textbook is believed to be indispensable.

Most attention in the development of the trilingual model tutorial we focused on the approach to the methods of teaching vocabulary, drawing on the students' German vocabulary knowledge and incorporating it in learning English. Lesson model consists of the following parts: first we provide a German text on the proposed theme followed by the trilingual vocabulary to the text (in German, Ukrainian and English) , then we supply exercises in order to activate new words which are composed on principle from the simple to complex. First we select thematic words and phrases from the German text, and then ask to choose or match their English and Ukrainian equivalents. All the following exercises are entirely in English and focus on learning and usage of English vocabulary, grammar, and lead students to the text translation into English.

According to the current curriculum, the students of the second year study the topic "Leisure Time". We propose the following lesson plan in our trilingual tutorial:

Exercise 1. Read the text.

Der Volksmund sagt: "Erst die Arbeit, dann das Vergnügen." Dabei ist mit Vergnügen eigentlich die Freizeit gemeint – die Zeit, in der man nicht zu arbeiten braucht oder keine besonderen Verpflichtungen hat und die für Hobbys und Erholung frei verfügbar ist. Es gibt natürlich ganz verschiedene Möglichkeiten, seine Freizeit angenehm, interessant, erholsam und auch sinnvoll zu gestalten. Der eine wandert gerne oder geht auf Besichtigungstour mit Freunden oder Familie, streift am Wochenende mit den Kindern durch Freizeitparks oder geht ins Fitnessstudio und macht Aerobic. Der andere liest gerne in seiner Freizeit, sieht fern oder beschäftigt sich mit seiner heißgeliebten Briefmarkensammlung. Mancher Tierfreund widmet seine Freizeit dem Gassi gehen mit dem Hund. Die einen können sich ihre Freizeit ohne Theater, Konzerte oder Kinobesuch nicht vorstellen. Für die anderen ist das Faulenzen im Garten oder auf dem grünen Balkon die schönste Zeit, in der man sich einfach entspannt und die Seele baumeln lässt. Die Art, wie man seine freien Stunden verbringt, hängt selbstverständlich von Interessen, finanziellen Möglichkeiten und nicht zuletzt vom Alter ab. So bedeutet für viele junge Leute das Wort Freizeit vor allem Besuch einer Party, eines Cafés, oder einer Disco, wo man neue Leute kennen lernen, Bekannte wiedersehen, über Liebe und Leben diskutieren und überhaupt mit gleichaltrigen sozusagen „nett abhängen" kann, Eigentlich ähneln diese Freizeitaktivitäten denen in der Ukraine. Wenn man über die Besonderheiten der Freizeitgestaltung in Deutschland spricht, so muss man vor allem die zahlreichen Vereine erwähnen. Als Vereinsmitglieder können die Leute interessante Veranstaltungen organisieren, um einfach ihren Spaß zu haben oder irgendwelche Talente zu entwickeln. Dabei verfolgt die Vereinsarbeit wichtige soziale Ziele. Sie bringt nicht nur Geselligkeit ins Leben der Menschen, sondern dient auch deren Selbstverwirklichung.

Exercise 2. Learn the new words.

German	Ukrainian	English
Der Volksmund	народна мудрість	the saying
das Vergnügen	задоволення	pleasure
Erst die Arbeit, dann das Vergnügen	Зробив діло – гуляй сміло	Work before pleasure
Erholsam	розслабляючий, для відпочинку	relaxing
die Erholung	відпочинок	recreation
die Verpflichtung	зобов'язання, обов'язок	obligation
dabei	при цьому	at the same time
eigentlich	власне	actually
meinen	вважати	to mean
brauchen	потребувати	to need
besonders	особливий	specific
verfügbar	наявний, є в розпорядженні	available
natürlich, selbstverständlich	звичайно	of course
verschiedene	різні	different
die Möglichkeit	можливість	opportunity
angenehm	приємний	pleasant
entspannen sich / erholen sich	розслаблятися, відпочивати	relax

sinnvoll	раціональний. Доцільний	useful, meaningful
gestalten	організувати	make, organize
wandern	подорожувати пішки	(go) hiking, wander
auf Besichtigungstour gehen	ходити на екскурсію, оглядати визначні місця	go on tour, go sightseeing
streifen	бродити	wander
beschäftigen sich mit Dat	займатися	be busy with
die Briefmarkensammlung	колекція поштових марок	stamp collection
der Tierfreund	друг тварин	animal lover
widmen	присвячувати	devote
Gassi gehen	прогулянка	walk
das Faulenzen	ледарювання, відпочинок	lazing
verbringen	проводити час	spend
bedeuten	означати	mean
Bekannte wiedersehen	зустрічати знайомих	meet old friends, have friends' reunion
die Geselligkeit	спілкування	socializing

Exercise 3. Find the synonyms in Ex.2.

Exercise 4. Choose the words denoting what people can do in their free time.

Exercise 5. Match German, English and Ukrainian words and phrases:
Musik hören, schwimmen, joggen, malen, Tennis spielen, kochen, in die Disco gehen, Computer spielen, simsen, backen, im Internet surfen, reiten, das Bungeejumping, jonglieren, das Mountainbiking, angeln, fotografieren, basteln, in der Sonne liegen, tauchen, wandern, singen, Volleyball spielen, telefonieren, zeichnen, Karaoke singen, Drachen steigen lassen, auf Partys gehen, Freunde treffen, faulenzen, einkaufen gehen, lesen, skaten
Play tennis, cook, go to the disco, surf the net, ride a horse, play the computer games, listen to music, go swimming, go jogging, paint, bake, go bungee jumping, juggle, go mountain-biking, go fishing, take photos, build, sunbathe, dive, travel, sing, play volleyball, go to the parties, meet friends, be lazy, go shopping, read, go rollerblading, talk on the phone, count, sing in karaoke, fly a kite
Слухати музику, плавати, куховарити, іти на дискотеку, грати на комп'ютері, переписуватись SMS-ками, пекти, лазити в інтернеті, жонглювати, бігати підтюпцем, кататись на гірському велосипеді, рибалити, фотографувати, малювати, грати теніс, майструвати, співати, грати волейбол, говорити по телефону, рахувати, співати в караоке, запускати повітряного змія, їздити верхи, скакати з банджіджампінгу, ходити на вечірки, зустрічатися з друзями, загоряти, пірнати, подорожувати, лінуватись, ходити за покупками, читати, кататись на роликах

Exercise 6. Answer the questions.

1) What activity do you find interesting?
2) What activity do you find dangerous?
3) What activity do you find boring?
4) Which activity is active?
5) What activity is passive?
6) What do you do with pleasure?
7) What can you do well?
8) What would you like to learn to do?

Exercise 7. Translate the text into English.

3.2. Formal Instructions

Another important factor that boosts the knowledge of a FL-2 is the formal instruction. According to Chomsky human are biologically programmed with language device (Chomsky in Djonhar: 2012). Considering this reason, English teachers or lecturers have to give exposures in subconscious condition, such as vocabulary or conversation because the massive exposure will give contribution toward language acquisition subconsciously.

We encourage the use of instructions in English from the very first lesson and throughout the whole course of teaching English as the second foreign language, occasionally shifting preferably to German than to Ukrainian. When listening to spoken academic language students can guess the meaning of unfamiliar words by paying attention to teacher's intonation, facial expressions, as well as to key words the teacher emphasizes or repeats. They also activate their first foreign language to find similar words in a new language. The serious problem we face now is that a very small number of lecturers of English can be found who have the profound knowledge of German. Therefore, the formal instruction in both German and English leaves much to be desired.

Conclusions

There are great opportunities for positive transfer and intensification of English language learning after German. However, we should point out an important phenomenon revealed in practice of teaching English as a second foreign language. When the students have acquired the sufficient amount of skills and obtained the basic level of English vocabulary and grammar, then the gradual reduction of FL-1st impact occurs. Over time, students begin to realize the construction of the internal laws of the English language, form the sense of language. Nevertheless, formal instructions in two languages and trilingual textbooks deserve further investigation and study.

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Note on the author:

Lukyanenko Svitlana Fedorivna is a lecturer at Lviv Ivan Franko national university, the department of foreign languages. Her teaching interests include multilingualism, metalinguistic awareness, and multilingual education. She is primarily interested in the methodology of teaching foreign languages in tertiary educational settings.
e-mail address: svitlanal@yahoo.com

Marta Wiśniowska
Częstochowa University of Technology

GERMAN AFTER ENGLISH – TERTIARY LANGUAGE TEACHING CONCEPT

Abstract: *The last decade has witnessed a rapid increase in interest in multilingualism. The universal character of teaching English in Polish schools has become pretty evident. It is a foreign language taught as the second language in all types of schools. German and other foreign languages taught in schools are generally introduced as tertiary languages, after English. However, the wide range of this phenomenon is not reflected in the curricula or textbooks for learning German available on the market. It is not taken into account that a tertiary language can be taught in a more conscious manner. The aim of the present project is show the possibility of teaching a subsequent foreign language (L3) in a manner different from that used for the first foreign language in order to tap the potential already developed through the teaching of the first foreign language (L2). In the lexicon it seems useful to make the learners aware of similar vocabulary in English and German while pointing out the existence of false friends. Much of German vocabulary and basic grammar is easy for English speakers to recognize. It is especially important for learners to understand the reason for including English while learning German.*

Introduction

A command of one foreign language is nothing unusual anymore and studying the third or further foreign languages is a common practice in the modern world. Mastering the second, and possibly the third foreign language, is of significance as far as personal and professional success as it creates greater opportunities for finding better jobs. Translation from one foreign language to another is a considerable challenge which not many translators are capable of meeting.

The researchers dealing with multilingualism assume that learning foreign languages is more efficient if it is possible to utilise the already possessed linguistic experiences in a conscious manner. This idea has already had practical applications.

Tertiary language acquisition

Tertiary language acquisition (TLA) is a relatively new area of research in the field of second language acquisition (SLA). Not until the 1990s did it become increasingly apparent that there are differences between the learning of a first foreign language and the learning of a second one.

While analysing the process of learning a second foreign language (L3), one can see that it differs significantly from the acquisition of the first foreign language (L2). A person undertaking to study the second foreign language has broader linguistic awareness, is familiar with the techniques and methods of studying, as well as is capable of metalinguistic reflection which supports the development of their further language. This person is in possession of a completely different, new type of competence.

> Learners of L3 have (…) specific characteristics connected with the knowledge of at least two (inter)linguistic systems (and cultures), as well as extensive experience in learning languages, which influence the process of acquisition of a new language and the production and reception in that language. (Chłopek 2008: 167)

More extensive experience in the area of learning languages facilitates learning another foreign language in an efficient way. Learners are aware of their learning styles, are more independent and have a clear-cut idea of what the process of learning a foreign language should be like. An important element of this process is a complex in which the second and the third foreign language are located. The closer the genetic relation between these languages, the easier they are to acquire. Analogies in grammar and vocabulary, resulting from the similarities between the systems of related languages, have a positive influence on the acquisition of the second foreign language.

German as the second foreign language after English

Extensive research concerning teaching foreign languages has been done by Goethe Institut. It has shown a significant advantage of English over German (Rurarz, 2007:50, 52). English is a language commonly taught as the first foreign language all over the world. German being one of the official languages of the European Union and one of the three working languages of the European Commission (next to French and English) is the third most frequently taught foreign language around the world. More and more often German is taught as a tertiary language.

The term "tertiary language" is applied to a language acquired after the first foreign language. Learning this language, for example German as a foreign language after English, should differ from the acquisition of the first foreign language. Britta Hufeisen, the head of the Department of German as a Foreign Language at the Darmstadt University of Technology, the author of the project entitled *The Plurilingualism Project: Tertiary Language Learning – German after English*, initiated this new approach in the didactics of tertiary languages within Europe. The educational model she proposed assumes a consistent and systematic use of the possessed knowledge and linguistic experiences in class. The approach assuming that language students make conscious references to the already learned first foreign language (English) in the learning process of the second one (German) increases the functionality of classes in this second foreign language.

The arrangement German after English is a generally known and popular one. It is thus difficult to understand the fact that the educational and methodological concept of German as the second foreign language was not taken into consideration for such a long period of time. It has only been over the last years that the first attempts were made to apply these experiences for educational and methodological purposes.

The command of all the previously acquired languages, and in particular those that are typologically close to the target one, influences the process of learning foreign languages. The project assuming teaching the basics of German on the basis of the knowledge of English, was created bearing in mind people studying English and German – typologically close languages between which there are multiple partial similarities. English and German are in the same Germanic language family so both languages are closely related and have about 800 words in common (Tęcza, 2010: 671-690). Polish students who study English and German (two Germanic languages) very often make interferential mistakes arising from familiarity with the second – foreign language and not the mother tongue.

These are not differences that are a reason for the most frequent mistakes, but partial similarities between these languages. Indicating such similarities to students prevents them from making mistakes, provides them with a useful skill of making use of their resources of the so far mastered linguistic knowledge while acquiring a language. Drawing on the previously studied languages in a conscious and effective manner facilitates and accelerates the learning process of a tertiary language. However, properly trained teachers are necessary for common application of such a method of linguistic development.

Teachers of tertiary languages

The specificity of acquiring and teaching successive foreign languages requires a completely different approach from teachers than it is in the case of the first foreign language. A teacher should have an opportunity to observe classes of a foreign language other than the one they teach in order to be able to use the methodology and contents as a point of reference during their own classes. A teacher of the second foreign language should be aware that students already possess complex linguistic and cultural knowledge, as well as skills necessary to acquire a language, which they can draw on in the course of study. It is a tertiary language teacher's task to make the optimum use of these skills easier for students while they are learning a new foreign language.

The lack of textbooks for learning tertiary languages forces teachers to adapt the existing materials or create their own teaching aids. The exercises should be constructed in such a manner as to not only draw on the other languages students have mastered, but, first of all, take into account the results of error analysis and contrastive analysis. The teacher should help students base on cognitive styles and learning strategies with the use of comparative techniques comparing the target language not only with the mother tongue, but also with the other

FOREIGN TO FOREIGN – GERMAN AFTER ENGLISH - TERTIARY LANGUAGE TEACHING CONCEPT

Fast identische Wörter
Words that are almost identical

a) Wochentage: days of the week

der Montag
Monday — Tuesday — Wednesday
Thursday — Friday — Saturday — Sunday

b) Monatsnamen: names of the months

der Januar
January — February — March — April
May — June — July — August — September
October — November — December

c) Zahlen: numbers

eins
one — two — three — four — five
six — seven — eight — nine — ten

d) die Familie: family

die Mutter
mother — father — daughter — son
grandmother — grandfather

e) Farben: colours

rot
red — blue — green — yellow — brown — orange — white

der Dienstag · der Februar · zwei · blau · sieben · rot · der Juni · die Großmutter · zehn · der Dezember · der Sonntag · der Mittwoch · sechs · drei · der Vater · grün · der Mai · orange · der Großvater · neun · der November · der Samstag · der Juli · der Montag · der Sohn · acht · der Oktober · der Freitag · der August · der Januar · der März · vier · die Tochter · gelb · braun · fünf · der April · der Donnerstag · eins · die Mutter · weiß

Nahrungsmittel
Food

der Apfel
apple

butter

margarine

fish

spagetti

ketchup

salad

orange

soup

salt

pepper

tomato

chocolate

hamburger

pretzel

bread

pizza

banana

der Apfel · die Banane · die Brezel · das Brot · die Butter · der Fisch · der Hamburger das Ketchup · die Margarine · die Orange · die Pizza · der Pfeffer · der Salat · das Salz die Schokolade · die Spaghetti · die Suppe · die Tomate

Source: A. Kursiša, G. Neuner: *Deutsch ist easy! Lehrhandreichungen und Kopievorlagen „Deutsch nach Englisch" für den Anfangsunterricht.* Max Heuber Verlag 2006

foreign language. Problems a student may encounter (insufficient knowledge of the first foreign language, fear of confusing these two languages) can prove to be difficult to overcome. It is the tertiary language teacher's task to make students sensitive to similarities (in order to be able to use the thus created positive transfer) and differences (in order to avoid possible interferences) between the languages being acquired. The ability to notice similarities and differences between languages within specific linguistic sub-systems is a great facilitation in the process of learning a new language.

German after English

The absence of the proper preparation of foreign language teachers results in the fact that the proposed didactic model (*German after English*) is not a widespread manner of teaching a second foreign language in Poland. Applying it to teaching a specialist language is a novel approach to a certain degree. The suggested way of teaching, which assumes a parallel engagement of two foreign languages, constitutes an additional challenge not only for those who are learning. A teacher applying this method is required to be proficient in all (three) languages used in classes (as it is in the case of a teacher of a tertiary language).
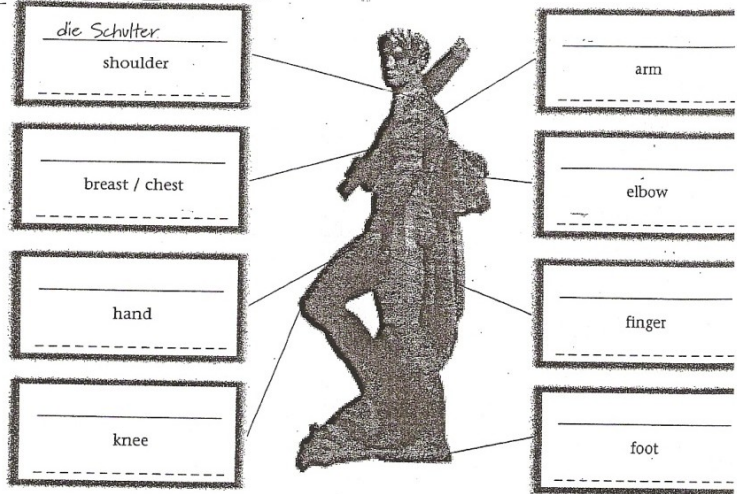
Teaching a tertiary language in Poland as part of modern language studies takes the form of language classes on an hourly basis smaller than in the case of a leading language of the specialization. The linguistic competence of students is therefore proportionally lower than in the case of the first foreign language. The stereotypical approach to teaching foreign languages makes students unaware of the advantages resulting from the application of the knowledge of the acquired language skills. The simultaneous acquisition of two foreign languages is perceived as an additional burden. The participants of this type of classes are expected not only to be proficient in the first foreign language. It is positive transfer that is of utmost importance in the process of developing such linguistic competence as vocabulary. Therefore referring to English at the initial stage is of particular significance. There are multiple internationalisms and Anglicisms appearing then, which exerts a positive influence on language students making them aware that at this level of education they have a certain amount of knowledge at their disposal and they can apply it while developing individual language skills. There are numerous similarities, especially at this initial stage, between the grammars of both languages.

The appendix contains sample educational materials which are useful in classes of German as the second foreign language after English.

Conclusion

Towards the end of the 1960, in numerous European countries attention was drawn to the specificity of teaching a tertiary language. At first, linguists emphasised the adverse effects of this process and, first of all, the overlapping of struc-

FOREIGN TO FOREIGN – GERMAN AFTER ENGLISH - TERTIARY LANGUAGE TEACHING CONCEPT

Der Körper
The body

| die Schulter | arm |
| shoulder | |

| breast / chest | elbow |

| hand | finger |

| knee | foot |

die Schulter · die Brust · der Arm · der Ellbogen · die Hand · der Finger · das Knie · der Fuß

Der Kopf
The head

| die Augenbraue | hair |
| eyebrow | |

| eye | ear |

| mouth | nose |

| lip | chin |

der Mund · die Lippe · das Auge · die Augenbraue · das Ohr · das Haar · das Kinn · die Nase

Source: A. Kursiša, G. Neuner: *Deutsch ist easy! Lehrhandreichungen und Kopievorlagen „Deutsch nach Englisch" für den Anfangsunterricht.* Max Heuber Verlag 2006

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tures from the second language with those of the tertiary one and the resulting mistakes. The successive years saw a slow change in this approach – the conviction that the coexistence of and learning two or more foreign languages can be beneficial for learners started to dominate.

The knowledge of English can be used by learners on numerous occasions while learning German. It becomes most evident in the course of vocabulary work. One can observe here mostly a positive influence. What can be of assistance is internationalisms and Anglicisms present in German: in teen language, in sports, in information technologies, in fashion, in advertising and in many other disciplines. Of course, one should be particularly careful with false cognates (*false friends – falsche Freunde*).

The methodology of teaching foreign languages is continuously developing. A conscious use of one's knowledge of English in teaching German constitutes the next step in the development of foreign language didactics. The knowledge of English may prove useful on condition that the following restrictions are taken into account: references to the knowledge of another foreign language should be well-thought in order not to lead to continuous mixing of languages, it is thus necessary to take into account the adverse effect of interference and counteract it with the use of intensive practical activities.

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Note on the author:

Marta Wiśniowska, PhD, is a linguist and special translation theoretician, works as an assistant professor at the Chair of Applied Linguistics in Management at the Częstochowa University of Technology.

Part 2.

TRANSLATION TRAINING

Julian Maliszewski
University of Applied Sciences, Nysa
Częstochowa University of Technology

NEW CHALLENGES IN THE TRAINING OF SPECIALISED TRANSLATORS AND INTERPRETERS

Abstract: *In the professional training the translator and interpreter have to possess the real world knowledge which permits them to genuinely comprehend the natural language (i.e. their mother and foreign tongues) and to understand the deep meanings of specialised terminology and the substantial range of the idiomatic usage of this special lexis. The target of lingual translation preparation is the achievement of grammatical accuracy, idiomatic fluency and succinctness as well as the equivalence and precision of style in generating the target language text (in the form of written translation or oral, i.e. consecutive or simultaneous, interpretation, also known as "chuchotage"). The main contribution of this paper is to foster a new level of integration among different and well-known approaches to the academic didactics of special languages. The author brings together the research from linguistics, didactics, cognitive sciences and a variety of other philological fields, by promoting the exploration of different yet interacting and complementary ways in which these various elements of modern translation and interpreting teaching interrelate. A well-organised preparation process in translation and interpreting education enables the trainees to achieve, through lexical preparation and doing practical exercises (also within certain contextual patterns), the efficient communication of meaning to the second language (i.e. target language) speaking communities.*

1. Short introduction – language as the first

Alexander Gross, one of most popular American linguists, in 2005 published his famous *Six Laws of Language and Linguistics in Draft Form* (*Cf.* Gross 2005). The third *law* should be construed as a *sui generis* "point of departure" for the contemporary approach to the training of translators and interpreters training. Gross (2005: 2) holds that:

> Communication never takes place generically between languages and languages, or between dictionaries and dictionaries. All successful communication takes place under specific circumstances between a speaker and a listener, or a writer and a reader, or between non-verbal communicator and his/her audience. (…) This law holds true both for communication in a single language and for translating and interpreting, since there is essentially no difference between translating the message into another tongue and paraphrasing it within a single tongue.

The Gross's suggestion induces us to revise the views on the relation between the proceeding of the linguistic expression and its transposition from the source language into the target one.

In his sixth *law* the American linguist presents the logical inference (Gross 2005: 4):

> The brain understands the language (…) through a combined comparison of (…) context, and expected collocations, seeking out a match of other meanings, contexts, an collocation it has already encountered. Once it has made this match, which may be more or less precise, it assumes it has understood correctly. Grammar plays a relatively small role in this process, sometimes none at all. (…) This process has for its source the humble origins of languages through evolution (…).

This convincing argument is encouraging enough to take another look at the priorities of the linguistic education of translators and interpreters. One of them is lexical pragmatics, which has to be the peculiar crowning of all lexical, semantic, grammatical and syntactical preparations.

The lexical and semantic practice in the second language training proves that the basis for lexical pragmatics is the following typology:
– intralexical sphere, concerning the process of communication in the field of one special lexis area (e.g. penal, commercial or civil law)
– interlexical sphere, involving communicative processes between several lexis areas (e.g. between particular kinds of laws and technical or medical lexis, commercial or official lexis used for legal actions/purposes (Möhn 2007: 50-51).

This approach requires translator's greater engagement as during the translation of specialised texts connected with different specialised fields, one must make a proper choice of correct terms or their equivalents. Thus, this engagement means, first of all, making sometimes difficult choices between several equivalent propositions or, what is even more difficult, avoiding specific "homonymic reefs" which might lead the translator astray. However, Möhn (2007: 357) offers an additional solution:
– extralexical sphere, remaining into contact of particular groups of special and general lexis. In this field, the most common occurrence is semantics revaluation of names and designations of general language, with the aim of creating new, special terms.

Dealing with the above-mentioned three lexical spheres is the translator's requirement and tests his lexical competence and efficient acquisition of both his foreign and mother languages.

With reference to professor Franciszek Grucza's statement which holds that the activities undertaken by the translator should be divided into two main categories of action: cognitive and creative operations, resulting in the completion of the translation, it has to be emphasised that the whole lexical preparation of specialised lexicon processing proceeds in the first stage of the translator's activities and is of the greatest importance for the further shape of the translation (*Cf.* Grucza 1999: 2-4).

In the cognitive stage of the preparation for the translation of legal texts, the primary task for the translator is the analysis of terms and names, aiming at the avoidance of their ambiguity. The result of such "antipolysemic" or "disambiguating" selection should be, first of all, the arrangement of accurate semantic equivalents or functional, already translated, legal names, terms and expressions so that the translation can fulfil the primary criteria imposed on all kinds of special texts:

- correctness,
- unequivocal meaning,
- stylistic neutrality,
- consistent coherence i.e. conformity to the existing system of names and legal terminology.
- conciseness i.e. the avoidance of redundancy and the maintenance of language economy (Grucza 1999: 3).

The way to the fulfilment of these criteria is not easy. Franciszek Grucza (1999: 4) states that the main reason of such difficulty is:

> different shortage in the field of communicative potential of particular languages. All human languages are imperfect/defective on some ways. It is known that it is not easy to express oneself unequivocally in these languages, in some cases it is even impossible.(...) Unequivocal meaning causes many troubles to authors of legislative texts. Even if they make efforts to obtain it, they rarely reach it.

In Möhn's typology it is easy to notice a specific struggle with ambiguity. Dealing with the fields of homonymic lexis, the translator has to make a correct choice. It is followed by the necessity of a intralinguistic choice in the source and target languages. It is only after defining names, terms and expressions in one language accurately that the translator can undertake the research of correct equivalents, trying to reach absolute equivalence when it is impossible to apply the ideal expressions to the ones that have been read in the source language. The equivalence of the translation can be stated only when both texts (the source and target ones) are comparable in terms of their meanings.

In her typology of translatological categories, in the subchapter entitled "Lexis", Radegundis Stolze (1996/1999: 204) dedicates separate considerations to the systematisation of the translation of legal texts. She pays special attention to the features of special language, postulating translators' preparation in terms of special terminology of particular legal acts. Stolze puts an emphasis on the genuine mastery of all, "indefinite commercial and legal terms which enable to reach common, optimal level of translation of special terms" (1996/1999: 201; *cf.* Stolze 2007: 8-9). Then, the translator can move on to the further stages of the preparation for the translation of legal texts which are based on giving definitions to all lexical differences in a widely understood legal thesaurus of the source and target languages, provided with detailed legislation and specific expressions which are not always comparable.

2. Constant trawl for translation and interpreting training effectiveness

Mastering the ability to use appropriately business and law English (ESP) and, consequently, achieving competence in specialised texts by the translator have been examined for many years not only by teachers of foreign languages but also by specialists within translation education. At present, more often the issue of teaching ESP and translation of specialised written texts constitutes the research problem in the field of linguistics, glottodidactics and translation studies. Nevertheless, it is still a narrow domain as it is represented by a few researchers. The previous two decades, though, witnessed an increased interest in specialised translation issues as well as in the studies upon didactics of foreign languages – in teaching ESP .

Oleg Tarnopolsky, the author of an extensive paper dedicated to teaching ESP, emphasises that:

> Today's foreign/second language teaching methods are based on the belief that students should be as autonomous (or even independent) as possible in the process of acquiring the target language and the communication skills in that language. The role of teachers in that case is radically changed: from providers of knowledge and skills they turn into […] facilitators i.e. people who help students to organize their learning in the best, most productive and efficient, as well as the most effort-saving manner. (Tarnopolsky 2012: 8)

Tarnopolsky rightly argues that the modern model of teaching ESP and translation of texts written in the same language involves a struggle not only with the difficult matter of the language itself but also with a number of extralingual aspects that should be considered during the preparation for working with a specialised text. The aspects include problems of the specificity of the language of economy as well as other meta-languages, *e.g.* official, judicial, technical *etc.* The crucial issue in such an approach is the matter of equivalence as ESP in the process of intra-lexical transposition as well as in translation into another language is the most difficult element in both procedures. One of the major difficulties is the ability to navigate efficiently through the different areas of grammar and style, as implied by ESP. This view is expressed not only by many researchers of ESP teaching theory but also by theorists and practitioners of specialised translation:

> Obwohl die Bedeutung der grundsprachlichen Kompetenz und die Notwendigkeit ihrere Erweiterung wohl kaum umstritten sein dürfen, hat die Grundsprache auch heute nich nicht überall den ihr gebührenden Platz als eigenständige Ausbildungskomponente erworben. […] Immer noch gibt es keine ausgearbeiteten und didaktisch verantworteten Konzepte für die erweiterung der grundsprachlichen Kompetenz (Best 2002: 132).

The observation of this German researcher also applies to specialised translation and ESP teaching. With a wide range of specialised translation theories, which are the result of extensive theoretical research and practical experience, a new perspective of teaching ESP is emerging, in which it is possible to connect

both the practical aspect of ESP applications and the foundations of translating specialised texts.

The expanding linguistic knowledge, mentioned by the German researcher, should be pursued not only in the process of teaching a language but also in a form of an experiment (case study) within every studied and analysed professional/special domain. The learner/student must then master the substantive content-related scope of knowledge prior to moving on to the practical verbalisation in the mother tongue and the foreign language.

Mastering the basic substantial/content-related/extralinguistic knowledge about a particular science or professional domain is one of the key success factors of teaching ESP. When determining the requirement for mastering technical knowledge by students as the first step preceding their preparation to work with ESP, Radegundis Stolze uses the term "experts' knowledge":

> Das Expertwissen des Translators (and also of ESP learners – J.M.) bezieht sich also im Unterschied zu dem des Fachmanns mit Fremdsprachenkenntnissen, auf die besonderen Techniken des fachsprachlichen Redens in unterschiedlichen Bereichen, die jenem nur für sein Fach intuitiv bekannt sind. Es umfasst vo allem das Wissen darum, wie fachliche Kommunikation sich in spezifischer Weise sprachlich darstellt und wie dies mit Fragen des Übersetzens zu verknüpfen sei. Der professionele Übersetzer hat mit unterschiedlichen Bereichen zu tun, und Translationskompetenz (and *per analogiam* ESP operational skills – J.M.) bedeutet unter anderem den kognitiven Zugang zu den verschiedensten Kommunikationsbereichen (Stolze 2007: 8) .

The cognitive aspect emphasised by Stolze is linked to the experimental method, which favours mastering communication skills in translating and interpreting. Consequently, mastering the communication skills brings the most expected result – the ability of professional thinking. That specific way of thinking is based on the ability to verify a specific structure of specialised text, *i.e.* determining text origin and purpose. In that matter, Stolze suggests the tetrapod paradigm: who writes the text, when it is written, where it is written, and what is the purpose/goal of the text. Stolze's tetrapod refers to the discourse disc worked out in 2002 by Danuta Kierzkowska, Polish specialised translation scholar. The first two circles of the disc relate to the four major elements of text origin (Kierzkowska 2002: 74-84). The above-mentioned paradigms do not include the crucial issue of language level and language register. Both concepts overlap not only in terms of language competences but also in terms of substantial (extralinguistic/content-related) knowledge necessary to generate a specialised text. The acquisition of the knowledge is of the same importance as the language acquisition.

Many theorists and practitioners of applied linguistics ask a fundamental, not to say rhetoric, question: can specialised translators know everything? And here is the most important issue: what is the role of the previously acquired knowledge of a person creating specialised texts or dealing with specialised translation? In the process of writing the specialised text, both in a native and/or for-

eign language, the substantial and professional knowledge concerning the concrete domain (*e.g.* business, law, technology) is without any doubt a *sine qua non* condition. The professional experience of many specialised translators (*Cf.* Maliszewski 2013: 122-123) shows that they are often exposed to many volatile/variable situations requiring the substantial and content-related knowledge. One way to deal with such difficult situations is through *case studies* associated with the current work upon the translated text. Tarnopolski in his paper on the method of constructivists within ESP teaching claims that:

> (…) case studies are based on specific details which specify a problem requiring a specific solutions. (…) Those solutions need to be specifically adapted to the particular details of the case and in no way generalized. All the more, the ideas generated by students in case studies cannot be illogical or absurd… (…) In case studies every generated idea has to be logically proved and well-grounded because otherwise this idea cannot lead to a logical and feasible solution (Tarnopolsky 2012: 55).

In the process of linguistic preparations for working with the specialised text or translation, the translators have to use particular measures to facilitate them to improve and enlarge their substantial and professional knowledge – *ergo* expanding their specialised terminology and stylistics. Improving and perfecting specialised templates help to achieve the following main goals:

- – to acquire the perfect knowledge of both languages and "encyclopaedic" content-related knowledge about SL- and TL cultural environment;
- – to organise access to the typical and easily accessible documentation and terminological glossaries, which are the most important part of the preparation procedure of ESP text and specialised translation;
- – to continuously expand and improve the knowledge throughout compendia and lexicons (here the theory of scopos can be especially helpful and useful) (Cf. Maliszewski 2008: 247).

Not all theories, however, are verifiable in practice so they should not be accepted without critical evaluation.

In the process of working with the translation or interpreting of a specialised text, quick and easy access to an adequate pattern/model is crucial. Nevertheless, the ESP operators and/or translators need to have a margin of time to assess the relevance of the selected model to the performed text or translation. Performing this operation, which is actually the distribution process, requires the use of proximal memory operating in constant interaction with distant memory (retrospective) which collects the most significant explicit and implicit information acquired in the course of the increasing extralinguistic experience (*Cf.* Kalina 1999; Gross-Dinter 2005; Maliszewski 2008).

It should be emphasised that patterns/templates are not fixed or constant structures. Models and patterns in the process of working with a text in a foreign language text and/or specialised translation should be considered flexible configurations and structures, which reflect all the essential aspects of the above-

mentioned procedures: rich and model/pattern- oriented terminological experience, the ability to immediately supplement the missing lexical components in the provided context (the so-called anti-ellipsism as a form of omission avoidance), the ability to automatically generalise but still remaining in the context frames, the ability to modify and adapt continually the deposited models, patterns and templates to the current needs occurring while dealing with the foreign language text and/or specialised translation (Cf. Gross-Dinter 2005; Maliszewski 2001).

In view of the above observations and considerations, it is possible to develop some standardised steps (phases) occurring during the preparation and creation of a foreign text and/or specialised translation. The example is provided by Kutz, a German linguist. The Kutz's scheme, however, needs to be clarified as it is presented in brackets, and it includes:

– the preliminary preparations for working with the text (content-related, linguistic, re-organisational, and motoric interpreting skills);
– reception skills (reading, listening, note taking, comprehension, memory recalling and experience – in order to clarify the text, define communication models, eradicate polysemy);
– the implementation of the text or translation (transposition in the input-output system) with the switching model: SL-TL;
– reproduction (with the extralinguistic experience applied);
– monitoring and controlling (Kutz 2002: 186).

The full acceptance of the implemented paradigm is possible, taking into account our supplements, and then it fully captures the essence of the pragmatics of working with specialised translation or interpreting. To reach the highest correspondence to the paradigm, all curricula in this area should equally take into consideration linguistic competences as well as general intellectual competences. They should constitute the logic paradigm controlling the acquisition of extralinguistic knowledge closely related to the domains of science, technology, *etc.* for which specialised language is the only means of communication.

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Note on the author:
Julian Maliszewski, full professor, D.Litt., Ph.D., Sc.D., is a scholar in the field of English, German and Russian studies, full professor and head of the Department of Applied Linguistics at the University of Technology in Częstochowa and of Business English Section at the University of Applied Sciences in Nysa; author of numerous books and articles on specialised translation and interpreting theory; member of FIT and VDB; expert and certified translator and interpreter of Dutch, English, German and Russian.

Iwona Sikora
University of Applied Sciences, Nysa
Częstochowa University of Technology

Marcin Walczyński
University of Applied Sciences, Nysa
University of Wrocław

EDUCATING TRANSLATORS FOR THE EUROPEAN TRANSFER OF CULTURE, KNOWLEDGE AND TECHNOLOGY IN THE POLISH CONTEXT

Koľko jazykov vieš, toľkokrát si človekom.
(The more languages you know, the more of a person you are.)
(Slovak proverb)

Abstract: In this article the authors present the process of educating translators and interpreters for the European transfer of culture, knowledge and technology in the Polish context. The article starts with the general presentation of the European Union and its activities related to languages, linguistic policy and plurilingualism. Among such activities are translation and interpreting services, without which the European Union – having 24 different official languages – could not function so well. The authors discuss the European Union standards and norms established for the education of translators and interpreters and consider the skills and competences future translators and interpreters should acquire to become professionals who are well-prepared to act as mediators of cultural values, knowledge and technical expertise for the better development of the European Union community. The authors use three examples to demonstrate that the European Union activities and policies in the sphere of languages are also visible in the education of translators and interpreters in Poland. Thus the overall aim of this paper is to shed some light on how the European Union has contributed to establishing new standards of the Polish education of translators and interpreters who are to participate in the European transfer of culture, knowledge and technology.

Introduction

The European Union, as a voluntary organisation of the European countries, strives to provide its citizens with conditions for development, with safety and protection, with justice and fairness. The European Union efforts aiming at accomplishing these goals are centred around five areas which include: employment, research and development, climate and energy, education, social inclusion and poverty reduction. In our paper, we focus mostly on the educational aspect by showing the importance of language learning. To do so, we provide an overview

of the European values and rights as well as key competences of a European Union citizen. This serves as a point of departure for a more thorough presentation of the European Union efforts aiming at increasing plurilingualism and language learning and the role of translators and interpreters in those processes. Thus, on the basis of three case studies, we discuss the education of translators and interpreters who play a vital role in the transfer of culture, knowledge and technology in Europe.

Generally speaking, the objective of this article is to show how the European Union has contributed to establishing new standards in translator and interpreter education as well as how the values, ideas and competences defined by the European Union have been incorporated in the curricula of translator and interpreter training programmes whose overriding goal is to educate professionals for the European transfer of culture, knowledge and technology.

1. European Union values and rights

The European Union is an organisation which promotes universal values, ideals and rights. This is manifested in numerous documents published by different departments of the European Union.

In 2010 the European Union launched a ten-year strategy whose aim is at least twofold: to overcome the outcomes of the 2008 crisis as well as to promote the economic growth of the European Union member states. This strategy superseded the previous Lisbon Strategy adopted in 2000 and it aims at "creating the conditions for a smart, sustainable and inclusive growth" (*Europe 2020 in a nutshell*), which will lead to a more competitive economy and higher employment within the European Union. As specified in the press release of 2010 on *Europe 2020*, this strategy focuses on three mutually reinforcing priorities which should be achieved at the European and national levels through well-planned actions. This involves:
 – smart growth by developing an economy based on knowledge and fostering education, innovation and digital society,
 – sustainable growth by promoting a more resource efficient, greener and at the same time more competitive economy,
 – inclusive growth by increasing the employment rate, preventing social exclusion through promotion of education and acquisition of skills and diminishing poverty (*Cf.* http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release_IP-10-225_en.htm; 25.07.2014).

More specifically, such actions should lead to a higher employment rate of European citizens within the age span of 25-64 and by 2020 it should reach the level of 75%. There should be greater investments in research and development which should reach 3% of the European Union's GDP. As regards climate and energy, the greenhouse gas emission should be cut by at least 20% whereas the share of renewable energy is planned to be increased by 20% and the European Union should become 20% more energy-efficient (*Cf.* http://europa.eu/rapid/press-

release_MEMO-14-149_en.htm; 25.07.2014). In the area of education, the number of citizens with higher education diplomas should reach at least 40% and the number of younger people leaving schools too early should be reduced to 10%. Finally, the European Union wants to fight poverty and social exclusion and therefore it is expected that the level of people living under the poverty threshold should be reduced by 20% (*Cf.* http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release_IP-10-225_ en.htm; 25.07.2014).

Another document closely related to the "Europe 2020" strategy is the Treaty of Lisbon with its Charter of Fundamental Rights which came into force in 2009. The Charter defines fundamental rights and values, among which there are dignity, freedom, democracy, equality, solidarity, the rule of law or respect for human rights. Those rights and values should be respected, proclaimed and fostered by all European Union member states. Moreover, these rights should constitute the basis for the development of European Union domestic and external policies. They should also be treated as priorities of the "Europe 2020" strategy and should be implemented in order to overcome the economic and ethical crisis Europe is now witnessing. All member states, as well as any country wishing to become a member of the Union, must respect these core values of human rights and dignity, freedom, democracy, equality and the rule of law (*Cf.* http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:C:2010:083:0389:0403:en:PDF; 25.07.2014).

One of these values, which should be protected and promoted, is the right of the European Union citizens to receive education and freedom to choose occupation. What is interesting, it can be stated that it is just education and personal development through which a better recognition, respect and protection of the fundamental rights proclaimed in the Charter may be guaranteed. Therefore, one of the vital components of the European Union policy is the concept of lifelong learning which is considered to be essential to the development of the European society and the competitiveness of the knowledge-based economy. Lifelong learning promotes education and encourages personal development at all stages of life and at all levels of education. Lifelong learning is thus related to the continuous development of personal and professional skills and competences which increase employability, promote understanding and cultural awareness, help to prevent poverty and social exclusion. Therefore, the European Union recommends that each European citizen at the end of their compulsory education or throughout their adult life should develop a set of competences for lifelong learning. Building these skills is perceived as necessary to increase the chances for employment, higher quality of work and better adaptability to the constantly changing conditions. Moreover, such skills help to achieve motivation and satisfaction and to foster personal development. The key competences can be grouped into eight major areas (*Cf.* http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/ALL/?uri=CELEX: 32006H0962; 25.07.2014): communication in the mother tongue, communication in foreign languages; mathematical competence and basic competences in science

and technology; digital competence; learning to learn; social and civic competences; sense of initiative and entrepreneurship; cultural awareness and expression. This broad set of competences is useful in nearly all spheres of life and therefore all European citizens should try to develop them to lead a successful life.

2. European Union and languages

It has already become evident that the ability to understand and communicate in several languages has a prominent position in the above-mentioned set of competences. The knowledge of foreign languages is seen as performing a special role in promoting the core values and rights referred to in the Charter:

> [f]oreign languages are essential to ensuring that European citizens are able to move, work, and learn freely throughout Europe. This mobility, in turn, will contribute to the development of jobs and growth, reducing unemployment and increasing living standards. It is also essential to ensure that languages are not a barrier to participation in society, and that marginalised language groups can be identified, represented, and included in society (http://ec.europa.eu/languages/ policy/language-policy/index_en.htm; 25.07.2014).

What is more, the European Union, having as many as 24 official languages, regards language learning as playing an important role in the process of lifelong learning since the ability to speak other tongues makes people more tolerant to other cultures, strengthens their mental and cognitive skills and enhances professional mobility (*Cf.* http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?qid=138971 9363086&uri=CELEX:52005DC0596; 25.07.2014).

Therefore, the plurilingualism policy encourages the learning of languages as by knowing more languages European Union citizens will be able to understand better other nations and unite over the differences. However, the European Council – through multilingualism – simultaneously promotes linguistic diversity which allows to protect the diversity of European cultures, customs and beliefs. Multilingualism is perceived as an important "value for intercultural dialogue, social cohesion and prosperity It plays an important role in lifelong learning, media and information technologies, as well as in the EU's external relations" (http://europa.eu/legislation_summaries/education_training_youth/lifelong_learni ng/ef0003_en.htm; 25.07.2014).

Therefore, multilingualism is a great asset since it gives people communicating in several languages a competitive advantage on the labour market and increases their employability. At the same time, multilingualism can be regarded as an obligation for European Union citizens – an obligation to learn other languages in order to comprehend other nations and cultures better, to develop mutual understanding and to preserve the linguistic and cultural diversity and separate national values as well as identities co-existing in the European Union.

At this point, it is worth clarifying that the concept of "linguistic diversity" is understood by the Council of Europe responsible for the preparation and implementation of the European Language Policy in two ways:

- "multilingualism" refers to the presence in a geographical area, large or small, of more than one "variety of language" i.e. the mode of speaking of a social group whether it is formally recognised as a language or not; in such an area individuals may be monolingual, speaking only their own variety;
- "plurilingualism" refers to the repertoire of varieties of language which many individuals use, and is therefore the opposite of monolingualism; it includes the language variety referred to as 'mother tongue' or 'first language' and any number of other languages or varieties at whatever level of competence; in some multilingual areas some individuals are monolingual and some are plurilingual (www.Coe.Int/T/Dg4/Linguistic/Source/Guide07_Executive_20aug_En.Doc; 25.07.2014).

Thus, in the view of the above, we have to state that in its multilingualism policy the European Union encourages all its citizens to cultivate multilingualism by being plurilingual. This means that every European Union citizen should be able to speak two foreign languages apart from their mother tongues.

The European Council promotes multilingualism and plurilingualism by demonstrating the importance of language learning for mutual understanding, by supporting language learning in the form of various programmes and initiatives as well as by developing the professions of interpreters and translators who act as mediators between linguistic and cultural systems (*Cf.* http://europa.eu/legislation_summaries/education_training_youth/lifelong_learning/ef0003_en.htm; 25.07.2014).

The fact that plurilingualism and, generally speaking, the matter of languages and intercultural communication are important in the policies implemented by the European Union is well visible in the variety of institutions established within its frameworks which tackle different language-related issues. There is, for instance Language Policy Unit (Council of Europe) based in Strasbourg which is involved in language education. Among its many projects, let us enumerate the *European Language Label* (ELL) or the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* developed within the *European Language Portfolio Programme*.

Furthermore, to increase mobility, to encourage the exchange of expertise and experience as well as to simulate language learning, the European Union has launched a series of programmes within the lifelong learning framework (Erasmus, Comenius, Gruntvig, Leonardo da Vinci) (*Cf.* http://ec.europa.eu/education/tools/llp_en.htm; 25.-7.2014) and has provided financial support for a number of related initiatives (youth exchanges, town twinning projects, *etc.*) (*Cf.* http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?qid=1389882144484&uri=CELEX:52005DC0596; 25.-7.2014).

Moreover, the European Council experts have identified key areas in which actions should be undertaken to make the multilingualism policy effective. The European Council experts suggest, among others, developing national strategies for language learning, investing in better teacher training and promoting early language learning. Moreover, the European Council advocates promoting multilingualism amongst higher education staff and students and supports research and

development in the fields of study related to multilingualism, intercultural communication and linguistic diversity. Such initiatives prove that plurilingualism is one of the key areas of the European Union policies as it is believed that efficient communication and rapport, enhanced by plurilingualism, lead to better understanding and collaboration, including the economic cooperation.

3. European Union, translation and interpreting

In all its efforts to promote linguistic diversity and plurilingualism, the European Union also pays much attention to translation and interpreting services. In order to provide such services, it has been investing both time and funds in translator and interpreter training and in the development of translation technologies (CAT tools) (*Cf.* http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?qid=1389882144484& uri=CELEX:52005DC0596; 25.07.2014).

Interestingly enough, the European Union itself is the organisation with many working languages and to guarantee efficient communication among so many people of different linguistic backgrounds, it has established several units involved in translation and interpreting. These departments include: the Directorate General for Translation seated in Brussels/Luxembourg which offers in-house translation service of the European Commission, the Directorate General for Interpretation (European Commission) (SCIC), seated in Brussels which renders interpreting and conference organisation services to the European Commission and the Translation Centre for the Bodies of the European Union based in Luxembourg whose employees translate for different agencies of the European Union.

The European Union experts emphasise the growing significance of language-related professions and industries as they see the growing potential of the language industry to generate new job places. Language and translation-related professions are reported to be rapidly evolving in the member states and the demand for specialists in interpreting, translation, subtitling, proofreading, editing, terminology management, language teaching and training and language certification and testing, to name only a few, is also on the rise. Because of the growing demand for language and translation-related services as well as the potential of the language industry, the European Council calls for developing quality standards, frameworks of reference for good practices and updating education programmes to satisfy the changing needs and conditions of the language industry market and to ensure that the students acquire appropriate skills and competences required in their future employment.

As has already been reiterated several times, the European Union recognises the growing demand for translators and interpreters; however, it is also aware of the increasing importance of these professions in promoting multilingualism, eliminating barriers and facilitating communication among multilingual societies. For this reason, the European Union advocates establishing certain standards and norms in the field of translator and interpreter training which should serve as the guidelines for the institutions in the member states which wish

to design good quality translation and interpreting education programmes (*Cf.* http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?qid=1389882144484&uri=CELE X:52005DC0596; 25.07.2014). One of such projects devised in order to respond to the growing demand of the European Union for well-qualified professional translators is the *European Master's in Translation* (EMT) programme launched in cooperation with the Directorate-General for Translation in 2009. Amongst the goals of the programme are: to equal educational levels in Europe, to improve the quality of translator training by establishing professional and quality standards for university translation programmes, to provide the market with highly skilled professional translators who would "keep up with the requirements of the knowledge society" (http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/translation/programmes/emt/index_en.htm; 25.07.2014), to encourage higher education institutions training translators to design their curricula in line with the commonly agreed framework. A similar project – the *European Masters in Conference Interpreting* – was initiated by a group of European universities offering master's programmes in conference interpreting (*Cf.* http://www.emcinterpreting.org/; 15.12.2014).

Another European Union initiative is the *European Quality Standard for Translation Service Providers* (TSP) EN 15038 published by the European Committee for Standardization in 2006. The overriding goal of this norm is to enhance the quality of translation services by standardising the process of translation services (*e.g.* determining the obligatory stages: translation, checking and revision). In addition, these norms specify the requirements for formal education and experience of translation service providers (*Cf.* http://qualitystandard.bs.en-15038.com/; 15.12.2014).

What is worth mentioning is the fact that one of the most outstanding features of both documents is that they define the range of professional competences and skills translators and translation service providers should possess or acquire in the course of their formal education in order to provide high quality services. The EMT project describes the competences translators should develop to cater for the needs of the European Union institutions whereas the EN 15038 concentrates more on the translation industry requirements.

According to the minimum requirements established by the Directorate-General for Translation, in respect to their professional skills, members of the permanent translation staff translating for the European Union institutions should possess a full university-level course of at least three years with a degree, have a perfect command of their mother tongues/main languages (the first language), have a thorough knowledge of English, French or German (the second language) and the abilities of translating from it, have a thorough knowledge of a second language (the third language) and the abilities of translating from it, meet the character requirements for the translator's position (*Cf.* http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/translation/workwithus/staff/permanent/index_en.htm; 25.07.2014).

Likewise, there is a set of requirements established by the Directorate General for Interpretation that the European Union interpreters have to meet. Among

them are: an excellent command of interpreters' mother tongue, the command of at least two other European Union languages, bachelor's degree in any subject, postgraduate qualification or significant professional experience in conference interpreting (however, work in court interpreting, community interpreting, *etc.* cannot be considered relevant experience), passion for languages and wide interest in current affairs (*Cf.* http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/scic/become-an-interpreter/want-to-become-interpreter/index_en.htm; 25.07.2014).

　　　To sum up this section, it may be stated that the two above-presented initiatives taken up by the European Union suffice to demonstrate that this international and multilingual organisation can function so effectively thanks to the high quality translation and interpreting services provided by its employees.

4. European Union and translator and interpreter competence

One of the most hotly debated concepts within translation and interpreting studies is the one of translator's competence. The European Union has its own approach to this issue which – in many points – corresponds to those suggested by different translation and interpreting scholars. On the basis of the requirements specified by the European Union institutions, the competence models delineated in the EMT and the EN 15038 norms and the expectations and requirements of the translation clients (*Cf.* Gouadec 2007), it is possible to define a set of competences which a professional translator should possess. These competences can be developed in the course of formal education and/or acquired through professional practice. It is the academic institutions which nowadays bear the greatest responsibility for the education of future translators and by offering formal translation and interpreting training, they respond to the growing demand for professional translators by designing their study curricula in such a way that they equip their future graduates with the required skills and abilities.

　　　Having the above standards and norms in mind, we have made an attempt at constructing our own models of translator competence and interpreter competence, which we had developed on the basis of other models[1], our own professional and teaching experience as certified translators and interpreters as well as translator and interpreter trainers and various recommendations of the European Union referring to the translation/interpretation industry. Subsequently, those two models were used as the frameworks of reference in designing the curriculum for the translation and interpreting module offered as part of undergraduate (B.A.) studies in business English, which we discuss in the further part of this paper. We are of the opinion that albeit similar in very many respects, translation and interpreting are two different linguistic activities involving numerous processes. That is why, we have developed separate models for those two complex activities.

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[1] For other translator competence models see for example: Kelly 2005; PACTE 2011; European Master's in Translation Strategy 2009, and EN-15038 (2006).

Let us start from what we call the "overall translator supercompetence". The model is composed of six competences: (1) *translation service provision competence (procedural competence)* (*i.e.* translating competence, proof-reading, revision and post-editing skills, project management skills, customer and business management skills, the ability to provide services according to the European quality standards and norms with the use of relevant information and communication technologies according to clients' requirements); (2) *thematic competence* (*i.e.* encyclopaedic knowledge and subject knowledge in specific areas); (3) *linguistic and textual competence* (*i.e.* proficiency in source and target languages, text summary skills, translation skills and the knowledge of textual conventions, the ability to apply the knowledge of source text and target text conventions); (4) *cultural competence* (*i.e.* the knowledge of behavioural standards and values, the ability to understand information containing cultural allusions, professional and ethical conduct and acceptance of cultural differences); (5) *technological and information search competence* (*i.e.* general and translation-related information and communication technologies skills: translation memory, terminology management, machine translation, project management, desktop publishing, Internet-based communication and research tools, localisation software, efficient linguistic and specialised information search, retrieval and management skills); (6) *European perspective competence* (*i.e.* awareness of the European Union membership, adherence to the European Union values and traditions, adherence to the European Union standards of practice, the realisation of the role of translations, translators and the entire translation industry in the European Union context).

As far as the interpreter profession is concerned, we have come up with what we call "the European Union-related model of interpreter competence". Again, it has been worked out on the basis of other models of interpreter competence as well as the European Union requirements. Ours includes the following set of competences: (1) *linguistic competence* (*i.e.* proficiency in source and target languages, the familiarity with general and specialised terminology, the knowledge of various registers, the ability to express thoughts clearly and concisely, good prosodic skills, good public speaking skills); (2) *thematic competence* (*i.e.* subject knowledge in specific areas, extensive general knowledge and understanding of current affairs); (3) *socio-cultural competence* (*i.e.* extensive familiarity with both cultures, professional and ethical conduct and acceptance of cultural differences); (4) *information processing competence* (*i.e.* the ability to process and analyse information quickly, note-taking skills); (5) *interpersonal competence* (i.e. tact, diplomacy, flexibility, team-work, the ability to establish good rapport fast); (6) *intrapersonal competence* (*i.e.* the skills of the proper management of affective factors and use of affect-related coping tactics, stress-resistance, control over emotions, the ability to remain impartial, stamina); (7) *European perspective competence* (*i.e.* the awareness of the European Union membership, the adherence to the European Union values and traditions, the adherence to the European Union

standards of practice and quality norms, the realisation of the role of interpreting and interpreters in the European Union context).

As presented above, those two models are quite complex and comprehensive as they encompass a variety of knowledge, skills and subcompetences which are necessary for becoming a successful translator and/or interpreter. Those models were the basis for developing a curriculum for the translation and interpreting module discussed in the next part of this paper.

5. Translators and interpreters within the European transfer of culture, knowledge and technology

Along with the Poland's accession to the European Union, there increased the need for the transfer of culture, knowledge and technology. Polish people became the citizens of a genuinely international and plurilinguistic community and to successfully communicate with other nations and participate in the transfer of culture, knowledge and technology, they needed to establish contacts with other cultures. One of the ways in which this was possible was through the agency of translators and interpreters. However, before we move on to the case studies showing how this is made possible, let us consider the transfer itself.

Transfer of culture may be understood as the transfer of culturemes (*i.e.* cultural behaviours, mental and material products, values, ideals, beliefs *etc.*) to another culture or other cultures and their adaptation to the receiving culture, supplemented with the explanation of these culturemes through exotisation (foreignisation) or domestication (naturalisation). Of course, at this point some may question our understanding of transfer, pointing to the fact that it is not really a transfer but a contribution of the Polish culture to the widely comprehended European culture. From our point of view, although the European Union has certainly created the entity which can be called "modern European culture", we prefer to speak about European cultures as cultures of particular nations and therefore we maintain the use of the term "transfer".

Translators and interpreters play at least several roles in the transfer of culture but we believe that the most important one is that of a facilitator as they introduce foreigners to new culturemes and help them to become familiarised with new culturemes. Thus, they are mediators between cultures and may work as bidirectional carriers of culturemes and culture educators through the services they render and the manner, in which they provide them.

As regards the transfer of knowledge and technology, we view it as the process of transferring skills, knowledge, technologies, methods of manufacturing *etc.* among governments, countries or different institutions, thanks to which technological innovations and the knowledge thereof are communicated to foreign language speakers and/or foreign culture members. Therefore, while talking about the role of translators and interpreters in this transfer, we use the metaphor holding that translators and interpreters are "chiffchaffs of technological development". The use of this figure of speech has its grounds in the activities that trans-

lators and interpreters are involved in during this transfer. They transfer the information about technology/knowledge from one language/culture into another/culture. They are often the first to find out about new inventions/knowledge (in one language) which they then spread further (in another language). Hence, in a sense, they are technology educators (by means of their written or orally generated linguistic output).

Now let us take a look at three cases, in which the role of translators and interpreters in the European transfer of culture is well visible.

5.1. Case study 1: training translators and interpreters for the European transfer of culture, knowledge and technology at the University of Applied Sciences in Nysa, Poland

The first case study pertains to the undergraduate studies in business English offered by the Institute of Modern Languages at the University of Applied Sciences in Nysa. Those studies prepare future specialists in business English, including future translators and interpreters for the needs of Polish and European economies. Within those studies, the emphasis is put on the knowledge of business, law and economics of Poland and the European Union. To provide students with this knowledge, the second-year curriculum includes the European Union-related courses. The translation and interpreting courses are the major elements of the third-year curriculum. Such aspects as culture awareness, culture and technology transfer as well as knowledge management are taught cross-curricularly since they are incorporated into many course syllabi.

The emphasis on the European Union-related aspects, including the competences that each European Union citizen should possess, is visible on the level of the learning outcomes which were implemented as part of the higher education reform whose overriding goal was to adapt all Polish study programmes to the National Qualifications Framework and to guarantee the comparability of the education received in different member states. For example, the knowledge-related learning outcomes which directly refer to different aspects of the European Union are: K_W11[2]: "Student are familiar with the basic differences and similarities between their mother tongue (Polish) and English" (reference to plurilingualism), K_W18: "Students are familiar with the basic issues of economic cooperation in the EU and the economic relations among the member states; students know major EU institutions" (reference to the knowledge of the European Union), K_W24: "Students are familiar with the functioning of the EU; they know EU programmes and funds" (reference to the knowledge of the European Union).

Among the skills-related learning outcomes which directly refer to the European Union policies and activities are: K_U01: "Students use English at the C1 level (of the Common European Framework)" (reference to the European

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[2] Those symbols stand for the learning outcomes related to knowledge (W), skills (U) and competences (K).

Union plurilingualism policy), K_U03: "Students can translate legal, commercial and economic texts" (reference to translation and interpretation in the European Union context), K_U10: "Students correctly use the second foreign language in simple types of language communication; they can communicate in typical social circumstances; they can write simple texts and express their views and opinions in the second foreign language" (reference to the European Union plurilingualism policy), K_U21: "Students analyse economic relations among EU member states; they can enumerate major EU institutions" (reference to the knowledge of the European Union institutions), K_U23: "Students describe the principles of the European Union functioning, enumerate the European Union programmes and finds" (reference to the knowledge of the European Union institutions).

As far as social competences which the students of business English are expected to develop in the course of their studies and which are directly linked to different initiatives and programmes of the European Union are: K_K01: "Students understand the need of lifelong learning, raising their professional and personal qualifications" (reference to the European Union lifelong learning programmes), K_K05: "Students can enrich and perfect their knowledge and skills" (reference to the European Union lifelong learning programmes), K_K06: "Students appreciate the traditions and cultural heritage of humanity, are aware of the responsibility for preserving the cultural heritage of the country, Europe; students participate in cultural life" (reference to the European Union values). As can be seen, the curriculum of undergraduate studies in business English quite strongly emphasises the European Union perspective and therefore this is so well reflected in the learning outcomes.

As regards the translation and interpreting module within the studies in question, the translation and interpreting tasks practised during courses which make up this module are in many cases centred around the topics relevant to the European Union. Thus it can be stated that the students of business English are prepared for the European transfer of culture, knowledge and technology, in particular, for playing the roles of culture mediators, communication facilitators and "chiffchaffs of technological development". During the translation course (having 60 hours of practical translation classes), the students translate (bi-directionally, *i.e.* from Polish into English and *vice versa*) such documents as employment contracts (used in the European Union), curricula vitae and cover letters for the European Union labour market, Poland's accession treaty and selected European Union norms, selected European Union legal, banking and financial documents. The tasks practiced within the interpreting course (having 60 hours of practical interpreting classes) also focus on different aspects of the European Union. For example, the students practice sight translation (sometimes also referred to as sight interpretation) of the European Union-related press articles and the website showing the involvement of the European Union funds. Moreover, they develop their skills of the consecutive interpreting of selected speeches delivered in the institutions of the European Union (thanks to the Speech Repository – a website-based

tool for training interpreting (https://webgate.ec.europa.eu/sr/; 15.12.2014) or the speeches given by Polish authorities on the investments funded by the European Union. The last classes of the course are devoted to the students' first attempts at the simultaneous interpretation of selected fragments of a European Parliament session.

On the whole, from the above overview of the learning outcomes and the programme of the translation and interpreting module, it can be concluded that the students of business English are prepared for their engagement in the European Union issues as they are exposed to them and trained in the translation and interpretation of the European Union documents in their university education. Of course, we do realise that undergraduate studies do not fully develop the students' knowledge, skills and competences for the full participation in the European transfer of culture, knowledge and technology. However, in our opinion, they are a perfect point of departure for further both formal (in the form of graduate and postgraduate studies) and informal education in this respect. We believe that thanks to the emphasis on the European Union and the well-designed programme of the translation and interpreting training, the graduates of business English can engage in this transfer, by assisting in the provision of translation and interpreting services and later on – after their further specialised education – by fully participating in this transfer as translators and interpreters.

5.2. Case study 2: European Master's in Translation (EMT) programmes at Polish universities

Another initiative which we would like to present in our paper is the European Master's in Translation (EMT) programme. This is a project developed by the European Commission in cooperation with tertiary education institutions which train translators. EMT has already become a quality label for university translation programmes which have been designed in compliance with the professional standards and norms and which respond well to the market needs and demands. Those universities which participate in the programme are entitled to use the EMT logo.

The programme has several objectives. First of all, it is aimed at increasing the standards and quality of translator education. Secondly, the programme aims at making highly skilled translators employable in the institutions of the European Union. Next, EMT aims at popularising the translator competence model constructed by the European Union experts for the needs of translation programme curriculum development. In fact, this model has already been used in designing master's studies in translation. Another goal of the initiative is to improve the status of the translation profession in the European Union as well as the perception thereof.

At present, there are two Polish universities participating in this programme which were qualified in 2014. They offer master's programmes in translation which fully meet the requirements and standards of the European Union. These

are Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań (Faculty of Modern Languages and Literatures) and the University of Warsaw (Faculty of Applied Linguistics).

Due to the fact that those master's programmes were developed in close cooperation with the European Union as well as with complete adherence to the standards and norms of the European Union, they certainly train translators for the European transfer of culture, knowledge and technology. A brief look at the contents of those two programmes (including, among others, such courses as legal translation, translation for science and technology, European institutions *etc.*) lets us state that they indeed prepare fully competent, highly skilled translators who can engage in this transfer and – thanks to their work – function as communication facilitators, culture mediators and carriers or "chiffchaffs of technological development".

5.3. Case study 3: Optimale – Erasmus Network for Professional Translator Training at Polish universities

The last initiative which – in our opinion – is related to the translation and interpreting in the context of the European transfer of culture, knowledge and technology in the Optimale project. Optimale – Erasmus Network for Professional Translator Training is an organisation whose overriding objective is to establish the standards of advanced translation education and training and to raise the translation quality control criteria and benchmarks. There are several goals that the network strives to achieve (*Cf.* http://www.translator-training.eu/about-optimale/aims-and-objectives; 12.15.2014). First of all, it aims to construct a map of translator training programmes at different levels, language pairs, specialisations *etc.* as well as to provide opportunities for educational mobility. Secondly, the Optimale project monitors the market needs and the requirements that translation training should meet in order to educate competent translators. In other words, the organisation identifies good practices and applies them to the translation training provided in other institutions. The third goal is to "translate new professional competences into learning outcomes" (*ibid*.). This may undoubtedly help develop better programmes of translator education as by attaining this goal, Optimale wants to find good practices and spread them further to other translator training institutions by means of Optimale resource platform. Finally, the network is also committed to translator trainer training. It therefore pays much attention to the training of translation teachers who are expected to adopt to the changing market conditions, to apply the good practices in their professional practice as well as to develop the "new professionally-oriented fields of research in the field of translation studies" (*ibid*.).

Four Polish universities participate in the project: Jagiellonian University in Cracow (UNESCO Chair for Translation Studies and Intercultural Communication), Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań (Centre for Teaching Translation, Faculty of English), the University of Silesia in Katowice/Sosnowiec (Institute of Slavonic Philology and Institute of English) and the University of Gdańsk (De-

partment of Translation Studies, Institute of English and American Studies) (*Cf.* http://www.translator-training.eu/2013-01-24-16-55-06; 04.01.2015).

To sum up, the Optimale project – albeit not directly – is also committed to increasing the quality and standards of translator training programme which are to educate knowledgeable, skilful translators for the European transfer of culture, knowledge and technology. By such a strong emphasis on translator training and education standards and comparability across different institutions based in different countries, the initiative promotes good practices in translator training and thanks to it, it greatly contributes to the increasing standards of the entire translation industry.

Conclusions

From the discussion we have presented above several interesting conclusions can be drawn. Definitely, the European Union's involvement in language-related matters is significant, which manifests itself in numerous policies and initiatives taken up by different institutions of the European Union to promote language learning or plurilingualism. This can also be observed in relation to translation and interpreting, which have been institutionalised within the European Union in the forms of different bodies. What is more, the European Union is strongly engaged in the transfer of culture, technology and knowledge as well as in the exchange of experience and expertise among its member states as well as among other countries. Poland as a member state obviously participates in this transfer and Polish tertiary education institutions at least – in part – respond to the needs of the European Union as regards language-related issues. Several universities are active members of EMT programme or Optimale programme and thanks to this participation, they are regarded as the institutions providing the translator education of the highest quality. What is observable is that many other Polish institutions educating translators and interpreters are adapting their educational programmes to the European Union and market requirements. What they seem to focus on is the improvement of their education standards and requirements since if they want to educate translators for the European transfer of culture, knowledge and technology, those translators' skills and competences have to correspond to those specified in the European Union norms. It is possible to develop them in the course of a well-planned translator education. The translation programme curricula should also make direct references to the European Union cultural and social values and norms and they should prepare their students for translation and interpreting in and for the European Union institutions as this seems to be one of many translation tasks commissioned to translators in the European Union countries. That is why they should equip their trainees with the knowledge of norms and procedures, terminology, European Union business, law and economics-related issues as well as ITC skills and knowledge management. Moreover, they should emphasise the students' need for personal and professional development according to the LLP (lifelong learning). More and more schools seem to do so.

We believe that our paper has shed some light on the fact that higher education institutions are committed to education for the needs of the European Union, for the transfer of culture, knowledge and technology. The three case studies we have discussed illustrate this approach. They show that modern translation training focuses on teaching knowledge, skills and competences which are relevant to the reality of the labour market. Additionally, they also demonstrate that the concern about translation teaching quality has resulted in the formation of prestigious European organisations whose standards and norms allow translation training institutions to teach translation in a high quality standardised manner. They are also helpful in teaching how to approach the transfer of culture, knowledge and technology and how to participate in it. Finally, we hope that our paper shows another dimension of translation education as the fact that so many different universities want to belong to the European Union networks dedicated to translation training highlights that they voluntarily adapt certain standards in order to educate future translators at the highest level so that they could take part in the transfer. What is more, we also view the transfer of know-how and expertise in translation education as the transfer of culture, knowledge and technology. Thus, it seems that Polish society, one of several societies of the European Union, is already embedded in the transfer of culture, knowledge and technology.

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Note on the authors:

Iwona Sikora, PhD, is Assistant Professor at the Chair of Applied Linguistics in Management at Częstochowa University of Technology and a lecturer of the Section of Business English of the Institute of Modern Languages of the University of Applied Sciences in Nysa. She is a certified translator and interpreter of the English language. Her research

interest include audiovisual translation, translation technology (CAT tools), specialised languages and terminology, theory and methodology for ESP training, translator education and translation technologies training.

e-mail address: iwona.sikora@pwsz.nysa.pl

Marcin Walczyński, PhD, Assistant Professor of the Section of Translation Studies (Department of English Studies, the University of Wrocław), lecturer of the Section of Business English (Institute of Modern Languages, University of Applied Sciences in Nysa), a certified translator and interpreter of English; his scholarly interests include: translation and interpreting, specialised languages, pidgin and creole studies, socio-linguistics and communication sciences.

e-mail address: marcin.walczynski@pwsz.nysa.pl

Part 3.

LANGUAGE

Olha Ivashchyshyn
Ivan Franko National University of Lviv

SECONDARY DERIVATION AS A MEANS OF TERM FORMATION

Abstract: *The paper focuses on grammatical and lexical secondary derivation as well as, caused by them, syntactic and semantic transformations. Syntactic transformations have been studied based on the analysis of compression, abbreviation and formation of multi-component substantive terms. While studying semantic transformations, particular attention has been paid to the creation of new lexical units by means of reterminologization. The research has allowed the determination of changes in the structure of secondary language units, the analysis of the semantic consequences of relating formal operations as well as the finding of ways of practical implementation of the results of this study in teaching English for Specific Purposes.*

Introduction

During recent years of intensive development of science and industry, the study of term formation has been a subject of debate in terminological circles. This, in turn, caused many investigations of linguistic phenomenon known as secondary derivation of terminological units, the significance of which in modern terminology study can be explained by its ability to provide the basis for terminological enrichment in language environment of professional human activity. Moreover, it is not surprising to observe the increasing role of terminological investigations in conditions of the processes of globalization and intensive development of innovative technologies. They challenge the promotion of terminological standardization and the deepening analysis of the basic properties and functions of terms as well as the ways of their formation, particularly such productive ones as grammatical and lexical secondary derivations and, caused by them, syntactic and semantic transformations of the original terminological units.

The paper aims at researching the processes of secondary derivation, analysing syntactic and semantic transformations caused by such types of derivation as compression, abbreviations, formation of multicomponent substantive terminological phrases, and the formation of new terms by means of reterminologization.

This paper will also briefly attempt to answer the questions about the reasons for term formation based on compression, advantages and disadvantages of abbreviations, the relations between syntactic derivation and the system of grammatical structure of language, the mechanisms and main concepts of semantic derivation and, finally, the area and way of practical implementation of

the results of this study. Scientific and technical texts on the problems of technogenic impact on the environment provided the material for the research and the examples of technogenic terminological units will be used to illustrate our observations.

The obvious and undeniable evidences confirm that most terms undergo regular qualitative and quantitative changes within the special language of a certain type of human activity. Our observations have shown that the characteristic feature of many terms is their ability to become the basis for the formation of other terms. This phenomenon is known in terminology theory as the process of secondary terminological derivation.

1. Theoretical Framework

A lot of linguistic researches have been devoted to various aspects of the problem of derivation and numerous publications have appeared on this topic. Among those most representative of this type of concern are: J.E. Benvenyst, V.S. Hrakovskyi, S.D. Katsnelson, Ye.S. Kubryakova, Ye.P. Kurylovych, T. Leitner, H. Marchand, L.N. Murzin, V.M. Nykytevych, Yu.H. Pancrats, Yu. Zavhorodnyev and O. Duda.

We agree with V.S. Hrakovskyi (Hrakovskyi 1969: 28), Ye.S. Kubryakova (Kubryakova 1978: 116) and Yu.H. Pancrats (Pancrats 1982: 65) that it is important to distinguish between grammatical secondary derivation, which results in syntactic changes, and lexical or, in other words, semantic secondary derivation.

We also support the idea expressed by Yu. Zavhorodnyev and O. Duda (Zavhorodnyev & Duda 1999: 201) that semantic derivation is based on narrowing or transferring meaning of the word, which corresponds to T. Leitner's (Leitner 1983: 162) and H. Marchand's (Marchand 1965: 119) points of view that in the process of derivation, the structure and semantics of the original units are changed and these changes may be directed to the use of the term with a new meaning and in a new function or to the formation of a new term by converting an old one or by means of its combination with other terms.

Finally, we find interesting the ideas of Ye. P. Kurylovych (Kurylovich 1962: 25) and V.M. Nykytevych (Nykytevych 1985: 94) that lexical derivation consists in converting the semantics of the original unit, and keep to the definitions of L.N. Murzin (Murzin 1974: 15) and S.D. Katsnelson (Katsnelson 1970: 59) about the syntactic derivation as the process of converting syntactic function of the original unit as well as the formation of different syntactic constructions by means of transforming a certain core construction.

However, the analysis of the works by the above cited linguists has shown that the questions about syntactic and semantic transformations in the course of secondary derivation, the mechanisms of this process as an important way of terminological formation as well as consequences of relating formal operations are still open to discussion and require detailed study.

2. Syntactic Secondary Derivation

It is worth mentioning that the formation of substantive multicomponent terminological phrases with the help of increasing the number of attributive chain components refers to syntactic secondary derivation. As an example, let us consider the dynamics of forming a compound term ***waste water treatment process*** by adding attributes expressed by nouns to the term ***process:***

process → treatment process → water treatment process → waste water treatment process

In this case the change in the shape of the term by the method of syntactic derivation leads to narrowing and specifying its semantic meaning.

We share the point of view that compression and abbreviation are very productive types of syntactic derivation in terminological systems. A constructive idea was expressed by J.E. Benvenyst (Benvenyst 1974: 42) concerning such basic theses of derivation theory as the integration of a lower level unit into a higher level one and a converting character of integration when the meanings or functions of compound units cannot be reduced to the meanings or functions of their components.

Terminological phrase or expression of the more complex structure, part of the sentence or word combination can serve as the basis of compression. One of the means of compression is an attributive chain of prepositive substantive attributes which are used instead of postpositive substantive attributes and contribute to the conciseness of sentences and the entire text. In the process of the formation of terminological phrases by means of transformation from a deep form into a surface one, the number of syntactic positions is reduced while the total information is preserved. Missing components pass into the implication and substantive phrases take the form of condensed transforms of extended constructions with prepositive attributes. For example, the phrase ***non-catalytic steam cracking process*** is created by transformation of the extended phrase ***process of steam cracking without catalytics; sulphur sensitive catalyst*** – by transformation of ***catalyst that is sensitive to sulphur; hydrocyclone sewage purification*** – by transformation of ***purification of sewage with the help of hydrocyclon.***

Abbreviation is a fixed designation of words in the terminological phrase by the first letters of these words and is a typical feature of English scientific and technical language. There are many dictionaries and supplements of terminological abbreviations to dictionaries. For example, in the Anglo-Russian Dictionary "The Comprehensive English-Russian Scientific and Technical Dictionary" the term ***REA*** has a fixed meaning ***rescue by eathing apparatus***, the term ***RCA – raw coal ash,*** the term ***PTC – positive temperature coefficient***, ***IPOS – isolation by porous oxidized silicon, ISA – international standard atmosphere*** (Barinov 1991: 668-686). These terms have certain advantages in comparison with the terms they have been created from. They are convenient in use because their form is brief and concise. However, the disadvantage consists in their being

understandable only for the experts in a particular field and, in many cases, they are characterized by the feature of polysemy which is undesirable for terminological units. They may coincide in form with terminological abbreviations of other branches indicating other concepts. For example, *UT – underway trials* (sulphur production), *universal time* (ecology); *RCP – reinforced concrete pipe* (construction industry), *remote-control panel* (electrical engineering); *IR – information retrieval* (computer science), *insulation resistance* (electrical engineering); *SP – shift pulse* (electrical engineering), *soil pipe* (ecology) (Barinov 1991: 670-694).

The analysis of syntactic derivation has shown that this process consists of the following concurrent processes:

- stabilization of the structure and form of terminological phrases and their adaptation and functioning, thanks to which terminological phrases can exist as independent linguistic units;
- recomprehension of the original terminological phrase, a part of sentence or word combination as a result of compression or abbreviation that promotes the formation of more concise, clearer and easier to use term**s**.

It should be noted that syntactic derivation is connected with fixing lexical composition of newly formed terms; however, the emphasis falls on fixing the syntactic structure of the phrase that corresponds to the system of grammatical relations in the language.

3. Mechanisms of Semantic Secondary Derivation

Semantic secondary derivation, which helps to form a new term deriving its meaning from another term, is a primary objective of this part of our investigation. Let us consider the mechanisms of semantic derivation based on the formation of new lexical units by means of reterminologization, which is a kind of secondary derivation consisting in transition of existing term**s** from one discipline to another with full or partial recomprehension of its meaning. If within one field the term is characterized by a clear unambiguousness, then getting into another field or other fields by means of reterminologization, it becomes multi-meaningful, in other words, acquires properties of polysemy while remaining unambiguous within specific terminological system**s**. Such terms are known as "derivative terms." They are characterized by different and sometimes opposite shades of semantic meaning.

Let us see what happens with the semantics of the original unit in the process of derivative term formation. First of all, it is necessary to differentiate terms according to the areas of use:

- terms used in science and technology (denoting special concepts) as well as common language (denoting general concepts): *universal time, high quality, general quantity, full measure;*

- terms denoting general scientific and technical terms used only in the fields of science and technology in the definitions of specific concepts*: existing system, functional law, real production, optimistic method;*
- terms peculiar to a certain field of science or technology (*desulphurisation process, desulphurisation plant, sulphur mining – sulphur production; regeneration water, atmospheric absorbtion, industrial wastes – ecology*);
- aspect terms allocated on the basis of sectoral division in certain fields according to different levels of generalization – from the largest classes to the smallest subclasses reflecting some aspects of classes. For example, aspect terms *Frash Sulphur*, *elementary Sulphur* are used in Sulphur industry as a branch of the Chemical industry.

It is important to note that the same term can be used in several or even all of the above mentioned areas, which at the level of discourse is due to the influence of contextual factors. At the same time, the term can acquire a new semantic shade under the influence of a new context. Let us observe changing the semantic shade of meaning of the term *high quality* in different contexts based on the following examples:

- Germany is characterized by the *high quality* of people's life.
- The development of any branch of industry needs equipment of *high quality*.
- The usage of *high quality* environment technologies greatly contributes to nature protection.
- *High quality* decontamination is an inalienable element of field protection.

In the first sentence *high quality* is used as an expression of common language. In the second sentence, it functions as a general technical term. In the third sentence *high quality* is used in the context relating to general problems of environment protection, while in the fourth sentence the content of the context narrows to the aspect use of the term limited by the meaning of the term *decontamination* denoting the phenomenon that is an integral part of environment protection and, therefore, the term *high quality* becomes a component of the aspect term *high quality decontamination* within the environmental terminology system.

Let us also analyze functioning and semantics of the term *recovery process* according to the classification carried out above as well as tak**e** into consideration the original word. The term *recovery process* is used as a scientific and technical term as well as a word of common language. This term was formed by specification of the word *process*. The analysis shows the development of **the** specifying element in the process of terminologization of the original word of common language:

- *to cover* – *comprise; contain;*
- *to recover* – *hold again; return to a previous state;*
- *recovery* – *return to the previous state;*
- *recovery proces**s** – the process of returning to a previous state.*

In the course of the development of science and industry, this terminological phrase has penetrated into special languages. As a term, it is used in various fields of human activities where it has specific shade of semantic meaning: in the environment – the process of restoring natural resources, in metallurgy – the process of recovering metals; in the chemical industry – the process of recovering substances. We can observe a common core meaning, namely the return of the substance or phenomenon to the previous state. However, if we consider the fourth level of classification in its aspect use, it is possible to observe not only the partial semantic change while preserving its core meaning, but also a complete loss of the original meaning. The term **sulphur recovery process** in sulphur production means *"the process of removing sulphur"*, i.e. its separation from other substances in sulphuric rock during its mining, and the term **conventional sulphur recovery process** means *"the process of sulphur extraction by primary and secondary methods".* We can observe the loss of connection with the original meaning and the term acquires new aspect meanings which exist in **a** parallel way with the original meaning in the same branch. In this case, we observe the existence of polysemy in the language of the same branch that emerged in the process of semantic derivation. The term **sulphur recovery process** depending on the context can be used with the meanings *"the process of restoring sulphur","* *the process of removing sulphur"* and *"the process of extracting sulphur"* due to three types of production of this chemical substance. This phenomenon is very rare in the terminological system of one branch, while the polysemy of the terminological units outside one branch is a typical feature.

The analysis of the derivation of terminological units has shown that from a semantic point of view the essence of the derivational process based on semantic recomprehension corresponds to a certain semantic extension. Any derivative word is not just the sum of bases or formants. Obviously, a new semantic quality has some metaphoric meaning. For instance, the terminological phrase **sulphur recovery process** was formed as a result of the use of the language unit that corresponds to understanding the recovery process as *"a return to its original state"* in any linguistic context. In other words, we can observe the process of transferring the meaning "restore" to the process that enables the production of the pure substance as a result of its release from impurities by chemical means in the Sulphur industry. The terminological phrase **acid reclaiming process** was formed by transferring the meaning of a common language expression **reclaiming process** to the process of sulphuric acid production with the help of the method of its recovery, and **oil curing process** was formed by transferring the meaning of a common language expression **curing process** to the processes connected with oil processing. Thus, we can assert it is a metaphor that functions in the basis of semantic derivation. It is worth mentioning that the formation of terminological units by changing the meaning of common words based on their metaphoric use is one of the most productive ways of extending terminological systems.

The derivational process completes the formation of the derivative unit. But this does not mean that it is semantically complete. To recognize a terminological unit does not only mean to understand what it denotes. It is necessary to find its place in the language system, refer it to a certain part of speech, and determine the existing language categories for it. Thus, at the stage of derivation a relative crystallization of semantics of the unit takes place since it does not only refer us to the original unit, but also generates numerous paradigmatic and syntagmatic associations through the interaction with other terminological units.

So, to understand the essence of the semantic derivation function, it is necessary, on the one hand, to analyze logical, linguistic and psycholinguistic aspects of phenomena, on the other hand – to analyze the language system in its traditional sense. This will allow the study, more precisely and profoundly, of the semantic changes of the original unit in the process of its "transformation" into a new unit, i.e. semantic derivation in general.

Based on the analysis of semantic derivation, the following conclusions about the changes that occur in the semantics of the derivative term in comparison with the original one can be done:

− a derivative term is characterized by a fewer number of differential characteristics than the original word (*recovery* as the original word has the meanings: ***recovery, rehabilitation, compensation, restitution;*** *recovery* as an aspect derivative term – ***the restoration, removal, extraction***);

− the original word is enriched by new differential features of the derivative term through the formation of new terms (the meanings of ***recovery, rehabilitation, compensation, restitution*** are added by new – ***removal, extraction***);

− The sema of the derivative term is characterized by differential features of wider and generalizing character in comparison with the sema of the original word (terms with the meanings ***sulphur extraction and sulphur removal*** have broader meanings than the term ***sulphur recovery***);

− the original term and derivative term sometimes possess opposite, but at the same time common differential meanings (***sulphur mining*** or ***sulphur extraction*** can be defined as a kind of ***sulphur recovery*** in the context of its release from combination with other elements).

4. Three Concepts of Secondary Derivation

Since the process of secondary derivation is a serial application of formal operations to original units leading to the formation of a new term, it is reasonable to introduce such concepts as the degree of derivation, derivational step and derivational tree confirming the processes of dynamics in terminology formation. By the degree of derivation we understand the extent, size or range of applying changes to form a new language unit based on a certain core concept. It is determined by a semantic proximity or remoteness between the original and the newly formed term. The dimension of the degree of derivation is obtained by

conducting logical analysis of rejection or separation of semantic meanings while comparing the original and new concepts. The derivational step is the confirmation of the dynamics in the process of derivation, its existence and development. It is possible to graphically represent the derivational steps, identify their frequency in certain derivational systems, determine their amount, and analyze the results. The combination of a core notion of derivation with the degree of derivation and derivational step creates a picture of a derivational tree, which promotes logical acquiring terminology (common or derivative, generally used in different sciences and industries or specific, peculiar and typical only to one branch) knowledge.

The investigation of syntactic and semantic derivation of terminological phrases contributed to working out the schema of the derivational tree as a visual evidence of the development of terminological the system. It is important to emphasize that the use of a large number of terminological units is getting beyond a single branch or a single complex of branches united by the same professional orientation. In the process of secondary derivation one and the same term becoming an element of the phrase in various fields of science and technology gets a new shade of semantic meaning somehow different from the original as a result of the impact of specifying elements on the core unit. In other words, the term becomes multimeaningful outside its terminological system. Below, we can observe branching meanings of the same term in different fields.

Figure 1. Derivational Tree of the Term "*Resource(s)*"

Ecology: *environmental resource(s); forest resource(s); water resource(s); mineral resource(s); land resource(s); groundwater resource(s).*

Economics: *economic resource(s); financial resource(s); monetary resource(s); credit resource(s).*

Computer technology*: network resource(s); software resource(s); computational resource(s); hardware resource(s).*

Sulphur Industry*: sulphur resource(s); raw material resource(s); recoverable resource(s); natural resource(s).*

Mining: *fuel resource(s); gas resource(s); oil resource(s); ore resource(s)*

Chemistry: *inorganic resource(s); oxidation resource(s); multimolecular resource(es)*

Conclusions

To sum up, the research of terminological secondary derivation has allowed the observation of syntactic and semantic transformations of original language units. The analysis of syntactic derivation based on compression, abbreviations and formation of multicomponent substantive terminological phrases has shown that it contributes to stabilization of the structure and form as well as recomprehension of the original terminological phrase. Besides that, syntactic derivation promotes the formation of more concise, clearer and easier to use terms. It is important that fixing the lexical composition and syntactic structure of the phrase, syntactic derivation should always correspond to the system of grammatical relations in every language. The study of semantic derivation based on the formation of new terms by means of reterminologization has confirmed the changes in the semantics of the derivative term in comparison with the original one and helped to understand the difference of their characteristic features and meanings.

On the whole, the analysis of the processes of secondary derivation in the English terminological system has given rise to the conclusion about various ways of derivation. Besides, the research has allowed the determination of the ways of parallel syntagmatic development of original language units and mechanisms of their possible transformations, to find the basis for opposing new units to original ones, and sources of derivation to their results. The analysis has also contributed to determining the structure of secondary language units in the system of special sublanguages and exploring the semantic results of relating formal operations. Finally, the applied study of syntactic and semantic transformations, which the term undergoes in the process of secondary derivation, succeeded in working out the schema of the derivational tree. The schema offers educational prospects both in teaching and learning terminology and encourages the promotion of new methodology, particularly in English for Specific Purposes classes, which always includes the elements of professional orientation of knowledge as well as the acquiring of subject-field terminology.

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Note on the author:

Olha Ivashchyshyn, PhD, is docent of the Department of Foreign Languages for the Humanities, and vice-dean of the Faculty of Foreign Languages in Ivan Franko National University of Lviv, Ukraine. Her academic interests include: ESP to Philology students; Terminology study; Discourse and Text analysis; CALL; Academic Writing. She is the author of 103 publications, and a member of EATAW, EWCA, ICLHE, and CEAW. She coordinates Lviv – Klagenfurt and Lviv – Nysa cooperation.

e-mail address: ivasho@gmail.com

Mariusz Kamiński
University of Applied Sciences, Nysa

TREATMENT OF CULTURE-SPECIFIC WORDS IN DICTIONARIES: PROBLEMS OF NON-EQUIVALENCE AND MEANING DESCRIPTION

Abstract: This paper discusses the problem of non-equivalence of culture-specific words and their treatment in dictionaries. Examples of entries taken from bilingual and monolingual dictionaries will be compared and analysed. The treatment of such items in bilingual dictionaries parallels strategies used by professional translators when translating texts, such as borrowing of L1 item, loanword translation, explanatory equivalent. It is argued that dictionaries show gaps in the coverage of culture-specific words; and if they include them, their semantic representation is often incomplete. However, large monolingual dictionaries for native speakers, such as the historical OED or a general-purpose NODE may have a great explanatory value for the user seeking guidance on cultural matters, and may be helpful in generating extended meanings. In spite of a vast array of dictionary types and genres, there is still much do be done to provide the EFL user with an explicit guidance on semantic nuances of many common words that on the surface seem to be universal.

Introduction

Culture-specific words express concepts in the source language that may be unknown in the target language, and consequently may not have corresponding equivalents in the latter language (Al-Kasimi 1983: 159, Baker 1992: 21). The reasons for uniqueness of such concepts vary greatly, and typically include religious, social or political factors. Although we may be tempted to think that the above account holds true for relatively rare lexical units (such as *the White House* or *airing cupboard*), we should be careful not to fall into the trap of misjudging the scale of the problem. Firstly, the problem of non-equivalence is not restricted to only a small group of words which happen to be unique to a given culture. Secondly, there is no strict division of words into culture-specific and universal ones. As it will be shown below, words do not neatly fall into the above categories, nor do they have indisputable direct equivalents across languages. In fact, words can only be said to have partial equivalents, and equivalence between languages is more desired than observed in reality. This paper does not focus exclusively on clear instances of culture-specific words, but it also pays emphasis on non-equivalence of common words.

The non-equivalence problem cannot be avoided in lexicography. Bilingual dictionary makers are aware of this phenomenon, as they struggle with finding a

suitable equivalent. Their task is to pair a source language lexical item (L1) with a target item (L2), with the latter being supposed to fit in a large number of contexts of use. A similar task of finding an appropriate word that carries the same or similar meaning is undertaken in monolingual lexicography, when compilers attempt to define a word by one or more synonyms. However, here the selection process is carried out within the same, source language.

In monolingual dictionaries words are explained typically by means of definitions. Because definitions are written in the same language as the word being defined, lexicographers do not face the cross-linguistic problem of lack of equivalence. However, from an EFL learner's perspective, definitions are more challenging than equivalents in their native language, as they require comprehension of information encoded in the foreign language. As a result, monolingual dictionary use is more complex than a process of identification of an equivalent in a bilingual dictionary.

Definitions are not the only carriers of semantic information. Other possible strategies include use of labels, such as *originally*, *literally*, and pictorial illustrations. An efficient way of explicating meaning consists in the use of illustrative examples, which show how a word is used in the context of other words. We can expect that dictionaries use different means of lexicographic description, but their choice depends on various criteria, including the level of word abstractness. Words that denote concrete things like *book*, *cup*, *mobile* seem to be easier to define than words representing abstract concepts such as *culture* or legal *right*, because the former are physical objects grounded in human experience of sensory perception, while the latter have no representation in the real world. Practical dictionary making shows that it is not easy to explicate the meaning of a word using the same language, nor is it easy to pair two words in different languages. We can only assume that the task of meaning description and translation is even more challenging in the case of culture-specific words.

In this paper we look into selected entries for culture-specific words in order to see how the words were treated in bilingual and monolingual dictionaries. Before we move on to consideration of these practical issues, we first discuss the problem of non-equivalence.

1. The bilingual dictionary and the problem of non-equivalence

A lexicographic convention assumes a certain kind of equivalence between L1 item, which is placed on the left of the dictionary entry, and L2 item, which is placed on the right. According to Zgusta (1971: 312), a fundamental aim of bilingual lexicographers is to "find in the target language such lexical units as are equivalent to the lexical units of the source language, and to coordinate the two sets." This is an ambitious task, though impossible to realise because absolute equivalence requires that the paired units be identical in terms of denotation, connotation, range of application, selectional restrictions, etc. (ibid.). The first criterion is obvious, as only items denoting the same objects or entity can be

candidates for equivalence. The remaining ones, however, narrow the range of potential candidates greatly. As a result, there are very few, if any, units that meet the above criteria. It is even difficult to find such units in the same language. For example, as Zgusta (1971: 42) explains, words *stipend* and *salary* essentially carry the same denotative meaning but differ in the range of application because the former is used in the context of teachers and clergymen, while the latter is used of officials. Thus, it is reasonable to say that "the term equivalence, apart from being imprecise and ill-defined [...] presents an illusion of symmetry between languages which hardly exists beyond the level of vague approximations and which distorts the basic problems of translation" (Snell-Hornby 1988: 22; see also Adamska-Sałaciak 2010: 399).

As Adamska-Sałaciak (2010) maintains, it is not clear on which level a discussion of equivalence should be held: should we posit equivalence at word or sense level? As mentioned earlier, the requirements for absolute equivalence are demanding, and one of the reasons for this state of affairs is lexical polysemy. It is common knowledge that most words do not have one but many meanings. We may be tempted to claim absolute equivalence between L1 and L2 items without considering all the possible meanings of the words. However, in fact, L1 item can be equivalent to L2 item in one sense but not in others. This situation is familiar to many practising lexicographers, who in their struggle to provide a comprehensive treatment of headwords, pair them with several L2 units by assigning each of the latter units a number. By convention, each number represents a lexicographic sense. Thus, lexicographers seem to consciously seek equivalence at word sense level.

However, by narrowing the concept of lexical equivalence to the relation between an L1 word sense and an L2 word sense, we ignore the fact that equivalence can be observed between the whole semantic structures of words which have parallel metaphorical or metonymic sense extensions (cf. Adamska-Sałaciak 2010: 389-390). This phenomenon is known as regular or predictable polysemy. It can be observed both within a language and across languages. As an example, let us take a "container > contents" relationship, which is found in both English and Polish words *can* and *puszka*, respectively:

> *Put the can in the recycling bin. (Container)*
> *Did he eat the whole can? (Contents)[1]*
>
> *Wyrzuć puszkę do kosza. (Container)*
> *Czy zjadł całą puszkę? (Contents)*

In English as well as Polish, the above words can be used in both "Container" and "Contents" meanings, with the latter being a metonymic extension of the former. It is clear that the two meanings are expressed by one and the same word. However, it is still not enough to posit equivalence at word level, as there are other meanings that have been lexicalised in Polish differently from the above

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[1] This example has been quoted in Atkins and Rundell (2008: 139).

meanings. For example, while *can* is a container for oil or petrol, in Polish the equivalent is not *puszka* but *kanister*, and for milk it is *bańka*. Thus, it is more tenable to say that at word sense level the words *can* and *puszka* are only partial equivalents. By now it should be clear that partial equivalence is a widespread phenomenon affecting even words for every-day artefacts.

Absolute equivalence is rare, if non-existent, which means that it is more practical to assume that all words show various degrees of culture-specificity rather than to claim their universal character (cf. Tomaszczyk 1984: 289). As a result, what a lexicographer can at best do is to reach a compromise by finding a word which represents a partial, approximate, non-literal or relative equivalence (cf. Hartmann and James 1998: 51). In what follows we shall analyse in more detail the problem of non-equivalence of culture-specific words in bilingual dictionaries.

2. Treatment of culture-specific words in bilingual dictionaries

As hinted at earlier, the usability of equivalents provided in the bilingual dictionary depends on the function of the dictionary, including such factors as the profile of the intended user. Let us consider the following entry from a hypothetical dictionary for receptive use intended for the English learner of Polish:

> **ożenić się** get married, marry

When the learner is reading a text, the provision of the two partial equivalents "get married, marry" renders the meaning of the source word in a satisfactory way, enabling the user understand the text. This is in spite of the fact that the Polish verb *ożenić się* has a narrower range of application than the English "get married, marry", as the former is used only of a man.

Unfortunately, such treatment is unsatisfactorily for productive purposes of the English learner of Polish, who needs to be aware of selectional restrictions of the Polish word. In such a case, in order to equate the left and the right side of the entry, the entry should be provided with a bracketed gloss "of a man", or the like, as in *PWN-Oxford*:

> **marry** [*man*] ożenić się z (kimś); [*woman*] wyjść, -chodzić za mąż za (kogoś) (PWN-Oxford)

Yet such a gloss is missing in the well-known Stanisławski's *Great English-Polish Dictionary* (*GEPD*):

> **marry** 2. poślubić/ać (sb kogoś); wyjść/chodzić (sb za kogoś); ożenić się (sb z kimś) (*GEPD*)

This shortcoming, however, is justified by the fact that the lexicographer apparently aimed to cater for the needs of the Polish rather than the English user. Thus, for the purposes of comprehension of English texts, the above entry provides the Polish native user with sufficient information. Therefore, it is

important to note that the profile of the intended user is an essential factor determining the content of the dictionary.[2]

Given isomorphism of languages, a number of words require special treatment in a bilingual dictionary in order to equate the left and the right side of the entry. Among the more difficult words are such that, by the virtue of being unique to a given culture, lack a lexical equivalent in the target language. Zgusta (2006: 234) offers three solutions to this problem:

a) The lexicographer may try to create a translational equivalent by borrowing the respective word into the target language, frequently in a phonemically adapted form,

b) He may try to create a translational equivalent by coining a loan-translation, or by coining a new expression in the target language,

c) He may try to find an explanatory equivalent in the target language (with the eventual hope that it may become a translational one, if used frequently in the future).

The above strategies are based on the use of translational and explanatory equivalents. The former equivalents, which are also called "insertable", show the "ability to be used in a fluent, good translation of whole sentences, to be inserted into contexts of the target language", whereas the latter "give more information about the lexical unit of the target language" (Zgusta 1971: 319). In practice, the borderline between the two types of equivalents is not always clear-cut, but the lexicographer should strive after the ideal of an equivalent that has properties of being both insertable and explanatory (Zgusta 2006: 238, Adamska-Sałaciak 2010: 394). Alternatively, the entry should offer a combination of both (ibid.). Both types of equivalents are frequently exploited in bilingual dictionaries available in the Polish market.

Let us consider a selection of entries from three well-known dictionaries (see below) in order to see the strategies used therein. The lexical units from *sejm* to *docent* are bound to Polish culture, while those from *bank-holiday* to *nine-to-five* to English one, with *curfew* being shared by both.

> **sejm** *sm G*. ~u Seym (*GPED*)
> **sejm** *parl*. the Sejm (= lower house of the Polish parliament). (*New KFD*)
> **sejm** Polit. the Sejm, the Seym *(the lower chamber of the Polish parliament)* (*PWN-Oxford*)
>
> **województwo** ... (*urząd*) voivodeship; provincial administration <offices> (*GPED*)
> **województwo** 2. *pot*. (*urząd*) province governor's office (*New KFD*)
> **województwo** voivodeship *spec*. (*PWN-Oxford*)
>
> **matura** (*egzamin maturalny*) examination for the secondary-school certificate (*GPED*)
> **matura** (*egzamin*) high school finals (*in Poland*) (*New KFD*)
> **matura** (*egzamin dojrzałości*) (secondary) school-leaving examination(s) (*PWN-Oxford*)

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[2] In practice it is impossible for a bilingual dictionary to serve the needs of speakers of both languages satisfactorily (cf. Landau 2001: 9).

docent *am*. assistant professor; reader (*GPED*)
docent (*osoba, tytuł*) ~ Reader *GB*, ~ associate professor *US* (*PWN-Oxford*)
docent *univ*. assistant professor; Br. reader. (*New KFD*)

curfew 1. *hist* (*w średniowieczu*) hasło do gaszenia ogni; ... 2. godzina policyjna (*GEPD*)
curfew godzina *f* policyjna (*PWN-Oxford*)
curfew 1. godzina policyjna; ... **2.** *hist.* wieczorne wezwanie do wygaszania ognia (*zw. za pomocą bicia w dzwon*); pora wieczornego spoczynku i gaszenia świateł; ... (*New KFD*)

bank holiday święto zwyczajowe (*GEPD*)
bank holiday 1. *GB* dzień *m* wolny od pracy *(zwykle poniedziałek)* 2. *US* całodzienne zawieszenie *n* operacji bankowych (*PWN-Oxford*)
bank holiday dzień, w którym nie pracują banki; *Br.* święto państwowe. (*New KFD*)

page three girl (no entry) (*GEPD*)
page three girl GB **1.** (pinup) zdjęcie *n* roznegliżowanej dziewczyny **2.** (model) modelka *f* pozująca do roznegliżowanych zdjęć (*PWN-Oxford*)
page three girl (no entry) (*New KFD*)

drug-store *am* drogeria (prowadząca także dział napojów chłodzących, galanterii itd.) (*GEPD*)
drugstore *US* ≈ drogeria *f (gdzie sprzedaje się również leki, napoje chłodzące, kanapki)* (*PWN-Oxford*)
drugstore *US* drogeria (*sprzedająca też leki, napoje i proste posiłki*) (*New KFD*)

nine-to-five (no entry) (*GEPD*)
nine-to-five I [job, routine] biurowy, urzędniczy II [work] ≈ od ósmej do czwartej (*PWN-Oxford*)
nine-to-five od dziewiątej do piątej (*o godzinach pracy*) (*New KFD*)

An example of Zgusta's first strategy of dealing with culture-specific words is the use of borrowed words *Sejm / Seym* and *voivodeship* as translational equivalents for Polish words *Sejm* and *województwo*, respectively (cf. Tomaszczyk 1984: 294) (see below). The Polish words are adapted phonetically and, in the case of *województwo*, also morphologically to suit the target language speakers. By selecting such words, the lexicographer contributes to the process of their borrowing into the potential texts in the target language (ibid.). However, whether and to what degree the loan-words are really accepted and used by translators is another matter.

In turn, in the case of *nine-to-five*, *New KFD* offers a loanword translation, which exemplifies the second strategy of dealing with non-equivalence. The third solution in Zgusta's classification is implemented in *matura* ("school-leaving examination(s)"), *bank holiday* ("dzień, w którym nie pracują banki"), as well as *page three girl* ("modelka pozująca do roznegliżowanych zdjęć"). These entries provide a solution that has great explanatory power, giving the most essential semantic components of the source word (cf. Tomaszczyk 1984: 294).

Comparing the entries for *nine-to-five* in the dictionaries under study, one can see that different dictionaries prefer different lexical equivalents. As

mentioned earlier, *New KFD* uses a loan-translation "od dziewiątej do piątej", while *PWN-Oxford* uses different times to adjust to Polish reality ("od ósmej do czwartej"). On the other hand, all the entries for *drugstore* agree with regard to the choice of the translational equivalent. All the dictionaries above use an equivalent familiar to the Polish user, namely "drogeria", but since this word can hardly be matched satisfactorily with the source one, it is followed by an explanation, for example in *PWN-Oxford*: "gdzie sprzedaje się również leki, napoje chłodzące, kanapki". This explanation bridges the gap between the English and Polish words, and stretches the meaning of "drogeria" to encompass the meaning of the source word.

While there is agreement among the dictionaries on the use of the word *drogeria*, the word *docent* is more problematic because, it is paired either with *assistant professor* or *associate professor*. Apparently these two lexical items are competing with each other, as both denote positions similar to the Polish *docent* with regard to the rank in a university or college. Compared to *PWN-Oxford*, *New KFD* seems to downgrade the Polish rank of docent, placing this position closer to *instructor* than *professor*.

The entries listed above show a range of other lexicographic techniques to deal with cultural differences. Firstly, labels such as *GB*, *Br*, *US*, *in Poland*, indicate geographical restriction on usage. Other types of labels indicate field, e.g. "hist.", "univ."; style, e.g. "pot."; and time, e.g. "w średniowieczu". Some bits of encyclopedic information occasionally appear in brackets, for example "(zwykle poniedziałek)", which clarifies the meaning of the source expression *bank holiday*; and "(*zw. za pomocą bicia w dzwon*)" in the entry for *curfew*. Secondly, the dictionaries, especially PWN-Oxford, use guiding devices that help the user locate the meaning. They are near-synonyms or hyperonyms of the source words, e.g. "(pinup)" and "(model)" in the entry for *page three girl*. As can be seen, lexicographers use a combination of different means to achieve dictionary equivalence.

Of course, the dictionaries under consideration are not uniform in the description of culture-specific words, nor are they consistent in their treatment. Finally, it is worth-noting that the dictionaries, like other reference works, have gaps in vocabulary coverage. This is clearly seen in *GEPD*, which has no entry for *nine-to-five* or *page three girl*, though the lack of the latter unit is more understandable than that of the former, given the fact of its rather recent introduction into the English language.[3] Compared to the other dictionaries, *GEPD* (and *GPED*) uses by far fewer labels. Of all the dictionaries, only *New KFD* records an extended meaning of *curfew*, "pora wieczornego spoczynku i gaszenia świateł", though *GEPD* records a closely related meaning: "hasło do gaszenia ogni".

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[3] *Page three girl* is first recorded in the *OED* in a citation from 1975 in a British newspaper *the Sun*.

To sum up, the treatment of culture-specific words in bilingual dictionaries reflects strategies adopted by professional translators when translating texts. Depending on the type of a lexical unit, dictionaries use different equivalents, just as translators differ with regard to their lexical preferences. However, while translators are interested in finding an equivalent that fits a particular context of use of a word, bilingual dictionaries seem to focus on giving a general equivalent that fits a wide range of contexts.

3. Treatment of culture-specific words in monolingual dictionaries

Monolingual dictionaries avoid the problem of anisomorphism of languages by using the same language to describe as is being described. What is more, the meaning of a lexical item is broken into pieces by means of an analytical phrase, e.g.

> **drugstore** a retail shop where medicines and miscellaneous articles (as candy, magazines, cosmetics) and usually refreshments (as at a soda fountain) are sold (*Merriam-Webster*)

This definition offers more or less the same information as those in the bilingual dictionaries mentioned earlier. Given the fact that culture-specific words have no direct equivalents in the target language, definitions of such words in monolingual dictionaries may be more informative than translational equivalents in bilingual dictionaries. For example, the user of *NODE* is informed that *nine-to-five* is used to "express an idea of routine or predictability", which is not so obvious in *New KFD* ("od dziewiątej do piątej"). Such information is important for a non-native learner, as it can explain semantic overtones associated with the word, and thus may have a potential of generating extended meanings:

> **nine-to-five** ►adjective used in reference to typical office hours, often to express an idea of routine or predictability: *a nine-to-five job* (*NODE*)

Furthermore, etymological information, which is often included in definitions, may also be helpful in understanding a concept:

> **Page Three** *Brit. trademark* a feature which formerly appeared daily on page three of the *Sun* newspaper and included a picture of a topless young woman: [*as modifier*] *Page Three girls*. (*NODE*)

The amount of encyclopedic content in contemporary general-purpose definitions is kept to the minimum compared to what one could find in dictionaries published in the past. For example, the nineteenth-century Ogilvie's *Imperial Dictionary* (1850 and 1882) and Whitney's *Century Dictionary* (1889-1891) aspired to be a record of "all essential knowledge... encompassed within the covers of one work, albeit a large multi-volumed one." (Algeo 1990: 1992-1993). They provided detailed and technical definitions, often accompanied by illustrative pictures. A number of definitions took the shape of short essays very similar to the ones found in encyclopedias. Although the tradition of inclusion of encyclopedic information continued in English lexicography in the following centuries, contemporary

dictionaries no longer assign so much space on encyclopedic information, one of the reasons being the development of the Internet. However, if relevant information is included, it may be of great help in the user's understanding cultural matters.

The description of culture-specific words provided in some native speakers' dictionaries, especially in the older ones, can easily be considered as biased by modern standards. For example, a native speakers' *Chambers* (1898) provides the following definition of *new woman* (Kamiński 2013: 81):

> **new woman** a name humorously applied to such modern women as rebel against the conventional restrictions of their sex, and ape men in their freedom, education, pursuits, amusements, clothing, manners and sometimes morals (*Chambers 1898*)

The problem with this definition is that one of the defining words, i.e. 'ape', carries negative connotations (see the entry for *ape* in *OED*), which may contribute to the creation of a negative image of new woman in the user's mind. The definition was repeated in the subsequent edition, which was published in 1901, only to be deleted in 1952, apparently on the grounds that it was sexist.

In another dictionary, *COD1*, the Fowler brothers invented examples that were supposed to illustrate the use of *good* (!): "... give her a good beating", and of *spectacle*: "a drunken woman is a deplorable spectacle" (Kamińska 2014). Again, these examples can be classified as sexist if judged by modern standards of social-political correctness. Such information, whether in definitions or examples, may reveal opinions on cultural matters held by the editors and probably by other native speakers of English at the time of production of the dictionaries.

Certain dictionaries, like *Chambers*, include humorous definitions. Such definitions carry semantic overtones underlying people's attitudes to cultural facts and beliefs. For example, the definition below gives more information than an ordinary one, and indicates that a ban on smoking in train was not executed efficiently enough:

> **non-smoker** ... a railway compartment in which smoking is supposed to be forbidden (*Chambers* 1952)

In recent decades, a number of monolingual dictionaries have been published to meet the foreign language learner's needs. Modern EFL dictionaries such as *LDOCE* and *OALD* tend to cover a fair amount of proper names typical of English-speaking culture. The entries provide definitions written in limited vocabulary, and illustrative examples showing typical contexts of use. It is important to note that in the entries below, the EFL dictionaries cover meanings created by metonymic extension of their basic meanings. Thus, it is not only the building that is mentioned but also the people working in or inhabiting it.

> **Buckingham Palace** the official home of the British royal family in London. The name of the Palace is sometimes used to mean the officials who are in charge of organizing the Queen's public life. *Buckingham Palace announced today that Her Majesty would be visiting Japan next year.* (*LDOCE* 2005)

the White House the official home in Washington DC of the President of the US **2.** the President of the US and the people who advise him: *claims that the White House had received warnings of a possible terrorist attack before September 11th. White House officials refused to comment on the story.* (*LDOCE* 2005)

The above extended meanings are missing in some native speakers' dictionaries, for example, in *Chambers* (2008), which provides only the basic sense of *White House* and which offers no record of *Buckingham Palace*. Another native speaker's dictionary, *COED* (2011), provides neither of them. Apparently, what is obvious for the native speaker is not known to the FL learner, who needs explicit information on metonymic and metaphorical meanings. Arguably, publishers of EFL dictionaries have realised that cultural information is indispensable in foreign language learning.

The direction of meaning extension in language can be unpredictable to varying degrees. Some meaning extensions have parallels in other cultures, while others do not. As an example, we can take the domain of animals. Many English words for animals are also used to refer to human beings on the assumption that the features normally attributed to animals are also shared by people. English *pig*, *fox,* and *donkey* have similar connotations to Polish *świnia*, *lis*, and *osioł*, respectively. On the other hand, there are animal words whose meaning cannot be inferred from the Polish way of conceptualisation of the world. Such words should be explained in dictionaries, as in the following entries:

dog *informal*, *derogatory* an unattractive woman (*COED*)
cat *informal* a malicious or spiteful woman (*COED*)
pigeon *informal*, *chiefly North American* a gullible person, especially the victim of a confidence trick (*COED*)

Unfortunately, dictionaries rarely explain why these particular features are involved in the semantic picture of a word, leaving it to the user to guess. However, such explicit information would provide the foreign language learner with a useful clue contributing not only to comprehension of the concept but also to vocabulary retention, for example such information is included in the native speakers' *OED*:

cat As a term of contempt for a human being; esp. one who scratches like a cat; a spiteful or backbiting woman (*OED*)

Yet one dictionary deserves special mention in the context of EFL learning. *Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture* (1992) was designed not only as a general-purpose learners' dictionary but also as a source of cultural information. It provides the learner with the so-called "Cultural notes" showing people's beliefs and attitudes towards culture-bound concepts, for example:

cat ... CULTURAL NOTE People think that cats' favourite foods are milk or cream, and fish. Cats are often said to have nine lives, meaning that they often narrowly escape death. In Britain, some people believe that black cats bring good luck, but in the US they are thought to bring bad luck. (*LDELC*)

> **drugstore** ... CULTURE NOTE Drug stores as an institution do not really exist in Britain, and the British idea of them is very much a part of the American way of life as seen in films and TV programmes of the 1950s and 1960s. (*LDELC*)

The cultural note for *drugstore* provides in a clear and explicit way the information on the geographical restrictions of the use of this word. [4] In other dictionaries this information is normally encoded by means of the label *Am*. In *LDELC*, this entry is further illustrated by a picture. Finally, cultural notes provide information about stereotypes, the knowledge of which may be useful not only in learning English people's beliefs and attitudes, but also in understanding English jokes.

Conclusions

Dictionaries vary in the treatment of culture-specific words. Bilingual dictionaries offer solutions that parallel strategies used by professional translators when translating texts. In order to solve the problem of non-equivalence, dictionaries use a range of techniques, including borrowing of L1 item, loanword translation, explanatory equivalent, often accompanied by glosses and labels. Bilingual dictionaries under study tend to focus on the provision of one or more general equivalents that fit a wide range of contexts. Extended meanings are not always in the centre of lexicographers' attention, apparently for lack of space. It should come as no surprise that dictionaries have gaps in the coverage of culture-specific words; and if they include them, their semantic representation is often incomplete. A more detailed treatment of this type of lexis can be found in large monolingual dictionaries for native speakers, such as the historical *OED* or a general-purpose *NODE*. The information provided there can have a great explanatory value and be useful for the user in creating extended meanings. Contemporary lexicography offers dictionaries specially designed for EFL users seeking guidance on culture-bound items. In spite of a vast array of dictionary types and genres, there is still much do be done to provide the EFL user with an explicit guidance on semantic nuances of many common words that on the surface seem to be universal.

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[4] For example, the jokes below are clear only for readers who know that accountants in Britain are "considered to be very boring and dull" (*LDELC*):
"Q: Why did the Accountant cross the road? A: To bore the people on the other side!" (*Jokes.Net Professional Jokes: Accountant Jokes*).
"Q: What happens when you cross a transatlantic aircraft with an accountant? A: A Boring 747." (*Man walks into a joke*)

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GPED Stanisławski, J. (1986). *The Great Polish-English Dictionary* Warszawa: Państwowe Wydawnictwo „Wiedza Powszechna".

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Note on the author:

Mariusz Kamiński, PhD, is a lecturer at the University of Applied Sciences in Nysa, and Assistant Professor in the Department of English at the College of Management "Edukacja", Wrocław. His areas of research include the theory and practice of English lexicography, specialised translation, and corpus linguistics. He is the author of a book, *A History of the Chambers Dictionary*, published by Walter De Gruyter in 2013.

e-mail address: mariusz.kaminski@pwsz.nysa.pl

Nataliya Kashchyshyn
Ivan Franko National University of Lviv

DISCOURSE AND SUBLANGUAGE: A CASE OF DIPLOMATIC
COMMUNICATION

Abstract: *The paper is focused on the study of the peculiarities of the English diplomatic sublanguage. Particular attention is given to its functioning within English diplomatic discourse. This discourse is represented through several text types and registers as well as numerous speech genres. It is suggested that terminology plays a crucial role in discourse formation and discourse differentiation. Terms are the elements that make it possible to connect texts with specific types of discourse or to text types within a discourse, although they themselves may not only belong exclusively to one single sublanguage.*

Introduction

Diplomatic documents constitute one of the most important elements involved in the process of diplomatic interaction and dialogue between nations. Because this is the case, it can clearly be argued that these documents represent a worthy object for a comprehensive linguistic analysis. For the purposes of this study, our attention will be focused particularly on the professional sublanguage and the way in which it functions in the context of diplomatic discourse. Certain issues associated with diplomacy-related language have been studied by researchers (Cohen 1997; Matos 2001; Burhanudeen 2003), but there seems to be a "gap" with respect to the study of the functional aspect of the sublanguage of diplomacy, the nature of terms and their discourse-forming potential.

In this paper, attention is focused on research into the terminological diversity which can be observed in English-language diplomatic discourse and which reflects the concepts and the phenomena which are prevalent within that discourse as a whole.

1. Terminology: sublanguage, discourse

We define a professional sublanguage as a special language which has come to serve the needs of a certain sphere of scientific knowledge. The diplomatic sublanguage, being "a complex system of language units expressing specific concepts" (Ivashchyshyn and Kashchyshyn 2013: 7) and belonging to the theory and practice of the sphere of diplomacy**,** plays a crucial role in diplomatic communication. Diplomatic terms that appear in all spheres of diplomatic communication are an important constituent part of the discourse, possessing

discourse-forming potential. In addition to terminology itself, the diplomatic sublanguage encompasses terminoids, basic vocabulary words, and in some cases nomenclature and professionalisms.

The study of terminology calls for an in-depth investigation of the environment within which diplomatic terms function. We see discourse as a linguocognitive process and result of this process which has linguistic and extra-linguistic constituents, as a special dimension of text, a scope of paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations that limit the potential plurality of the text. English diplomatic discourse is a language product in all its socio-cultural manifestations, constructed in the process of diplomatic activity and functioning in the sphere of diplomacy. It is characterized by the following traits: "prescriptiveness, rituality, intercultural direction, and striving towards harmonization" (Ivashchyshyn and Kashchyshyn 2013: 10).

2. Categorizing diplomatic texts: genres and registers

Diplomatic discourse is the linguistic environment within which terms function. The study of diplomatic discourse gives insights into the pragmatic value of the terminology which is employed in the course of diplomatic communication. The study of discourse is a vast field, taking in many frameworks. One of the frameworks of the discussion of diplomatic discourse and its main discourse-forming unit – the term – is the discussion of such concepts as genre, register, text type in the scope of and following the example of English diplomatic discourse.

Our study of genre literature (Bhatia 2004; Lee 2001; Couture 1986; Selivanova 2006; Swales 1993) has convinced us that the notion of genre is one of the most complex in modern linguistics. As discussed in Bhatia (2004), "genre analysis is the study of situated linguistic behavior in institutionalized academic or professional settings" (Bhatia 2004: 22).

In the context of diplomatic communication and its genres we would like to emphasize the definition of genre given by Selivanova (2006):

> Genre is the unit of speech, a systematically organized representation of language, discourse invariant, a pattern of ideal nature characterized by certain thematic content, compositional structure, selection of phonetic, lexical and idiomatic, grammatical, stylistic means as well as by intentional pragmatic peculiarities(Selivanova 2006: 356).

We differentiate between such genres of diplomatic communication as: memorandum, treaty, verbal note, protocol speech, and telephone conversation – all types of documents are actually genres that form diplomatic discourse. However, there are some types of oral diplomatic "texts", such as found in toasts, and in negotiations, for example, which are not types of documents, but still represent separate genres. Although this resolves the problem of devising a clear differentiation between the genres of diplomatic discourse, another problem arises

– that of making a clear-cut distinction between genre and register, which are interrelated notions.

Most of the scholars who deal with the concepts of genre and register describe the lack of a clear distinction between them. Burhanudeen (2006) mentions that some scholars, such as Lee (2001), Couture (1986), refer to "the confusion that arises from the use of the terms genre, register, style, text type, domain and sublanguage" (Burhanudeen 2006, 38). Agreeing with the others, he suggests this is "due to various linguists and literary theorists working under different traditions or orientations" (Burhanudeen 2006: 38).

According to Swales (1993) who discusses the clarification of register and genre,

> the difficulty seems to derive from the fact that register is a well-established and central concept in linguistics, while genre is a recent appendage found to be necessary as a result of important studies of text structure. Although genre is now seen as valuably fundamental to the realization of goals, and thus acts as a determinant of linguistic choices there has been an understandable unwillingness to demote register to a secondary position (Swales 1993: 42).

Registers represent more generalized stylistic choices in a specific domain. Registers are variants of language. Our understanding of registers is as follows. It may be defined as a complex of language means and language choices, and of their use in typologically similar situations.

Considering the context of international diplomacy, where language choices and the choice of terminology to implement a significant communicative intent are made in order to achieve the goal of promoting cooperation and peace between nations, we propose that the English diplomatic discourse be perceived in terms of two registers: the register denoting parity and the register denoting command. The following correlation exists between genres and registers of the English diplomatic discourse: the register denoting parity can be traced in the following genres of diplomatic communication, such as agreements, conventions, telegrams, modus vivendi, private letters, communiqués, concordats, treaties, instruments, charters, and provisions. The register denoting command is represented by the genres of declarations, memoranda, verbal notes, notifications, notes of protest, and notes of warning. This differentiation was made possible on the basis of an analysis of terminology which demonstrated features of a similar pragmatic direction.

3. The concept of text type

The concept of text type as suggested in the works of Biber (1989) and Lee (2001) facilitated the implementation of a thorough investigation of English diplomatic discourse as the environment within which term function. There is no universally-accepted definition of a text type, since this category cuts across traditional genres. However, what we would like to stress is that the division of English diplomatic discourse in terms of text type based on external linguistic

features and on the differentiation of text-types within a discourse can provide information about the relationship between language and the situational context which is very important for the studies of diplomatic discourse. We consider text type to be a certain type of texts that function in one discourse, have the same pragmatic and communicative aims and demonstrate similarity in the choice of terminology employed to convey certain pragmatic direction.

Basing on the communicative aims of the documents, their formal structure, and the choice of terms employed to convey a certain social relationship and a pragmatic direction we propose a categorization of diplomatic discourse into the following types of texts:

- authoritative (exchange of notes, declaration, memorandum);
- courtesive (telegram, toast, private letter);
- informative (verbal note, government statement, communiqué);
- instructive (verbal note, private letter);
- argumentative (memorandum, diplomatic speech);
- regulative (protocol, memorandum of understanding, modus vivendi);
- contractual (treaty, agreement, charter, convention).

As has been suggested above, terminology plays a crucial role in discourse formation and discourse differentiation. Terms are the elements that make it possible to connect texts with specific types of discourse or to text types within a discourse, although they themselves may not only belong exclusively to one single sublanguage. For this reason, we have chosen to designate terms as being key discourse-forming and discourse-differentiating units.

4. A term as a key discourse-forming unit

4.1. A term: theoretical basics

Diplomatic texts are a reflection of communication between specialists. The language of diplomacy comprises a large number of terms to make itself distinct and transparent both for specialists and non-specialists. A study of discourse would not be complete if it did not include an in-depth analysis of the term as one of the most prominent components in discourse formation.

To a certain extent, diplomats are obliged to be linguists. They should carefully use the terminology, making clear the problems they raise. It is of extreme importance in modern diplomacy and international relations, as any cases of ambiguity may lead to quite unpredictable consequences. Terms are vital for diplomatic communication, as they provide its very essence, and they make it more standard, unambiguous and transparent. The definitions of a term are numerous, but we would like to point out the following basic assumptions.

Sager (1998) suggests that terms

> differ from words in that they are endowed with a special form of reference, namely that they refer to discrete conceptual entities, properties, activities or relations which constitute the knowledge space of a particular subject field (Sager 1998: 261).

As Galperin (1981) points out,

one of the essential characteristics of a term is its highly conventional character as well as its direct relevance to the system or set of terms used in a particular science, discipline or art A term is directly connected with the concept it denotes. A term, unlike some other type of word, directs the mind to the essential quality of the thing, phenomenon or action as seen by the specialist of a certain sphere in the light of his own conceptualization (Galperin 1981: 76).

Without trying to offer any new definitions of terms we would like to underline that diplomatic terms are the units of diplomatic terminology that describe and form the concepts of diplomacy and display them in the language.

4.2. The concept of a terminological system: types of terms functioning in the English diplomatic discourse

Every terminology is a system and every term is a part of a system. This inherent capacity to be a part of a system is extremely important with respect to a term. As was discussed in our previous research,

a terminological system is an aggregation of terms which are both specifically connected and interdependent. It is a complex ensemble of language units which express specific concepts and which are associated with the theory and practice of a specific branch of knowledge (Kashchyshyn 2013: 117).

Terminology is a core part of a sublanguage. As we have already mentioned,

diplomatic terminology is an essential element of diplomatic discourse and expresses its inherent concepts, setting it apart from discourses with other cognitive and communicative objectives. The system of terms and the system of basic vocabulary words form the sublanguage of a certain branch of scientific knowledge (Kashchyshyn 2013: 117).

As the continuation of our previous research (Kashchyshyn 2013) we suggest that any sublanguage may be represented by three basic groups of terms:

- intra-branch, i.e. special terms of a certain sphere (*convention, constitutional procedures, ratification, attache, dispatches, envoy, diplomatize, diplomatic asylum, assembly resolutions*);
- extra-branch, i.e. special terms of other spheres, present in the given sublanguage (*fiscal, inflation, stock market collapse, insolvency, statesman, infrastructure, dictatorship*);
- inter-branch, or general scientific terms which are found in all sublanguages (*fundamental, improvement, influence, participation, shortcomings, responsibility, scandal, overconsumption*).

This division holds true for diplomatic sublanguage as well. At the core of diplomatic sublanguage lies the stratum of proper diplomatic or intra-branch terms (*accreditation, resolution, diplomatic corps, legation, signatory power*s, etc). Intra-branch terminology includes a large number of non-assimilated Latin

(*modus vivendi, ne varietur, ad hoc, in jure, casus belli,* etc.) and French (*force majeure, acte final, laisser-passer, P.R. – Pour remercier, P.P.C. – Pour prendre congé,* etc) borrowings.

The sublanguage of diplomacy develops and functions in numerous inter-state documents and documents of international organizations as well as in oral genres of diplomatic communication, such as telephone talks, oral negotiations and discussions, and diplomatic speeches. In this respect it is necessary to stress that diplomacy involves not only social, political or economic issues but also matters relating to ecology, culture, sport, and education. Thus it would not be a mistake to say that the sublanguage of diplomacy encompasses the terminology of many branches of scientific knowledge. On the other hand, diplomatic terms can occur in other discourses, such as that of mass-media, political, and juridical discourses. It is very often a problem to set the limits of the various discrete discourses and to define clearly to which sublanguage a term belongs. This is the case of extra-branch terminology, which in English diplomatic discourse is frequently represented by:

- social and political terms: *parliament, public interest, riot, to cast a vote, welfare system, terrorism threat, democrat, community, health and sanitation challenges, security issues, poverty, ideology;*
- economic terms: *affordability measures, budget, capital flows, cargo, commercial, embargo, core business, credit crunch, default, financial crisis, exorbitant price, money laundering, financial supervision, investment, taxation*;
- ecological terms: *ecological footprint, environmental, fall-out, renewable energy, green technologies, recycling, climate change, carbon reduction*;
- legal terms: *advice and consent, aid and abet, to arrest, impartial evidence, to file a lawsuit, legitimacy, impartial evidence, to subpoena to court, liability, fraud, sanction, forum, legal, prosecution, arbitration;*
- military terms: *counterattack, hinterland, hotbed of war, missile defense, prisoner of war, weapon, arms proliferation, regular army, to unarm, nuclear threat, warfare, martial, battlefield, belligerency, to weaponize.*

There are some terms that are no longer confined to just one terminological system (such as *"NATO", "embargo", "nuclear threshold", "status quo", "piracy"*). As we have mentioned, "terms such as these could equally be associated with the sublanguages of the military, of diplomacy or of sociopolitics" (Kashchyshyn 2013: 117). It should be also pointed out that juridical and economic terms have always played a special role in the formation of the diplomatic sublanguage; moreover, they were usually the source from which its elements were drawn, "since the very first issues of international life were those involving trade and law" (Kashchyshyn 2013: 117). In diplomatic discourse these terms acquire new meanings and are transformed to satisfy the needs of diplomacy.

The stratum of inter-branch terms also possesses sufficient terminological loading and discourse-forming potential. This stratum is used in all spheres of science, and scientific rendering is impossible without them be it any sublanguage possible. Inter-branch terms are the basis of any terminology.

Among the most widely used inter-branch terms in the English diplomatic discourse are the following: *access, norm, system, address, change, champion, decline, debt, head, honour, matter, rivalry, member, delay*. General inter-branch terms can acquire narrow specific meanings of diplomatic character when used in a phrase with proper diplomatic terms: *diplomatic action, diplomatic activity, diplomatic agent, diplomatic archives, diplomatic asylum, diplomatic conduct, diplomatic efforts, diplomatic immunity, diplomatic withdrawal*. It is of special interest to note that inter-branch terms in the process of forming a phrase acquire special diplomatic meaning: *constructive + dialogue* (inter-branch terms) = *constructive dialogue* (proper diplomatic term); *agreement + international* (inter-branch terms) = *international agreement* (proper diplomatic term); *partner + equal* (inter-branch terms) = *equal partners* (proper diplomatic term).

By the same token, we may observe the contrary phenomenon when special diplomatic terms undergo the process of 'determinologisation' – the transition to the stratum of inter-branch terms. Diplomatic terms become widely known and begin to function in other discourses, besides the diplomatic area. This happens mainly due to the mass media and the general interest of the public in international affairs. Examples of such terms are the following: *vis-à-vis, ambassador, force majeure, diplomatic, status quo, minister, memorandum, negotiation, polarization, quorum, superpower, stabilization,* etc.

Having carefully scrutinized the types of terminology present in the sublanguage of diplomacy, we have reached another conclusion concerning the essence of diplomatic terms. The terminology of diplomatic discourse is very specific in the sense that its elements are in continuous movement and interrelation– they are constantly undergoing a process of transition from one stratum to another. Being an aggregation of terms which are not rarely taken from other sublanguages, the terminological system of diplomacy is an essential element of the English diplomatic discourse which has come to express diplomatic realia. Another stratum of diplomatic sublanguage is that represented by terminoids–basic vocabulary words which in the process of functioning in the English diplomatic discourse acquire special diplomatic meanings. In other words, they undergo a process of terminologization and obtain the potential to become a part of special diplomatic terminology. Thus we define terminoids as lexical units that take an active part in the formation of a sublanguage but do not yet possess the necessary features of proper terminology. The most vivid examples of terminoids functioning in the English diplomatic discourse are: *approach, argument, brink, gap, goodwill, integrity, capacity, assertion, ambiguity,* etc. They are involved in the formation of terminological phrases which are widely used in diplomatic discourse: *unbiased approach, deep argument, brink of collapse*.

As Soloshenko suggests,

> Basic vocabulary words are the central group within the overall vocabulary, its historical foundation and living core. That is why words of this stratum show a considerably greater stability than words of other strata. Basic vocabulary words can be recognized by their stylistic neutrality and lack of other connotations. Their meanings are broad, general and convey the notion directly, without supplying any additional information (Soloshenko and Zavhorodniev 1998: 22).

This group of lexis does not belong to terminology; however, they take active part in the formation of terminological expressions of diplomatic character.

None of the strata of lexis described above (intrabranch, extrabranch, interbranch, basic vocabulary words and terminoids) exist independently; on the contrary, they are closely interrelated. As a consequence, the problem arises of creating a differentiation of basic vocabulary words (terminoids), terms and interbranch terminology, as each of these groups of lexicon is represented in a sublanguage. We would like to mention two facts concerning this problem. First of all, the most debatable and controversial element in contemporary research is the question of delimitation of terms and basic vocabulary words.

As linguists suggest, the main objective difference between those two types of words is basically beyond the purview of linguistics. A word of a non-special lexicon corresponds to a generally-known object, a word connected with some special vocabulary, or a term which corresponds to some specific object which is known to a restricted group of specialists.

A second important fact concerning basic vocabulary words is that words of this stratum functioning in diplomatic discourse undergo a process of terminologization, in that they acquire most of the features terms possess and obtain the ability to form discourse, and potentially to be used in discourse formation.

Conclusions

The analysis of the linguistic features of the English diplomatic discourse, its language diversity and terminological loading, the research of the semantics and specificities of the functioning of terms in the English diplomatic discourse has confirmed special role of terms in facilitating diplomatic communication. The sublanguage of diplomacy, with terminology at its core, may often be called an aggregation of terms from other sublanguages which in the process of being used in the sphere of diplomacy become transformed into what may be called diplomatic terminology. Thus the concept of diplomatic terminology being an integral part of diplomatic discourse directs attention to new perspectives for research due to its "collected" nature and its ability to make use of the terminology of other sublanguages.

Thus, English diplomatic discourse which is the environment within which these terms function is itself also a language product in all its socio-cultural manifestations, constructed in the process of diplomatic activity. This discourse is viewed as a special type of communication verbalized through several text types

and numerous speech genres. It is substantiated that terms play special role in the formation of diplomatic discourse.

The language of diplomacy comprises mutual elements. Legal, economic, military and terms of other sublanguages used in diplomatic texts constitute the stratum of extra-branch terminology functioning in diplomatic sphere. Its usage in diplomatic discourse is dictated by a correlation between economics, jurisprudence, diplomacy and other spheres of life, as well as their close logical connection.

This research assisted us in the study of the possibilities of the English language for perfecting its terminological apparatus, and to define the role of terms among other linguistic units in the sublanguage of diplomacy, as well as to perform an analysis of terms using the example of diplomatic terms, in regard to their structural, semantic and functional peculiarities. An attempt was made to clarify some theoretical notions such discourse and terms, which were dealt with during the process of investigation.

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Note on the author:

Nataliya Kashchyshyn, PhD, is a lecturer in the Department of Foreign Languages of the Faculty of International Realations, Ivan Franko National University of Lviv, Lviv, Ukraine. Her academic interests include discourse typology, diplomatic discourse, terminology and sublanguage, translation studies, interpreting.

Anna Kuzio
University of Zielona Góra

THE PERSUASIVE ROLE OF COMPLIMENTS: A CONTRASTIVE
ANALYSIS OF COMPLIMENTS AND RESPONSES IN ENGLISH,
POLISH AND RUSSIAN

Abstract: *A compliment is defined as a collaborative speech act exploited as a "social lubricant" to reinforce community and solidarity between interlocutors (Wolfson, 1983: 89). In Brown and Levinson's terms, it is frequently employed to strengthen an interlocutor's positive face and thus impose solidarity by stimulating face wants. A compliment can be used as both a speech act alone as well as a part of many others, and is generally considered a positive politeness strategy. The data presented below derive from a contrastive study of compliments and responses to them involving individuals representing Anglo, Polish, and Russian cultures. Compliments are usually considered speech acts addressing other's positive face, yet they can be face-threatening. To find out if there were differences and similarities in paying compliments, the author prepared two different questionnaires. The first questionnaire asked the subjects to role-play, that is, to pay compliments in various situations, and responses to it were obtained from 50 speakers of American English and 51 speakers of Polish. The other questionnaire asked who the respondents paid compliments to, what they complimented on, and why. The respondents were to represent British, Polish, and Russian cultures.*

Introduction

Lustig and Koester (1996: 29) define communication as "a symbolic process in which people create shared meanings". A symbol in this definition refers to a word, action or object that represents a meaning. Meaning is often a personal experience which cannot be shared with others as such, but needs to be conveyed and interpreted (negotiated) through a message. Messages, in turn, are sets of symbols, and receivers interpret and understand them according to expectations based on their experience.

It follows from the above that people identify reality and form expectations with respect to it by linking ongoing events with pre-existing stable patterns of behavior. Hofstede (1984: 51) defines culture as "the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the member of one group or category of people from another". These mental programmes refer to the approved ways of performing actions, and vary in relation to the level of uniqueness.

The matter is that speakers are also constrained by the structure of their native language: in "constructing utterances in discourse one fits one's thoughts into

available linguistic frames" (Slobin 1996: 76). Thus, it may be the case that even when interlocutors coming from different language communities want to invoke the same or similar cultural scripts, they use different structural devices, so when they communicate, the one who is not a native speaker is likely to subconsciously resort to the patterns habitually used in his or her native language community.

Politeness has often been associated with indirectness and directness with impoliteness (cf. Brown and Levinson 1987, and subsequent research based on their theory). In fact, native speakers of English have often interpreted some direct speech acts produced by non-native speakers of English as impolite (cf. Ronowicz 1995).

On the other hand, as Culpeper et al. (2003: 1549) wrote, impolite utterances should not always be associated with the bald on record strategy. They draw attention to the fact that indirectness can increase impoliteness and cite Leech's (1983: 171) observation that "You have something to declare" as an impolite belief, and more indirect kinds of questions [e.g. "Haven't you something to declare?"] are progressively more impolite, more threatening, than the ordinary yes-no question.

The data presented below derive from a contrastive study of compliments and responses to them involving individuals representing Anglo, Polish, and Russian cultures. Compliments are usually considered speech acts addressing other's positive face, yet they can be face-threatening.

To find out if there were differences and similarities in paying compliments, the author prepared two different questionnaires. The first questionnaire asked the subjects to role-play, that is, to pay compliments in various situations, and responses to it were obtained from 50 speakers of American English and 51 speakers of Polish. The other questionnaire asked who the respondents paid compliments to, what they complimented on, and why. The respondents were to represent British, Polish, and Russian cultures.

1. Compliment behaviour in language

A compliment is defined as a collaborative speech act exploited as a "social lubricant" to reinforce community and solidarity between interlocutors. (Wolfson, 1983: 89) In Brown and Levinson's terms, it is frequently employed to strengthen an interlocutor's positive face and thus impose solidarity by stimulating face wants. A compliment can be used as both a speech act alone as well as part of many others, and is generally considered a positive politeness strategy. For example a compliment may be included in the speech act of thanking, or greeting, as in (1) and (2) respectively (Ishihara 2010: 180):

  1) Thank you, you are too kind.
  2) Hello, you are looking sharp today!

In addition, a compliment can also be applied to soften an FTA (face-threatening act) made on H's (hearer's) negative face by veiling a request (3) or to make indirect criticism (4)

3) That is a nice sandwich.
4) You are usually so good at this.

S (speaker) in 3 uses a compliment to initiate an FTA on H's negative face by violating the Gricean maxim of manner and being ambiguous by requesting H's sandwich through expressing admiration to it (Brown & Levinson 1987: 66). In 4 S once again violates the manner maxim, this time by being vague (Brown & Levinson 1987: 226). By doing so, the compliment veils criticism of a mistake H made in a softer manner than directly threatening it by pointing out H's mistake. By doing so, S avoided redressive actio, and as an alternative opted for a politeness strategy (Ishihara 2010: 180).

Manes & Wolfson (1986) claimed that the production of compliments is heavily formulaic. Their study showed that compliments are highly formulaic both syntactically and semantically. Semantically they found that a compliment attributes its positive value to the adjective in about 90% of the reported cases. The most common adjectives were "nice" and "good" followed by "beautiful", "pretty" and "great".

Herbert (1990) performed a study on gender-based differences in compliment behaviour and found that there are clear differences with regards to the gender of who produces the compliment and to whom it is directed. Female complimenters are frequently more personal in their compliments than male complimenters, often comprising the first person pronoun ("I think you look great in blue"). The actual numbers of compliments offered to either gender and from either gender are relatively similar though women are much more frequent at complimenting each other than men are (Herbert 1986).

2. Compliment response behaviour

The speech act "compliment" cannot be created without its inseparable adjacency pair –"compliment response". In Pomerantz's words, the two form an "action chain event". The action chain event is a synchronised event where performing action 1 allows your interlocutor to perform action 2 which is a suitable response. Action 2 as a response to a compliment may be any number of dissimilar fulfilments of the speech act such as acceptance, rejection, redirection or even responding to an apparent request, but it is expected that the action chain event is unbroken and the compliment is responded to (Pomerantz 1978: 82).

Pomerantz (1978) found that most speakers base their compliment responses on two maxims when responding to compliments:

> Maxim 1: Be supportive: Agree with S about the content of the compliment.
> Maxim 2: Be modest: Avoid self-praise, do not increase the value of the compliment.

A study performed in Herbert (1986), however, built on Pomerantz's research and noticed that almost all compliment responses fall into the following three response categories, with its appropriate subcategories, namely: agreement, non-agreement and other interpretations.

Brown & Levinson (1987: 67) recognised the effects of responding to a compliment as part of their face theory. They noticed that by complimenting S in a conversation, H attends to S's positive face wants. Yet, the compliment will force a reaction from S which will invariably damage S's positive face.

In Roger Herbert's study on sex-based differences in compliment responses, there were differences on how various genders replied to a compliment. Compliments presented by a male S, were much more probable to be accepted and responded to by an appreciation token than any compliment offered by a female S, whose compliments are much more likely to be met by a commented history or an abrupt disagreement (Herbert 1986: 213). The same study also exhibited tendencies that the compliment with intent to show goodwill between interlocutors, the so-called social lubricants, are much more likely to get accepted than if the function of the compliment is to praise someone's abilities (Herbert 1986: 222). Further research on the field of gender specific linguistic behaviour was made in Holmes (1986: 2-6) and she recognised that women have a higher need to nurture personal relationship than men who are more status-oriented.

3. Compliment strategies in English, Polish and Russian

Compliments in English have been studied by quite a few researchers (Pomerantz 1978; Wierzbicka 1991; Wolfson 1986; Holmes 1986; Herbert 1986; Serebriakova 2001; and Spencer-Oatey 2003).

Compliments were categorised as referring to:
1) Appearance
2) Attire
3) Achievement
4) Character
5) Possessions

The responses to compliments were categorized into:
1) Acceptance without thanking
2) Just thanking
3) Thanking and adding something else
4) Ignoring the compliment and responding to an accompanying act (e.g. an inquiry)
5) Disagreeing
6) Shifting credit to someone else
7) Downgrading

A number of authors (cf. Pomerantz 1978; Wolfson 2001), are of the opinion that compliments for Americans are part of small talk, and responses to them are formulaic while Kuzio (2014) points out that the English find it difficult to accept compliments. Serebriakova (2001) also found that Russians and, to a lesser ex-

tent, the English tended to downgrade what was complimented upon or reject a compliment (cf. Dorodnych 1995). As scores in section "A – Friend to Friend" show, males do not often downgrade nor do females, the latter tend more to shift credit to a third person.

4. Polish vs. English – responses to the first questionnaire

To show how the representatives of Polish culture are sometimes misinterpreted by their Anglo interlocutors, and the other way round, we will quote Mike Reynolds' description of one such experience: He was travelling together with a new Polish acquaintance who spoke, as he said, excellent English. There was a long pause in their conversation and he said looking through the window "How many trees are there in Poland?" Her reaction was "I wonder who would want to know that". At first he felt he had been put down, on second thought, he realised however that she had missed the cue that he had been engaged in phatic communication (Reynolds 1995). Misunderstandings like this lead to the emergence of stereotypes like those aptly summed up in Edward Ronowicz's (1995) title "Aussies are friendly and Poles aren't rude".

One typical feature of Polish communicative behaviour is believed to be directness (cf. Ronowicz 1995). Complimenting seems to be no exception:

(1) Ależ ty dzisiaj elegancka
"You look so smart today"

For the Polish, indirectness appears to be a rare phenomenon while paying compliments. On the other hand, they often resort to supportive moves. A supportive move appears to be an element that serves to intensify the force of a given compliment:

(2) Masz wspaniałą figurę, powinnaś być modelką
"Your figure is great, you should become a model"

The following compliment may be perceived as a prelude to an inquiry:

(3) Ty to masz zawsze ładna fryzurę ... jak ty to robisz?
"Your haircut always looks great. How do you do that?"
- A, używam specjalnego szamponu.
"Oh, I use some special shampoo."

(4) - Ale masz fajny zegarek. Gdzie go kupiłeś?
"What a nice watch. Where did you buy it?"
- No, niezły. Dostałem od ojca
"Yes, not bad. Got it from my father"

The data suggest that, whereas the complimenting utterances of Americans are mostly straightforward and use few supportive moves, Polish speakers employ such moves much more often so that many of their complimenting sequences have a tendency to be longer, as can be seen in the following examples:

(5) Świetny szalik, pasuje do twoich butów i makijażu, podoba mi się takie zestawienie. sama wybierałaś, czy inspirowałaś się jakimiś gazetami?
"Great scarf. It goes well with your make-up and shoes. I like this combination. Did you select it yourself or have you been inspired by fashion magazines?"

(6) Podoba mi się sposób twojego myślenia, zawsze szukasz pozytywnych rzeczy w najbardziej beznadziejnych sytuacjach.
"I like your way of reasoning. You always see something positive even in hopeless situations."

Native Polish speakers' use of supportive moves has to do with a socio-cultural convention that embraces a communicative style valuing mutual face work very highly. That is "small talk" or supportive moves which can help both the speaker and addressee observe each other's mood as well as attitude, thereby fine-tuning the face, distance and relationship between them and generating a harmonious atmosphere to conduct interpersonal transactions. With this kind of interactive adjustment, a balance of face between interlocutors can be achieved (cf. Scollon & Wong-Scollon 1991: 116).

5. Compliment frequency and function

The finding that native speakers of Polish appear to pay compliments considerably less often than Americans seems to imply that Americans consider complimenting part of small talk. Compliments have also been found to occur in a much wider variety of speech situations in American culture than in other cultures (Wolfson 2001). For example, it is common for Americans to compliment a stranger to show their friendliness, but if a Polish speaker did so in a Polish context, this could cause some embarrassment for the addressee, as observed in the following compliment exchanges:

(7) - Ale ty jesteś silny!
"How strong you are!"
- (zawstydzony) Dziękuję
"Thank you. (feels awkward)."

As the exchange shows, compliments sometimes function as conversation openers for the speaker to try to create some rapport with the addressee. Generally, American English speakers would not find such situations particularly strange or troubling. It is not so for the speakers of Polish. In fact, it is often the case that the act of complimenting a stranger would be considered an imposition.

A further analysis of how the manner of cross-cultural behaviour is varied reveals that the primary factor behind the cultural norm is face, which is related to whether or not a speaker's behaviour can be regarded as appropriate or polite. In Polish culture, the speaker is usually expected to make use of compliments as assertions of admiration. The failure to live up to this cultural expectation may imply that the speaker does not take the addressee's face into account, thereby damaging his or her own face.

It is not that Americans employ compliments just to negotiate solidarity whereas the Polish praise only when they want to show genuine admiration. There are, in fact, many commonalities in the compliment function between the two cultures. As the data show, Poles also make use of compliments to negotiate solidarity while Americans pay compliments when they want to show real admiration.

6. Compliment topics

As the data show, most compliments concentrate on only a few topics. For example, it is found that compliments in American English mostly fall into two main categories: (a) appearance and/or possessions; and (b) ability and/or performance (cf. Knapp 1984; Manes 1983; Wolfson 2001). Studies of other varieties of English (cf. Herbert 1989; Holmes 1989) and other languages (cf. Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk 1989) also indicate that these topics were the most frequent ones.

What is more, whereas there were fewer Polish speakers who complimented on "ability and/or performance" and other topics, there were more who complimented on "appearance and/or possessions". Typical compliments on appearance and/or possessions in Polish are shown in the following examples:

(8) Fajnie ścięłaś włosy.
"Great haircut"

(9) Ładnie dziś wyglądasz.
"You look great today".

(10) Świetna spódnica!
"Great skirt!"

Typical compliments on ability and/or performance in Polish are shown in the following examples:

(11) Świetnie wykonane zadanie, trzymaj tak dalej.
"Well done, keep going!"

(12) Pani potrafi świetnie poradzić sobie z każdą trudną sytuacją.
 "You can cope with any difficult situation."

As we can see, these kinds of compliments may read as praise.

The majority of compliments on "other topics" concern the personality/whole person, as illustrated in the following examples:

(13) Niesamowita z ciebie dziewczyna.
"You're a great girl."

(14) Ależ to, co pani robi, jest niesamowite!
"What you are doing is out of this world!"

Our data may suggest that the Polish tendency to compliment more on "ability and/or performance" is due to the desire to emphasise the virtues and qualities of individuals as having greater social value than good looks or posses-

sions. In contrast, it appears that the major function of compliments for American English speakers is to create solidarity between the speaker and the addressee.

Their inclination to compliment on appearance and/or possessions (cf. Holmes 1986, Knapp 1984) has to do with the fact that originality is very highly valued in American society. Thus, offering a compliment is appropriate whenever an acquaintance is seen with something new (Wolfson 2001). This is the type of praise most often heard and it is generally employed as an expression of solidarity (Holmes 1986).

7. Addresser-addressee relationship and compliments

It has been stated that the relationship between addresser and addressee is a vital factor affecting compliment behaviour because "who" and "whom" elements often constitute the most important components of any sociolinguistic or speech act study (Wolfson 1989). This relationship reveals two important parameters in pragmatics research, namely, social status and distance. A speaker's social status is an essential variable in language use. This applies to compliments without exception, for it seems apparent that people of different social status show a discrepancy in their strategies, topics and frequency of complimenting. Taking into account Polish and English speakers, one can notice that the great majority of compliments occur in interactions among people of equal status. This finding seems to be consistent with Holmes' (1986) study on New Zealand English and Wolfson's (1986) study on American English.

In the Polish tradition it is apparent that lower status individuals are discouraged from taking the initiative in talking to higher-status persons unless some legitimate reasons exist. If the lower status individual should violate this implicit social convention, this may offend the higher status person or be considered shameless flattery by their peers. Conversely, in American culture, relative power is not significant and asymmetric power relations in conversational interaction are often not recognisd. Hence, taking the initiative of paying a compliment to a person of higher status will usually not incur offence.
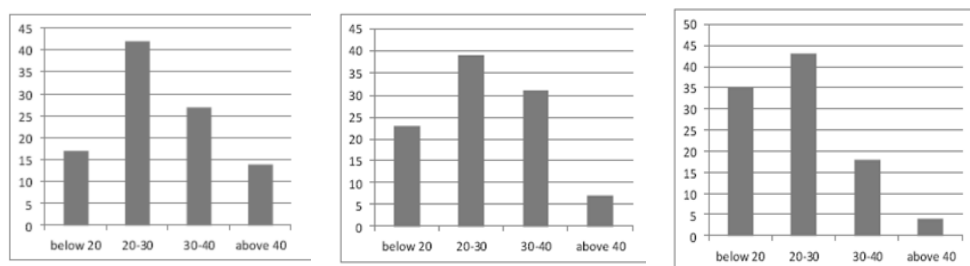
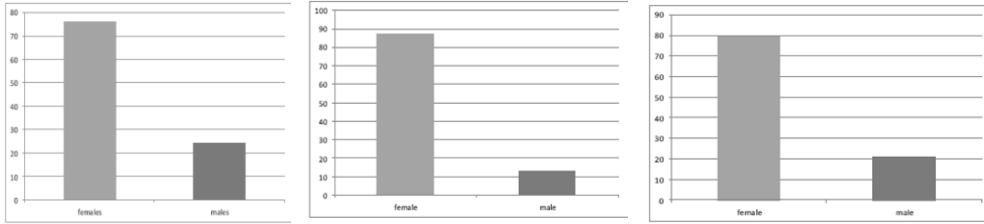Total number of respondents: 100

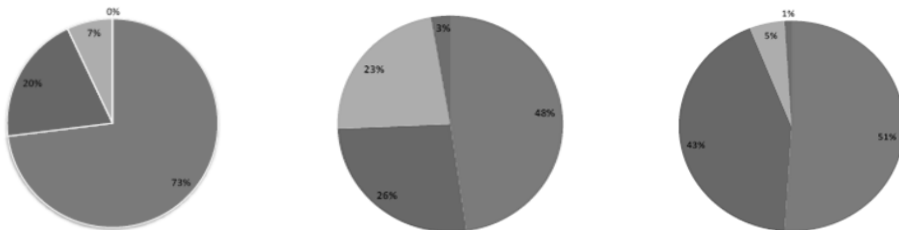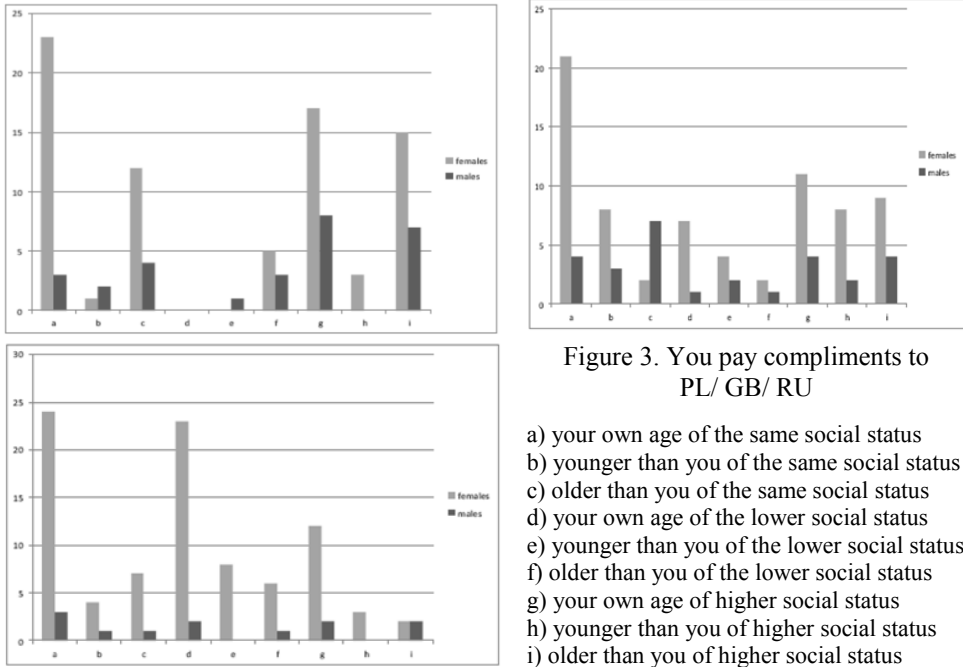Figure 1. Age – PL/ GB/ RU

Figure 2. Gender – PL/ GB/ RU

Figure 3. You pay compliments to
PL/ GB/ RU

a) your own age of the same social status
b) younger than you of the same social status
c) older than you of the same social status
d) your own age of the lower social status
e) younger than you of the lower social status
f) older than you of the lower social status
g) your own age of higher social status
h) younger than you of higher social status
i) older than you of higher social status

Figure 4. What do you compliment on (PL)

a) to please someone
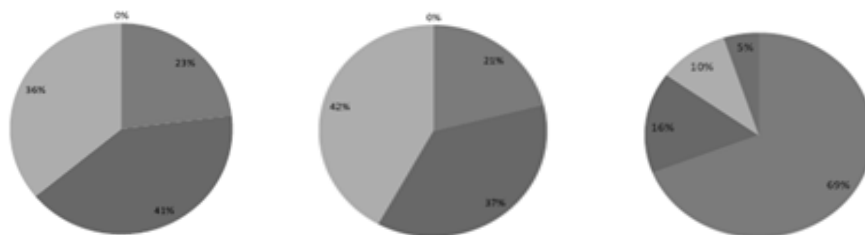b) to ingratiate yourself
c) as a prelude to asking for a favour
d) other

Figure 5. For what purpose do you pay compliments PL /GB/ RU

a) to please someone
b) to ingratiate yourself
c) as a prelude to asking for a favor
d) other

8. Discussion

It is not surprising that the majority of respondents in each group said they paid compliments predominantly to women. It is remarkable that the Polish respondents admitted that they pay more compliments to females of higher social status of the same age and older (32%), with Russians coming in second (20%).

The English respondents proved to be less snobbish indicating that they pay compliments to females who are at the same age as they are but whose social status is lower (23%) – compare this with the Polish – 0%, and Russians – 4%.

When we look at what the respondents reported they complimented on, we can also see some differences. The Polish paid more compliments on a person's looks – 7 3%, compared with 52% for the British and 51% for Russians. Russians paid more compliments on a person's possessions – 43% compared with 20% for the Polish as well as the British. The British paid compliments on achievements more often than the Polish and Russians – 25% against 7% and 5%, respectively.

If the British answered they pay compliments simply to please a person – 69%, the Polish and Russian respondents proved less disinterested – they admitted to paying more compliments to either ingratiate themselves – 41% and 37%, or as a prelude to asking for a favour – 36% and 42%, respectively.

If we were to compare this method with the ones discussed in the previous section, we would have to admit that it gives further insights into the cultural scripts of the three nations.

Conclusions

Testing speech acts or FTA's in particular can be done in many ways with one or more goals in mind. This paper has attempted to show tendencies amongst Polish, Russian and English speakers' responses to compliments when communicating. This research is interesting both to researchers attempting to get a deeper understanding of the pragmatic knowledge amongst these nations, and for researchers

attempting to form a pedagogical tool for teaching pragmatic competence in a foreign language. A concern has to be raised on the matter of the size of the control group for this paper as well as the lack of a suitable sample comparison.

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Note on the author:

Anna Kuzio, PhD, Assistant Professor at the Institute of Modern Languages Studies, University of Zielona Góra, Poland. She has published internationally in linguistic journals (e.g. *International Journal of Languages and Literatures, Rocznik kognitywistyczny*, *LACUS* papers) and books (e.g. for *LAP Academic Publishing* and *Cambridge Scholars Press*). Her research interests are focused primarily on pragmatic, cognitive and sociolinguistic mechanisms of deception and manipulation in language, as well as on the processes of social influence and the rhetoric of advertising, social media and political discourse.
e-mail address: a.kuzio@in.uz.zgora.pl

Svitlana Markelova
Ivan Franko National University of Lviv

Nadiia Vilkhovchenko
Lviv Polytechnic National University

SEMANTIC PECULIARITIES OF SPECIAL VOCABULARY USED IN SCIENCE FICTION

Abstract: *The paper focuses on characteristic features and functions of special vocabulary (terminology) used in science fiction. Special vocabulary of this genre falls into special vocabulary proper and quasi-special vocabulary coined by authors of the texts. A particular emphasis is laid on peculiarities of the semantic structure of terminology used in science fiction texts. The paper describes main ways of semantization of quasi-special vocabulary units determined by their interaction with other lexical layers. Genre-shaping potential of special vocabulary in science fiction is discussed.*

Introduction

Science fiction is, undoubtedly, the only belle-letters genre with special vocabulary of different kinds having genre-shaping potential. Thus, the science fiction text is a particular sphere of the functioning of two kinds of special vocabulary: the one already existing in language and the quasi-special vocabulary coined by authors. Both types of vocabulary are used to describe imaginary worlds. Due to this, the research of semantic nature of special vocabulary, as genre-shaping vocabulary of science fiction, is of great interest.

The quasi-special and special vocabularies interact and create a linguistic pattern of the author's fantasy world. The introduction of the quasi-special vocabulary, its interaction with the special vocabulary and its formation according to certain models could be regarded as attempts of science fiction writers to simulate the development of a language lexical system and to imitate the language of the imaginary future. These attempts are not scientific; they depend on the aesthetic purpose of fiction. However, they present rich and interesting material for research, showing how the author sometimes even unconsciously simulates the structure of language, its potentialities, and the principles of development.

The primary aim of this paper is to perform a structural and semantic analysis of the special vocabulary used in science fiction texts, and to discover particular features of its functioning, with the purpose of revealing stylistic significance of this vocabulary in the general structure of science fiction texts.

1. The material of analysis

The object of our research is special lexical units (words or word combinations) singled out from the science fiction texts of modern English-speaking authors (2, 466 lexical units). The subject of the research is represented by structural and semantic features of the science fiction special vocabulary, extralinguistic and linguistic factors of its representation in science fiction.

The material of our research is represented by the novels and short stories (3, 500 pages) written by modern English-speaking authors of 20th and 21st centuries (W. Dietz, D. Adams, A. Clarke, W. Gibson, T. Jones, E. Idle, K. Simak, A. MacCaffrey, E. Scarborough, M. Thies, J. York, D. Smith, N. Stephenson, R. Shekley, R. Bradbury, D. Gerrold, J. Varley, K. Laumer, V. Vinge, and B. Bethke).

2. Semantic structure of scientific terminology in science fiction

Functioning in the text of fiction, special vocabulary acquires its stylistic colouring, i.e. it gains its expressive potential, interacting with the means of language which provide emotional, expressive, evaluative, and aesthetic information. The functioning of special vocabulary in fiction differs from its functioning in scientific texts due to the specific character of fiction, the characteristic features of which are figurativeness, emotiveness and anthropocentrism.

2.1. Peculiarities of functioning of terminology in fiction

Arnold (Арнольд 2002: 54) argues that the term in its terminological field does not possess any stylistic colouring. However, it has a functional stylistic correlation which is actualized, when the term is transferred into another stylistic environment where it becomes a means of expression. Thus, the term acquires certain stylistic colouring while being transfered into the text of science fiction. Many scientists (V. Teliya (Телия 1986), I. Arnold (Арнольд 2002), G. Antrushyna (Антрушина 1999), N. Vishivana (Вишивана 1999), L. Bubleynyk (Бублейник 2000)) note that the problem of stylistic colouring is very closely related to connotation. Kochergan (Кочерган 2006: 426) defines connotation as additional semantic pragmatic features of a lexical unit («co-meanings»). Thus, connotation is related to the problem of figurativeness. It is specified by concomitant semantic, emotive, expressive, and stylistic colourings of the basic meaning that correlates with the denotative and significative meanings.

2.2. Main semantic augments of terminological units in science fiction

Within the framework of the science fiction genre, some special lexical units which are used by the author to create the image of an imaginary world acquire individual connotative augments which are formed as the result of their correlation with other special vocabulary, with neutral lexical units, and with the vocabulary coined by the author.

When a special lexical unit gets into the science fiction text, it acquires semantic augmentation related to the realiae of the author`s imaginary fantasy

world. For example, in the novel "Starship Titanic" by T. Jones, there are some terms that denote different parts of the body and biological processes: *brain*, *cerebral artery*, *nerve impulses*, *neuron* (Jones 1998). In this text, these special lexical units denote the vital organs and processes not of a human, but of a cybernetic being. Here is another example of such semantic complication:

> *So the ship's intelligence had to be imbued with emotions, with personality* (Jones 1998: 14).

The terms *emotions*, and *personality* are known to belong to the sphere of human psychology. However, the terms are used to describe the "psychology" of the cybernetic system of the spaceship. Therefore, these psychological terms acquire the meaning of "personality and emotions of artificial intelligence of the spaceship". In such a way, human qualities are attributed to an inanimate creature.

Sometimes human features can be attributed to an alien inhuman creature, for example:

> *Such a swamp-ridden world as this was the breeding ground of countless bacteria and germs, and the Kezdai* **immune system** *was weak from evolving on a desert world that was so devoid of them* (Dietz 1998: 88).

This example illustrates that the lexical unit denoting an alien creature *Kezdai* acquires the meaning of special lexical unit *immune system*.

As the results of our research show, such semantic augments are observed in (62.5 % of the units) of special vocabulary in the analysed texts. It should be mentioned that the reader knows the form of almost a half of the special lexical units of science fiction; however, their meaning differs, as they acquire a new fantastic semantic component (seme).

The fantastic nature of science fiction is another important factor of special vocabulary penetration into the language of the genre of science fiction. This process determines the semantic structure of special vocabulary. For example, in their works, authors extend the possibilities of establishing space communication: *tracking radar*, and *navigation beacon* (Thies 2001) are the terms which exist in the language. However their semantics contains an element of exotic, fantastic nature and an element of futurity, as they nominate objects which are used on the space orbit by the people of imaginary future. In such a way special vocabulary acquires additional semantic colouring in science fiction. Moreover, understanding of a special vocabulary unit depends on its use in the context.

The following table (Table 1) illustrates the basic semantic components singled out in the terminology used in science fiction.

The table shows basic connotative and denotative components of terms used in the science fiction texts. According to the research, the most frequent additional semes include spreading the meaning on inanimate creatures and aliens (328 units), and semes denoting future, fantastic and exotic nature (456 units). These semantic components stratify on the basic seme. A total of 784 terminological units acquire an additional semantic component (out of 1, 255 terms).

Table 1. Basic semes of terminological units in science fiction texts

Special vocabulary units (examples)	Denotative seme	Additional seme	Basic additional semes of terminological units used in science fiction
1) cerebral artery (Jones 1998) 2) personality (Jones 1998)	1) organ of humans and animals 2) psychological individuality	1) … of the artificial intelligence 2) …. of the cybernetic system	Spreading of sense on an inanimate creature
3) immune system (Idle 1999) 4) mandible (Dietz 1998)	3) protecting system 4) part of body of an insect	3) … of an alien 4) …. of an alien	Spreading of sense on an alien creature
5) navigation computer (Vinge 1992) 6) simulator (Dietz 1998) 7) spaceplane (Clarke 2001)	5) device 6) model 7) flying device	5) … in spaceship for travelling in Galaxy 6) …for training androids 7) …for travelling in space for long distances	Seme denoting future, fantastic and exotic nature

Thus, contrary to scientific texts, connotation is a characteristic feature of terminology which occurs in science fiction. The basic sense of most units of this lexical layer easily acquires additional semantic components.

3. The ways of semantization of quasi-special vocabulary in science fiction

For readers' to understand coined terms, different ways of semantization are used. According to our observations, semantics of quasi-special units depends on individual author's ways of semantization in the text. For example, some units are introduced into the text without explanation, while semantics of other ones can be understood from the context. Some units of the quasi-special vocabulary do not need explanation when there is no necessity for their detailed understanding in the context the author may indirectly specify the connection of a lexical unit with certain scientific fields. In such cases, the quasi-special lexical unit performs the so-called "descriptive role", as it is used exceptionally for the sake of creation of some fantastic or exotic background. According to our research, the partial semantization of such lexical units usually takes place in a subsequent context. During the process of perception of such quasi-special lexical units, the reader, as a rule, gets a general idea as to the belonging of the unit to a certain scientific field. For example:

> *...This wasn't because it was actually invisible or anything hyper-impossible like that. The technology involved in making anything invisible is so infinitely complex that nine hundred and ninety-nine thousand million, nine hundred and ninety-nine million, nine hundred and ninety-nine thousand, nine hundred and ninety-nine times out of a billion it is much simpler and more effective just to take the thing away and do without it. The ultra-famous sciento-magician Effrafax Wug once bet his life that, given a year, he could render the great megamountain Ma-gramal entirely invisible. Having spent most of the year jiggling around with immense* **Lux-O-Valves** *and* **Refracto-Nullifiers** *and* **Spectrum-Bypass-O-Matics**, *he realized, with nine hours to go, that he wasn't going to make it (Adams 1982:14).*

The reader understands that the quasi-special lexical unit of *Refracto-Nullifie*r is related to a chemical field because two other quasi-special units *Lux-O-Valve* and *Spectrum-Bypass-O-Matic* that are already known to readers from the previous context have already been explained by the author. However, the properties of *Refracto-Nullifier* are not described in the context. The author does not reveal the meaning of this unit directly. However, it is necessary to note that the reader can still make some presuppositions based on the semantics of the roots of this word. This lexical unit is used in the text only once in order to create the background and fill the story with fantastic exotisms. Thus, the basic function of such words is to create an exotic and fantastic background.

According to our research, 10% of the total number of the analysed quasi-special vocabulary (94 units) is introduced only for the sake of creation of an exotic and fantastic background without any definition or explanation. Other units of the quasi-special vocabulary are not provided with explanations because their meaning can be inferred from the meaning of the components. For example:

> *Every* **Doorbot** *has a fail-safe neuron* (Jones 1998: 2).
> *The Journalist made a note in his* **thumb-recorder** (Jones 1998: 2).

Both lexical units, *doorbot* and *thumb-recorder*, are in no way explained, but this does not hinder understanding, because the reader can easily deduce the meaning of these lexical units from the meaning of their components. Thus, *Doorbot* originates from *door + robot* and the second unit denotes a small finger-sized recorder. The combination of the components of such quasi-special lexical units is an important semantizational factor, and the author must only specify the lexical meaning of a lexeme in the context.

It was discovered that in the corpus of the material, 425 units (45% units of the quasi-special vocabulary) are introduced without explanations, including 10% which do not need definition because of their "descriptive" function. Semantics of 35% of the units consists of the sum of meanings which form this lexical unit and refer to the structural type of semantization. It is emphasised that the methods of semantization described above are not used in scientific papers, which aim at giving exact definitions of the terms.

3.1. Contextual types of semantization of quasi-special vocabulary

Our observations prove that the interpretation of quasi-special vocabulary is necessary in many cases for adequate understanding of the science fiction work; otherwise, it could lead to some kind of misinterpretation. The analysis of the material allows us to single out contextual type of semantization of quasi-special vocabulary when the meaning of quasi-special vocabulary is revealed in the context. There are several types of contextual methods of semantization. They include: the explanation of meaning of quasi-special vocabulary with the detailed description of the phenomenon; definitions of quasi-special lexical units; introduction of the synonyms and hyperonyms known to the reader; decoding of abbreviations; and combination of different ways of semantization of quasi-special vocabulary.

3.1.1. Defining quasi-special lexical units

The definitions of the quasi-special vocabulary include descriptions of the basic qualities of the imaginary objects or phenomena. For example:

> *The audio track, its pitch adjusted to run at just less than twice the standard playback speed, was part of month-old newscast detailing potential military uses and substance known as **HsG**, biochemical governing the human skeletal growth factor. Overdoses of **HsG** threw certain bone cells into overdrive, accelerating growth by factors as high as one thousand percent* (Gibson 1984: 69).

This example shows how the meaning of the quasi-special lexical unit of *HsG* is revealed with the help of the definition that is introduced in the apposition: "*HsG, and biochemical governing the human skeletal growth factor*". The author's explanation follows the definition of this lexical unit, where the consequences of the overdose of this substance are described: *"Overdoses of HsG threw certain bone cells into overdrive, accelerating growth by factors as high as one thousand percent"*. This definition imitates scientific ones, but at the same time it creates exotic and fantastic colouring, because on the one hand, it gives a strict logical explanation which exposes the basic features of this quasi-special unit, and on the other hand, shows the meaning of the unit which does not exist. It should be noted that unlike science fiction, in scientific papers, definition is usually given in the apposition when it is necessary to remind or specify the meaning of the term known to readers. In science fiction texts, however, the quasi-term that is explained in the apposition is usually introduced for the first time. In science fiction there are also definitions that resemble those which are given in dictionary entries:

> *Na`no, n, microscopic machines created to do work* (Dietz 1998: 35).

Like a definition from an explanatory dictionary, this explanation both reveals the meaning of the quasi-term *Nano*, and specifies its part of speech (*n*) and even shows the accent in pronunciation. Such types of definitions imitate scientific texts. However, only 2% (19 units) of the quasi-special units of the contextual type of semantization are explained by definitions. In our opinion, it is be-

cause the definition is predominantly a scientific phenomenon which excludes figurativeness and expressive colouring. In science fiction the definition serves as a stylistic means which creates the scientific atmosphere.

3.1.2. Detailed explanation of meaning of quasi-special units

Another contextual type of semantization of the quasi-special vocabulary is the explanation with the detailed description of the phenomenon which it denotes. The purpose of explanation is to disclose the essence of the phenomena. According to our research, in science fiction texts, explanation of this kind is realized through description. The description in science fiction substantially differs from the one in scientific texts because such distinctive feature as the character of fiction adds some figurativeness and expressive colouring to the description. According to our observations, explanation of quasi-special vocabulary in science fiction is either of complete or partial (incomplete) character. It is complete when the author presents the full picture of an imaginary phenomenon or fantastic object, presenting its properties as in scientific texts. Unlike the quasi-special vocabulary provided with exhaustive explanations, other units are introduced into the figurative micro- context that partially reveals the meaning of this lexical unit by specifying or just describing some characteristic features of the object.

The following example shows how the author exposes the meaning of such quasi-special units as "*micropaleontologist*" and "*micropaleontology*" through the explanation based on description:

> I *am a **micropaleontologist**. You may be unaware of the study labelled micropaleontology (occasionally **microanthropology**), which was the first really brand-new science of the Double Ages (the second millennium). It is my job to study the evolutionary implications of the last ten minutes* (Idle 1999: 4).

Semantization of quasi-special vocabulary starts with the sentence "*It is my job to study*" which indicates the author's explanation of the quasi-special lexical unit "*the evolutionary implications of the last ten minutes*".

A characteristic feature of this type of description in science fiction is a wide use of comparisons for the explanation of scientific phenomena and facts. Comparison is known to be a figurative utterance where one phenomenon is compared to another according to their common features. By comparing two or more objects or phenomena, it is possible to show their qualities through other familiar objects and phenomena. Comparisons give partial (when only one certain quality is compared) or complete picture of the invented phenomenon or imaginary object. Our calculations show that meaning of about 28% (291 units) of the quasi-special vocabulary is revealed with the detailed description of the phenomenon.

3.1.3. Using synonyms and hyperonyms known to the reader

The use of the quasi-special unit together with its synonym known to the reader is another contextual method of semantization of the quasi-special vocabulary in science fiction. For example:

> *The most interesting thing about Carlton was not that he was **an android**, an artificial intelligence* (Idle 1999: 5).

Explanation of the word *android* is given in the apposition. Using synonyms of the quasi-special vocabulary, the author emphasizes the nominative aspect of the lexical unit (because according to our observations, it is used exceptionally to create the effect of exotic and fantastic colouring). In some cases (9 units), the reader knows the phenomenon denoted by the quasi-special word. However, most often, the authors give it a new name in order to add the fantastic colouring. For example:

> *...the study labeled micropaleontology (occasionally microanthropology), which was the first really brand-new science of the **Double Ages** (the second millennium)* (Idle 1999: 4).

In this example, the explanation of the lexical unit *Double Ages*, which names the period of time, is given in brackets with the help of the synonymous word combination *"the second millennium"* known to the reader. Such a way of semantization of quasi-special vocabulary exposes the fantastic nature of the science fiction text and creates an exotic and fantastic effect as the newly formed lexical unit is used together with the unit that exists in the language and is known to readers.

Some quasi-special units (esp. the proper names, such as astronyms, place names, names of mountains and hydronyms) are introduced by hyperonyms, i.e. the class names. For example, such words as *star* and *planet* are hyperonyms of astronomic names. For instance,

> *It started as just a flicker of X-rays, high above the orbital plane of the bright orange star **Epsilon Sindri*** (Thies 2001: 1);
> *This was a weekly occurrence above the planet **Delas*** (Thies 2001: 2).

The place-names, hydronyms, and names of mountains correlate with such hyperonyms as *city*, *town*, *island*, *river*, *ocean*, *mountain* etc:

> *And there, dear lady, you can see the <u>Ocean </u>of **Summer-Plastering**. That is the <u>land</u> known as **Finepottery**, oh! And over there, dear lady, if you were to turn your eyes you can see my own <u>country</u>: **Carpenters Islands*** (Jones 1998: 170).

According to our research, 93 quasi-special units are semantizated through hyperonyms. In the corpus of the investigated material such instances comprise 10% among the contextual ways of semantization of quasi-special vocabulary.

Thus, about 11% of the quasi-special vocabulary is explained with the help of synonyms and hyperonyms. In our opinion, the use of synonyms and hyperonyms for semantization of quasi-terms largely demonstrates interrelations of special and quasi-special vocabulary, as there are close relations between the hyperonym and hyponym and between the synonym and the unit that it explains. The sense of the unknown phenomenon or object is exposed through the known one, while using the special units that exist, creating, for example, the quasi-special

word combinations (*Fire Mountains of Frazfraga, Hidden Island, Carpenters Islands*).

Obviously, the author's explanation is also required while using the quasi-special abbreviations which cannot be deciphered by the reader. For example:

> The 39th's **MFOR-XXX-II** *(Melconian Front Optimization Refit for Bolo Mark XXX, Version Two) gave each of us five Isis orbital denial thermonuclear missiles, but only fifteen of Icehawk anti-armor missiles, designed more for penetration than for expansive damage* (Thies 2001: 84).

According to our calculations, 19 quasi-special abbreviations are decoded in the analyzed works. As the research shows, the decoding of abbreviational units in science fiction can be introduced in different ways: in brackets, in apposition, or in a separate sentence. In our opinion, introduction of the decoding does not only explain the meaning of the abbreviation, but also performs a stylistic function. Writing a novel, the author first coins a certain name of an object, from which he/she forms the correspondent abbreviation. However, everything in the text is presented vice versa: first, the abbreviation appears and only then decoding is introduced. The impression is provided as if the narrator «knew» the phenomenon denoted by the abbreviation, and he/she was just to decipher it. In our opinion, such method strengthens the effect of authenticity.

3.2. Combination of different ways of semantization

In fact, some units of quasi-special vocabulary can be explained by a combination of different ways of semantization. According to the results of the research, 103 (11%) of quasi-special units are explained in this way. For example:

> The **Suc-u-bus System** *was a rather controversial part of the ship's design. In the age of telepresence, the idea of transmitting objects around the ship quite physically and literally, by means of vacuum tubes, seemed old-fashioned and retrogressive.... Physical transport was always less risky than teleportation or any pseudotravel arrangement. What's more, his* **Suc-u-bus robots** *would be able to categorize and sort everything put into their tray, so if you failed to tell them where you wanted to send your object, they would do it automatically* (Jones 1998: 34).

This example shows that the quasi-special lexical unit *Suc-u-bus System* is explained with the help of the detailed description of the phenomenon denoted by the quasi-special lexical unit, using hyperonymous word combination (*physical transport*), and also with the help of comparing the imaginary transport (*teleportation*, *pseudotravel*) to other means of transport. Here is the succession of the semantization process of the unit: 1) principle of work, and 2) service technique. First, the principles of work of *the Suc-u-bus System* are specified, and then the idea of the delivering objects by means of vacuum tubes is described. Later, readers find information which specifies the meaning of the quasi-term related to transport (*physical transport*). In addition, the technique that serves this system is also mentioned (*Suc-u-bus robots*).

We assume that the combination of different methods of semantization of the quasi-special vocabulary gives a more detailed explanation of the meaning of a lexical unit in comparison with the use of only definitions, synonyms, or hyperonyms because this way of semantization exposes different sides and features of the object or phenomenon denoted by the quasi-special unit.

4. Discussion

The use of different methods of semantization of the quasi-special vocabulary and their combinations, in our opinion, is aimed at creating the multidimensional linguistic picture of the author's imaginary fantasy world. The use of the described basic ways of semantization of the quasi-special vocabulary in science fiction depends on the author`s choice and on the role that this quasi-special unit plays. If the quasi-special unit is meaningful for creation of the image of the imaginary world, then the detailed description is given which exposes the essence of the phenomenon denoted by this unit. On the other hand, if an exotic and fantastic effect is more important, then the synonym of a quasi-term known to the reader is introduced stressing the nominative aspect of this quasi-term (i.e., the word form). If the quasi-term is necessary for the creation of the scientific atmosphere (e.g., it is used either in the description of the research process or during the conversation of scientists), definition is introduced into the science fiction text.

In science fiction text, the explanation of quasi-special units is affected by the task of fiction and it should not distort its figurativeness. As the research shows, in most cases authors try to make their explanation hidden, lest it is too obvious to readers. That is why the explanation is usually given not directly, but in conversations of characters. In our opinion, the stylistic nature of the quasi-special vocabulary stipulates the necessity to conceal the explanation. A quasi-special unit has a dual nature: on the one hand, it is perceived by readers as a new word and, on the other, it is neutral for the characters of a science fiction work (herein the units of the quasi-special vocabulary are similar to exotisms which are neologisms for readers and neutral for local inhabitants). Thus, the author interprets a quasi-special unit as if it were a well-known and neutral word.

Conclusions

Connotation is a characteristic feature of semantic structure of special vocabulary used in science fiction texts. The basic meaning of terminological units acquires additional semantic components. The semantics of the quasi-special units depends on the author's ways of revealing their meaning. The methods of semantization can be either structural or contextual, depending on whether the explanation of quasi-special unit is provided exclusively by the linguistic material or the use of the context is required. The structural type of semantization of quasi-special vocabulary stipulates the possibility of understanding meaning through the components which compose this lexical unit. Meaning of the biggest part of terms (about

55%) is explained by means of contextual methods. Among the basic contextual ways of semantization, there is a detailed description of the phenomenon denoted by the quasi-special unit; use of definitions; semantization of quasi-special vocabulary by the synonym or hyperonym known to the reader; the decoding of abbreviations; and combination of few different ways of semantization of the quasi-special vocabulary. Some units of quasi-special vocabulary in science fiction do not need explanation, because of their "descriptive" function. The various ways of semantization of quasi-special vocabulary enhance the author's creative potential in constructing the imaginary world. The linguistic picture of this world is based on a concept system which includes both special and quasi-special vocabulary. Quasi-special vocabulary describes an imaginary fantasy world which is based on scientific assumptions.

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Note on the authors:
Svitlana Markelova, PhD, received her MA in linguistics from Ivan Franko National University of Lviv, Ukraine. She completed her Ph.D. in 1991. Since then, she has worked as a professor and researcher at the Department of Foreign Languages for Humanities at

Ivan Franko National University of Lviv, where she has continued developing her research interests in text linguistics, academic genres, methods of teaching ESP, and other related issues. She regularly participates in international conferences and has a number of publications.

e-mail address: markelovas@ukr.net

Nadiia Vilkhovchenko, PhD, completed her PhD in linguistics in 2014. She works as a lecturer at the Department of Foreign Languages in Lviv Polytechnic National University, Ukraine. Her academic interests include research of genre, style, genre-shaping vocabulary, problems of functional linguistics, and methods of teaching ESP. She has a number of publications and participates in international conferences.

e-mail address: nadyne@ukr.net

Bohdan Maxymtschuk
Nationale Iwan-Franko-Universität Lwiw

ÜBER DIE GENESE UND WECHSELWIRKUNG DER WORTARTEN UNTER BESONDERER BERÜCKSICHTIGUNG DER QUALIFIKATIVEN WÖRTER IM DEUTSCHEN

Abstract: *Language is postulated to be a permanently evincing dynamic system predetermined by special procedural laws. This pecualiarity concerns the development of parts of speech deeply rooted in the psychogenesis of thought spanning the gap between material and process, spreading from material to energy, from names to other parts of speech. Traced back in the present paper are both the development and mutual penetration of specific parts of speech. Also substantiated here are the ontological and internal-systemic causes of these processes as well as plausible vectors of the mutual transitions. The rise and demise of specific parts of speech are exemplified by the word qualifiers in the history of German.*

Introduktion

Das Problem der Gliederung des Wortschatzes nach den Wortarten gehört zu dem Themenbereich der theoretischen und angewandten Linguistik, der seit Aristoteles, Adelung und Funk und bis jetzt diskutiert wird und keine eindeutige Lösung gefunden hat. Das betrifft sowohl das Wesen der Wortarten als auch ihre Anzahl, die in verschiedenen Grammatiken und bei verschiedenen Autoren unterschiedlich ist.

Es liegt wohl daran, dass die Wortart ein kompliziertes linguales Phänomen ist, das im Schnittpunkt der Sprache, der Logik und der Erkenntnisprozesse liegt und bis jetzt keine adäquate Methodik und Methodologie seiner Beschreibung fand. Man versuchte auf dieses Objekt logische Maßstäbe anzuwenden, während die Wortart keine logische, sondern eine sprachlich-historische Kategorie ist, die mit der Entwicklung des menschlichen Denkens und mit seinen logischen Operationen am außersprachlichen Sachverhalt aufs Engste verbunden ist.

Um das logische Objekt adäquat zu beschreiben und sein Wesen zu erschließen, muss man eine adäquate Methode entwickeln. Der bekannte Sprachwissenschaftler E. Benvenist sagte einmal, die adäquate Methode sei das Objekt selbst (Бенвенист 1974: 129).

In unserem Beitrag versuchen wir, die Genese der Wortarten und deren Wechselwirkung darzustellen, um zu veranschaulichen, wie aus den Satzgliedern die Redeteile entstanden sind, wie nominale Expansion innerhalb des Satzes, die Transposition der Satzglieder, nominale Rückbildung, der morphologische und

syntaktische Umbau des deutschen Satzes zur Entwicklung der Wortarten und manchmal zu ihrem Niedergang geführt haben. Vielleicht ist das der Weg, der zu einer adäquaten Methode führt.

1. Entwicklung der Wortklassen

Die Anzahl der Wortklassen, die jetzt in der deutschen Sprache vorhanden ist, bildete sich nur allmählich aus, nicht durch plötzliche Vernichtung des Alten und den Aufbau des Neuen, sondern durch allmähliche, langwierige Akkumulation von Elementen einer Qualität, einer neuen Sprachstruktur.

Wenn wir die Entwicklung der einzelnen Wortarten verfolgen, so werden wir uns der langen abstrahierenden Arbeit des menschlichen Denkens bewusst. Die Entwicklung der Sprache und des Denkens erforderte eine immer weitergehende Differenzierung der Wortklassen. Da die einzelnen Wortklassen ineinandergreifen, sind auch die Grenzen zwischen den einzelnen Wortklassen nicht starr, sondern fließend. Schon die Tatsache, dass in der deutschen Sprache jedes Wort durch Versetzung des Artikels substantiviert werden kann, lässt die Grenzen zwischen den flektierten und unflektierten Wortklassen nicht scharf abgegrenzt erscheinen, z. B. *Wozu das Wenn und Aber?*

Es gibt Übergangstypen, die die Grenzen zwischen den Wortarten fließend erhalten. So bildet z. B. der Infinitiv eine Brücke vom Verb zum Substantiv, die Partizipien vom Verb zum Adjektiv. Das Adverb stellt eine Sphäre des Wechselverhältnisses, des gegenseitigen Einflusses der flektierbaren Wortklassen und der Partikeln dar. Die eigentliche Partikel steht an der Grenze zwischen Adverb und Konjunktion. Die Interjektion aber befindet sich bereits an der Schwelle des Satzes.

2. Die Herausbildung der Wortarten

Am stärksten kommen diese Wechselbeziehungen zwischen den Wortarten „Substantiv und Adjektiv" zum Vorschein. Dies ist sowohl durch die Entwicklung der deutschen Sprache als auch durch die Entwicklung des menschlichen Denkens (Psychogenesis) bedingt. Substantiv und Adjektiv bildeten ursprünglich eine Wortklasse, d. h. sie wurden nicht differenziert. Es existierte eine nominale Kategorie, die die beiden Funktionen ausüben konnte. Die allmähliche Absonderung des Adjektivs ging langsam vor sich, hauptsächlich durch die attributive und prädikative Funktion. Wie der bekannte ukrainische Sprachwissenschaftler O. Potebnja (Потебня 1886: 73) betonte, konnte das ursprüngliche Nomen gleichzeitig den Gegenstand und die Eigenschaft bezeichnen, daher war dieses Wort weder ein Substantiv noch ein Adjektiv. Von dem ursprünglichen ide. Modell nehmen zwei verschiedene Prozesse ihren Anfang: die Absonderung einer speziellen Wortart, die die Eigenschaft bezeichnet, d. h. des Adjektivs und die weitere Entwicklung des Modells „Substantiv + Substantiv", die eine breite Verwendung in den germanischen und slawischen Sprachen fand und mit dem Gebrauch der Relativpronomina konkurrierte. Dieses Modell ist sehr verbreitet im Gotischen: *skauda-*

raips (Schuhriemen), *fōtu-baúrd* (Fußbrett), *figragulþ* (Fingergold). Das erste Element tritt hier als ein reiner Stamm und undifferenziert als eine Wortart auf. Das betrifft auch die slawischen Sprachen: укр.: *цар-дзвін, краса-дівчина*, wo die erste Komponente die Funktion des Attributs und die zweite die der Benennung übernimmt. Und auch nach der Auflösung des alten Nomens und der Herausbildung einer neuen Wortart Adjektiv, bewahren das Adjektiv und das Substantiv die gleichen wortbildenden und formbildenden Affixe: Der kleine Unterschied bestand darin, dass die Adjektive mit dem zu determinierenden Substantiv kongruiert wurden und Steigerungsstufen bilden könnten. Für beide Wortarten sind die Stämme auf **o, ā, ī, u, n, nd** gemeinsam. Morphologisch zeigt sich diese Verwandtschaft auch darin, dass das Adjektiv so wie das Substantiv dekliniert wurde, z. B. lat.:

hortus (der Garten)	*puella* (das Mädchen)	*verbum* (das Wort)
bonus (ein guter)	*bona* (eine gute)	*bonum* (ein gutes)

Die Fähigkeit, nach Geschlechtern zu flektieren, kommt in den ide. Adjektiven nur bei den o- und ā-Stämmen vor, wobei der Vokal „o" das Maskulinum und Neutrum bezeichnet und der Vokal „ā" das Femininum.

Zum Unterschied von den Substantiven werden die Formative „o" und „ā" bei den Adjektiven nach ihrem Geschlecht einander gegenübergestellt und verleihen demselben Wort verschiedene Geschlechter, indem sie Genusformen eines und desselben Wortes ausformen. Das Vorhandensein der syntaktischen Kongruenz macht diese Formative zu einem Merkmal der Zugehörigkeit des Substantivs zum bestimmten Geschlecht, weil das Substantiv an und für sich keine Merkmale des grammatischen Geschlechts haben kann.

Mit anderen Worten bestand die Gegenüberstellung zwischen Substantiv und Adjektiv darin, dass das Adjektiv nach den Geschlechtern flektieren konnte und dass die Substantive nach den Geschlechtern differenziert wurden.

Die u- und i-Stämme bei den Substantiven haben kein formales Zeichen des Geschlechts; vgl. die Stämme auf „i" *hrains* (M), *hrains* (F), *hrain* (N) und *gasts* (M), *ansts* (F) „Gunst", die Stämme auf „u" *hardus* (M*), hardus* (F), *hardu* (N) und *sunus* (M), *handus* (F), *faihu* (Vieh). Die gotische Sprache hat noch spezifische Unterschiede dieser Stämme im Nominativ und Akkusativ Neutrum beibehalten. Wie oben erwähnt, unterschied sich das ide. Adjektiv ursprünglich nicht vom Substantiv durch Kasusflexionen; vgl. die Stämme auf „o": das Adjektiv *bonus, boni* (Gen.), *bonum* (Akk.) einerseits und das Substantiv *hortus, horti, hortum* andererseits oder die Stämme auf „i": das Adjektiv *levis, levem* (Akk.), *leves* (Nom. Pl.) einerseits und das Substantiv: *hostis, hostem, hostes*, andererseits.

Daraus folgt, dass im Ide. die nominalen Stämme älter sind als die Einteilung in Substantive und Adjektive (lat. *bonus-bona-bonum* und *hortus, rosa, jugum* (o-/ā-Stämme); *medrus-medra-medrum* (das Mitleid) und *filius, filia, spatium* (Raum) – j-/io-/ā-Stämme; *levis* (leicht) und *hostis* (Feind) – Stämme auf „i"; gr. *kratys* (stark) und *ichthys* (Fisch) – u-Stämme.

Im Gotischen fallen noch die Adjektive mit den Stämmen der Substantive zusammen. Die a-Stämme (Maskulinum und Neutrum) werden durch die ô-Stämme (Femininum) hinzugefügt: *blinds* (M), *blind* (N), *blinda* (F) (vgl. *dags, waurd, stibna* (Stimme)). Wie bei den Substantiven sind die ja-Stämme stark verbreitet: *midjis* (M), *midi* (N), *midja* (F) (mittlerer); vgl. *harjis* (Herr), *kuni* (Geschlecht), *sibja* (Sippe): ihnen schließt sich eine kleine Gruppe der Stämme auf „w", *niujis* (neu) an.

Die germanischen Sprachen entwickeln zwei Neuerungen für die Adjektivdeklination:

1) Die Fähigkeit, von jedem Adjektiv einen n-Stamm zu bilden, d. h. so zu flektieren, wie das Gotische „*guma*" (Mensch), „*tuggo*" (Zunge), „*haírto*" (Herz). Diese Art der Deklination hatte schon im Gotischen die Funktion, aus einem Adjektiv ein Substantiv zu machen.

2) Die zweite Neuerung besteht darin, dass in die substantivische Deklination des Adjektivs die pronominale Flexion eingedrungen ist. Dieser Einbruch der Pronominalflexion in die Adjektivflexion zeigt sich spurenweise schon im Lateinischen, z. B. der Genitiv und der Dativ der Adjektive „*totus*", „*nullus*", „*ullus*" wurden nach dem Muster des Genitivs und Dativs vom Demonstrativpronomen „*ille*", „*is-illius*" gebildet. So hieß der Genitiv des Adjektivs „*totus*" nicht „*toti*", sondern „*totius*". Aber im Germanischen ist jedes Adjektiv in die Pronominalflexion hinübergeraten und das ist eben spezifisch germanisch. Die Ausformung der starken Deklination der germanischen Adjektive mittels der pronominalen Endungen hat typologische Analogien in den anderen ide. Sprachen; vgl. altslawisch *добръ рабъ – добры-и рабъ, добра жена – добра-я жена.*

In der ide. Ursprache wurde das Adjektiv so dekliniert wie das Substantiv. Das Adjektiv hatte nicht nur dieselben morphologischen Klassen, sondern auch dieselben Endungen: die Reflexe der alten Deklination finden wir in den altrussischen Sagen: *добр молодец, добра молодца.* In den modernen russischen und ukrainischen Sprachen sind diese Endungen verschieden: *доброму молодцю.* Das Adjektiv in diesen Fällen nimmt die Endungen des Pronomens an (vgl. *йому, його-доброму, доброго*). Daraus folgt, dass nicht nur im Deutschen, sondern auch in den slawischen Sprachen die ehemaligen substantivischen Endungen durch pronominale ersetzt sind. Das Vorhandensein von zwei Formen des Adjektivs ist auch für die baltischen Sprachen typisch.

Noch heute kann im Deutschen jedes Adjektiv wie ein Substantiv gebraucht werden; vgl. gut – der Gute, die Gute, das Gute.

3. Wechselwirkung zwischen den Wortarten

Ein Substantiv konnte ursprünglich als Adjektiv gebraucht werden, ja es konnten Adjektivendungen erhalten und auch gesteigert werden, z. B. *swiget ir sit gar zerkint*, d. h. *schweiget, ihr seid gar zu kindisch; niman ist so kinder*, d. h. *niemand ist so kindisch.* Erst als die Pronominalflexion eindringt (ca. 100 n. Chr.), beginnt sich das Adjektiv als eine besondere Wortklasse zu emanzipieren. Eine

ganze Reihe von Stämmen lauten substantivisch und adjektivisch gleich: *recht – das Recht, licht – das Licht, leid – das Leid, ernst – der Ernst*.

Es gibt auch Fälle, wo ehemalige Substantive nur mehr als Adjektive auftreten: *rosa, lila*; ehemalige Adjektive nur mehr als Substantive gebraucht werden: z. B.: *Bär, Eltern, Herr (hêriro), Jäger, Met, Narbe, Trost, Zweifel*.

Daraus ist ersichtlich, dass die einzelnen Wortarten ineinandergreifen, weil die Sprache im ständigen Prozess der Entwicklung begriffen ist. Wie eine und dieselbe Erscheinung mit verschiedenen lexikalischen und grammatischen Mitteln ausgedrückt werden kann, so kann sie auch durch verschiedene innere Formen der Sprache erfasst werden, je nach dem Bedarf der Kommunikation. Das betrifft auch die Kunst und die Wissenschaft: ein und dasselbe Objekt kann in Form verschiedener Bilder oder Modelle dargestellt werden.

Dem Unterschied der Wortarten entspricht die unterschiedliche Natur unserer Vorstellungen, so der bekannte russische Sprachwissenschaftler A. Schachmatow (Шахматов 1941: 27-28). Unsere Vorstellungen zerfallen in Vorstellungen über die Substanz, Qualitäten/Eigenschaften, Prozesse/Zustände und Relationen. Auf Grund dieser Vorstellungen vollzieht der Mensch logische Operationen am außersprachlichen Sachverhalt. Es gibt aber keine Eins-zu-eins-Entsprechung, was das Material der Verallgemeinerung und die sprachliche Form der Verallgemeinerung anbetrifft: *Der Adler fliegt majestätisch – der majestätische Flug des Adlers*.

Für die Spaltung des Nomens und die Entstehung des Wortartwechsels innerhalb der aktuellen und potentiellen Sätze ist auch der typologische Aufbau der ide. Grundsprache von Belang. Es wird angenommen, dass die ide. Grundsprache über einen aktivisch-passivischen Aufbau verfügte. Die Handlung wurde dem Zustand gegenübergestellt. Den aktivisch-passivischen Sprachen stehen die nominativ-kausativen und ergativen Sprachen gegenüber.

Für aktivisch-passivische Sprachen ist die Gegenüberstellung von zwei Klassen der Substantive typisch: der aktiven und inaktiven (Benennungen der Lebewesen einerseits und Benennungen der Gegenstände andererseits). Das verursacht die Differenzierung der Verben in aktive und inaktive (Prozess einerseits und Zustand andererseits).

Zwischen den obengenannten Sprachtypen gab es Überlappungen und Übergänge. So hat sich z. B. die ide. Grundsprache vom dem aktiven zum kausativen Aufbau verwandelt. Der Dativ oder der Genitiv werden oft durch den Akkusativ oder präpositionale Wendungen ersetzt: *Ich schäme mich deiner oder ich schäme mich wegen einer Sache, sich vor sich selbst schämen*. Andererseits können ergative und kausative Sprachen ineinandergreifen. Diese Prozesse des syntaktischen Ausbaus der ide. Sprache verursachte ohne Zweifel die Prozesse des Wortartenwechsels, die den idioethnischen Charakter haben. Das hängt wahrscheinlich auch damit zusammen, dass die menschlichen Begriffe in ihrer Definition verschwommen sind und die Sprache über die sogenannte Randgebietunschärfe verfügt, z. B. *kratz mich am Rücken* (wo beginnt und wo endet der Rücken?).

Es gibt z. B. Substantive, die in die pronominale Sphäre hinübergerückt sind, z. B. man, jemand, niemand. „Man" war ursprünglich ein Substantiv und bedeutete „Mensch". Heute hat „man" die Bedeutung „irgendeiner" und kann für „ich", „du", „ihr" stehen.

Das Wort „nicht" war ursprünglich morphologisch ein Substantiv. In „nicht" steckt das Substantiv „Nicht", ahd. *neowih*t, mhd. *nieht*, nhd. *nicht*. Bei Luther konnte es noch substantivisch gebraucht werden: *Du solt ein andern stehlen nicht*. Gleichzeitig trat eine Gegenbewegung ein: aus „*nihtes niht*" ist im Nhd. „nichts" entstanden und Substantive konnten zu Konjunktionen: weil – Akkusativ zu „Weile", zu Präpositionen: *kraft, laut, trotz*, zu Ableitungssuffixen *-heit* (got. *haidus* – Gattung, *-schaft* (bedeutete Gestalt), *-tum* (got. *-dōms* – „Würde"); *-rich* (got. *reius* – Herrscher) zum Adjektiv „*mächtig, reich*" werden.

Es besteht auch die Hypothese, dass ursprünglich das Suffix -jes/-is, mit welchem der Komparativ im Ide. gebildet wurde, ein Substantiv war, welcher die Intensivität ausdrückte. Dieses Substantiv trat in der Funktion des Prädikativs auf und wurde allmählich zum Adjektiv.

Die Grenzen zwischen Verb und Substantiv werden durch Nomina Agentis und durch Nomina Aktionis fließend erhalten. „Das Wesen" ist ein ehemaliger Infinitiv, an dessen Stelle seit dem 16. Jahrhundert „sein" getreten ist. In Goethes „Faust" steht noch die Form „west" für „ist". Bekanntlich bilden die Partizipien eine Brücke zwischen Verb und Adjektiv.

Es handelt sich um die systeminternen Beziehungen zwischen den Wortarten. Diese Beziehungen entstehen im Ergebnis eines Übertritts der Elemente einer Wortart in die andere. Grundsätzlich kann ein solcher Wechsel zwischen so gut wie allen Wortarten stattfinden. Diese Möglichkeit wird aber in unterschiedlichem Maße genutzt. Es gibt, um den Wortbildungsterminus zu gebrauchen, offene und geschlossene Wege bei der Konversion. Wenn die Substantivierung und Adjektivierung offene Wege darstellen, so sind die anderen Wege des Wortartenwechsels als Rudimente anzusehen.

Im Deutschen erfolgt der Übergang der Elemente anderer Wortarten in die Wortart Substantiv am leichtesten. Alles kann im Prinzip zum Gegenstand eines gedanklichen Aktes gemacht werden. Ohne weiteres lässt sich jeder Infinitiv als Neutrum substantivieren: *das Lachen des Kindes, das Verweilen am Waldesrand, sein ständiges Von-der-Hand-in-den-Mund-Leben* usw.

Theoretisch kann auch jedes Adjektiv als Neutrum substantiviert werden, wobei es die adjektivische Abwandlung beibehält: *etwas Wesentliches – das Wesentliche, nichts Neues – das Neue* usw. Als Maskulinum oder Femininum kann dagegen nur ein irgendeine menschliche Eigenschaft bezeichnendes Adjektiv konvertiert werden: *Ein Kranker – der Kranke, eine Kranke – die Kranke, ein Verwandter – der Verwandte* usw. Viele Substantive gehen auf Verbalstämme zurück: der Sprung, der Schritt, der Fluss usw.

Substantivieren lassen sich Pronomina (das Seine, die Meinen, das Ich, das Nichts usw.), Numeralien (die Eins, die Zwei usw.), Adverbien (mein Gegenüber, das Jenseits, der Rechtsaußen usw.), Interjektionen (das Hurra, der Plumps usw.). In den vereinzelten Fällen wird auch das Finitum konvertiert (das Ist, das Soll, das Muss). Am Rande sei bemerkt, dass auch Affixe (der Ismus) und Buchstaben substantiviert werden können (das A und das O).

Der Übertritt in die Wortart Adjektiv ist dagegen eine sehr seltene Erscheinung. Es gibt nur wenige Adjektive, die aus Substantiven entstanden sind: *ernst, feind, freund, angst, schaden, schuld, not*, die nur als Prädikativum gebraucht werden. Nur die Adjektive *rege, starr, wach* und *wirr* lassen sich auf entsprechende Verben zurückführen.

Die Adjektivierung eines Adverbs ist auch keine häufige Erscheinung: *zufrieden, selten, vorhanden,* Bildungen mit dem Suffix -*weise: probeweise Anstellung.*

Der Übertritt in die Wortart Adverb lässt sich auch nicht häufig beobachten. Die Adverbien *heim, weg, dank* sind die ehemaligen Kasusformen der Substantive.

Einige Präpositionen sind durch Konversion aus den Substantiven entstanden: *laut, kraft, trotz, anhand, mittels.* In die Wortart Verb treten relativ leicht Substantiv- und Adjektivstämme über: *acker-n, träne-n, bildhauer-n, tischler-n, besser-n, milder-n* u. a. Es sei nochmals hervorgehoben, dass es von theoretischem Wert wäre, nicht nur die einzelnen Wortklassen in überzeugender Weise voneinander abzugrenzen, sondern auch ihre systeminternen Beziehungen zueinander zu erkennen.

So konnte auch im Gotischen jedes Adjektiv zu einem Adverb werden und zwar durch die Suffixe -*ba* und -*o*. Im Ahd. ist bloß das Suffix -*ba* erhalten, das im Mhd. zu -*e* abgeschwächt wurde: z. B. got. *baihtaba* (*klar, glänzend*), *ubilaba, ubilo* (*übel*); ahd. *beíahto, ubi*lo; mhd. *beíhte, ubile*; nhd. *übel*. Im Nhd. wurde der Unterschied zwischen dem Adjektivadverb und der unflektierten Adjektivform morphologisch ausgeglichen. Im Mhd. ist der Unterschied zwischen dem endungslosen Adjektiv und dem Adjektiv-Adverb noch aufrechterhalten:

> *schoene* – Adjektiv;
> *schône* – Adverb.

Im Nhd. ist dieser morphologische Unterschied nicht mehr erhalten:

> *Die Gärten sind schön.*
> *Die Gärten blühen schön.*

Durch diese Formgleichheit wird die Zugehörigkeit zum Merkmalsträger hier und da unsicher. So kann z. B. das Wort „morgenrötlich" im folgenden Satz sowohl zum verbalen als auch zum substantivischen Merkmalträger gehörend aufgefasst werden:

> „*Wie seltsam glimmert durch die Gründe*
> *Ein morgenrötlich trüber Schein…*" (Goethe)

Oder im Satz:

„Die Wälder grünen lustig."

Somit ist das qualitative Adverb als eine Wortart im Deutschen untergegangen und das qualitative Adjektiv hat seine Grenzen auf Kosten der adverbialen Funktion des ehemaligen Adjektiv-Adverbs erweitert.

Dieser Umstand unterstreicht noch einmal, dass es in diesem Fall nicht um die Grenzen geht, sondern um ein und dieselbe Wortart, obwohl es in den anderen Sprachen Grenzen gibt (z. B. im Ukrainischen: гарний, гарно).

4. Entstehung des Qualifikators

Die Absonderung des Adjektivs als einer Wortart hängt in erster Linie mit den Prozessen der Psychogenese, mit der Evolution der Sprache und des Denkens zusammen.

Bei den verbalisierten logischen Operationen anatomisiert der Mensch den außersprachlichen Sachverhalt, indem er ihn in Merkmale, Verhältnisse, Qualitäten und Quantitäten zerlegt, die aber über bestimmte Autonomie im Sprach- und Denksystem verfügen, was mit dem linearen Aufbau der menschlichen Rede verbunden ist. So hat sich z. B. durch die Erkenntnisprozesse die statische passive Akzidenz herauskristallisiert, die relativ selbständig ist und somit nicht nur einem Gegenstand, sondern auch als allgemeine Kategorie einer beliebigen Erscheinung zugeordnet werden kann, wenn ihre nominative Bedeutung semantische Verträglichkeit (Kompatibilität) mit diesen sprachlichen Erscheinungen zulässt. Mit anderen Worten fungiert diese passive Akzidenz im mentalen Lexikon eines Sprachträgers als potentielle Kategorie, die die Fähigkeit besitzt, bestimmte morphologische Formen und syntaktische Funktionen anzunehmen: *ein weiter Weg: der Weg war weit: er wohnt so weit*. Dasselbe gilt für die Kategorie der Substanz, die ihrerseits indifferent der Unifizierung und Differenzierung der Merkmale gegenübersteht. Die Fähigkeit des Merkmals, auf alle Arten der Substanz bezogen zu werden, nennt O. Potebnja „die Unbestimmtheit der Substanz". Semantische Indifferenz der Substanz und relative Autonomie der passiven, statischen Akzidenzen den konkreten substantivischen Begriffen gegenüber setzen die relative Unbestimmtheit der logisch-philosophischen Kategorie des Merkmals in der Struktur der verbalisierten logischen Operationen voraus. Ein qualifikatives Wort, wenn es als Ausgang des Lexems mit keinen morphologischen Formans versehen ist, kann sowohl der Substanz als auch der prozessualen Akzidenz zugeschrieben sein. Die logischen Denkformen bestimmen im bestimmten Grade den Inhalt der sprachlichen Einheiten. Das bedeutet aber nicht, dass die Qualität unseres Denkens nicht vom sprachlichen Ausdruck abhängt. Die Gegenüberstellung des Merkmals eines Gegenstandes dem Merkmal des Merkmals widerspricht der Logik nicht – so A. Sawtschenko (Савченко 1967: 228-231). Im Denken ist beides möglich, je nach dem grammatischen Bau der Sprache: das qualitative Adjektiv „*schön*" z. B., wenn es seiner lexikalischen Bedeutung nicht zuwiderläuft, kann nicht nur dem Substantiv, sondern auch dem Verb zugeordnet werden. In diesem Fall fehlt der

morphologische Faktor, der die Gegenüberstellung des Merkmals des Gegenstands dem Merkmal des Merkmals hervorruft. Wahrscheinlich fehlt die Gegenüberstellung im Denken (*bonus: bono* aber *gut*). Das auf den ersten Blick amorphe Wort hat die virtuelle grammatische Prägung, die im System der aktuellen (selten) und potentiellen Sätze (in der Regel) aktualisiert wird: *das Zimmer war einen Spalt offen*; *er rannte mit offenen Augen ins Verderben; man hat offen abgestimmt.* Auch die sog. degradierten Prädikate nach H. Paul widerspiegeln diese Prozesse (die gut eingerichtete Wohnung ← die Wohnung ist gut eingerichtet) und die Attribute zum Objekt (Er hat die Ratte totgeschlagen = er schlug die Ratte → die Ratte wurde tot.). Während früher als Hauptvertreter eines Lexems die flektierte Form galt und die Kurzform als Einzelfall des Adjektivs fungierte, so hat sich mit dem Untergang der qualitativen Adverbien das Verhältnis im modernen Deutsch von Grund auf verändert: sind die verbbezogenen Adverbialien ebenfalls Adjektive, dann bezeichnen Adjektive Eigenschaften von etwas, das nominal und verbal benannt werden kann. Ordnet man die lexikalischen Klassen in einem Kontinuum, das zwischen den Substantiven auf der einen und den Verben auf der anderen Seite aufgespannt ist, so stehen die Adjektive in der Mitte. Es gibt im Deutschen keine zwei Kategorien, die morphologisch so eng differenziert aufeinander bezogen sind wie Substantiv und Verb. Die meisten Verben haben mehrere Nominalisierungen und aus vielen Substantiven lassen sich umgekehrt Verben ableiten (Eisenberg 1994: 220).

Was die sogenannten Attributive anbetrifft, die nur im Bereich des Substantivs gebraucht werden können und aus Adverbien entstanden sind, so erklärt diese Tendenz H. Brinkmann durch das Streben der Sprache, sprachliche Prägungen, die in der Sphäre des Verbs gebraucht sind, auch für die Sphäre des Substantivs verwendbar zu machen: *dortig, heutig, obig* usw.

Der schon erwähnte ukrainische Sprachwissenschaftler O. Potebnja betrachtete die Evolution der Wortarten vom Nomen zum Verb als Widerspiegelung der Evolution des menschlichen Denkens von der Kategorie der Substanz zur Kategorie des Prozesses, von der Idee der Materie zur Idee der Energie.

Zum anderen entwickelt sich das Denken von der Prädikativität zur Prädikation. Die erste ist ontologisch gesehen die ursprüngliche, nichtdiskrete, individuelle Form des Denkens, die nicht strukturiert ist, z. B. Krieg, Winter usw. Die Prädikation ist dagegen strukturiert, sie besteht aus zwei Komponenten (Subjekt und Prädikat). Die erste primäre Form hat psychosomatischen Charakter, die andere, sekundäre ist unabhängig von der Psychosomatik und hat konventionellen Charakter. Beide Formen des Denkens sind auch dem Denken eines modernen Menschen eigen. Es besteht der ewige Konflikt zwischen Denken und Materie und Disbalance zwischen Denken und Sprache. Das Denken manipuliert mit Wortarten und bildet zahlreiche Strukturen, die den bestimmten ontologischen Sachverhalt und stereotype Beziehungen widerspiegeln: Prädikation, Modifikation, Koordination, Komplimentation. Somit kann angenommen werden, dass die Evolution des menschlichen Denkens zur Absonderung der Merkmale von der

grammatischen Substanz führte. Davon zeugen die Prozesse der Entstehung der Adverbien von den Substantiven und Adjektiven u. a. m. Vom logisch-grammatischen Standpunkt aus kann man die Substanz und verschiedene Grade ihrer Merkmale als Struktur des menschlichen Denkens ansehen, welches den undifferenzierten Sachverhalt widerspiegelt, z. B. *Die schwarzen Wolken ziehen herauf*. Das ungegliederte Denotat wird im sprachlichen Denken diskret dargestellt als Merkmalsträger, dem statische und dynamische Merkmale des ersten Grades zugeschrieben werden. Die Vorstellung des Denotats oder des Referenten bleibt diffus, während ihre sprachliche Darstellung linear ausgeformt ist. So wird im Satz „*Das Kind weint sehr laut*" die grammatische Substanz (Merkmalsträger) und die Merkmale des ersten Grades „weint", des zweiten Grades „laut" und des dritten Grades „sehr" ausgedrückt. Somit ist das menschliche Denken in seiner Evolution zur Erkenntnis des Merkmals des dritten Grades gestiegen (nach der Herausbildung der Adverbien). Vielleicht kommt es in Zukunft zur Herausbildung und zur gedanklichen Erfassung des Merkmals des vierten Grades.

Es ändert sich auch der Begriff der grammatischen Substanz (des Merkmalsträgers). Er entwickelte sich von der Vorstellung von einem konkreten Gegenstand oder einer konkreten Erscheinung über die Idee eines beliebigen Merkmalsträgers zum Begriff des Merkmalsträgers, der sowohl materielle als auch ideelle Substanzen grammatisch verallgemeinert. Darum ist es möglich, solche widersprüchliche Substantive zu bilden wie „Sitzung", „blackness" usw. Die Substantivierung erfolgt in erster Linie auf Grund der Tendenz zur Nominalisierung des Prädikats, die im Interesse der Thema-Rhema-Gliederung eines Satzes konstituiert wird. Das Hauptanliegen einer Nominalisierung des Prädikats besteht darin, ein beliebiges Satzglied zum Ausgangspunkt der Aussage zu machen.

Auf den ersten Blick scheint die lexikalische Bedeutung eines Wortes mit der Wortart nichts zu tun zu haben. Aber in Wirklichkeit spielt jede lexikalische Bedeutung eine bestimmte Rolle in der Wortarteneinteilung. Das Substantiv als eine grammatische Kategorie wird nur deshalb identifiziert, weil sie die Wörter umfasst, die in ihrer Wurzel die Bedeutung der Dinghaftigkeit enthalten und welche diese oder jene Gegenstände bezeichnen (der Tisch, der Apfel usw.), bestimmte syntaktische Funktionen ausüben (Subjekt, Objekt usw.) und bestimmte morphologische Formen annehmen.

Nachdem sich die Wortklasse „Substantiv" herauskristallisiert hatte, die nach ihrer lexikalischen Bedeutung den Gegenstand bezeichnete, schuf das menschliche Gehirn die verallgemeinerte Idee der Gegenständlichkeit und war von nun an in der Lage, die anderen nicht dinghaften Erscheinungen als zu der Idee der Dinghaftigkeit gehörend aufzufassen.

5. Richtung der Evolution des menschlichen Denkens

Über die Richtung in der Evolution des menschlichen Denkens lässt sich erst dann mit Sicherheit urteilen, wenn in verschiedenen Sprachen die Reihenfolge in der Entstehung der neuen Wortarten und Satzglieder wissenschaftlich fixiert und

der denotative Umfang einer jeden Wortart auf bestimmten Etappen der sprachlichen Entwicklung identifiziert werden. Es wäre auch interessant, die entstandene Diskrepanz zwischen verschiedenen semantischen Gruppen der Verben und der Fragepronomina zu erforschen. Zu den Verben, die die Handlung ausdrücken, lässt sich ohne weiteres die Frage stellen „*Was ist zu tun?*", während zu den Verben, die die Prozesse ausdrücken, diese Frage ein bisschen geschraubt klingt: „*Was machst du? Ich altere*." Vielleicht liegen hier die historischen Verschiebungen des denotativen Umfangs einer Wortart zugrunde.

Es entwickeln sich auch andere Wortarten. So z. B. erweitert sich der Kreis der Bezeichnungen, die die Präpositionen ausdrücken. An die ursprünglichen lokal-temporalen Bedeutungen schlossen sich später kausale, restriktive und andere Bedeutungen an.

Auch der denotative Umfang des Adjektivs bleibt nicht stehen: er enthält heutzutage das Verhältnis der Gegenstände zu den Gegenständen, Prozessen, zur Zeit, zum Raum; er umfasst auch Bezeichnungen der Zahl, des Gewichts, der Dimension, der Schnelligkeit usw. Dass dies ursprünglich nicht der Fall war, beweist die Tatsache, dass die qualitativen Adjektive spätere Erscheinungen sind. Von den relativen Merkmalen kam es zum Aufkommen der qualitativen, quantitativen, prozessualen Merkmale. Nur die Zahlwörter bremsten ihre Entwicklung.

Die Entwicklung der Wortarten kann man nicht nur durch die innersprachlichen Mechanismen, durch den linearen Charakter der gesprochenen und geschriebenen Sprache, sondern auch durch die Entwicklung des menschlichen Denkens erklären. Der innere Sinn der Wortarten ist eng mit dem Begriff der inneren Form verbunden.

6. Innere Form der Sprache und die Wortarten

Die innere Form der Sprache, das intellektuelle Modell, mit dessen Hilfe logische Phänomene versprachlicht werden, ist idioethnisch und historisch bedingt. Auf Grund der inneren Form entstehen wissenschaftliche Modelle und künstlerische Bilder. Entstanden auf verschiedenen Etappen des menschlichen Wissens, existieren sie nebeneinander und beeinflussen einander. Parallel entwickeln sich auch die Ausdrucksformen in der Sprache, in der Kunst und in der Wissenschaft. In der Sprache dominiert die wortbildende Benennung eines Sachverhalts und die syntaktische bzw. syntagmatische. In der Kunst hat schon längst das naturalistische Bild dem verallgemeinerten den Weg freigegeben. Nicht nur das sprachliche Denken beeinflusst die wissenschaftliche Weltanschauung. Es gibt auch Beispiele, wo das wissenschaftliche Denken die Entwicklung der sprachlichen Struktur und ihrer inhaltlichen Kategorien beeinflusst, darunter auch die Wortarten. So entwickelte sich doch nach der Auffassung des russischen Sprachwissenschaftlers W. Winogradow das Numerale unter dem Einfluss des mathematischen Denkens: Das mathematische Denken ist in die Sprache eingedrungen. Es hat das System der Numeralien transformiert und ihnen die klar umrissenen Merkmale eines Nomens entzogen. Somit wurden die Numeralien von der Struktur der Substantive

und Adjektive getrennt. Noch im Gotischen ist die Ordinalzahl „*fruma*" der alte Superlativ und stammt von der ide. nominalen Wurzel „pr̥" mit dem Suffix „-mo" und wird wie ein schwaches Adjektiv dekliniert. Das betrifft auch Kardinalzahlen, z. B. das Numerale „*ains*" wird als ein starkes Adjektiv dekliniert. In substantivischer Funktion werden sie wie die Substantive mit dem Stammvokal „i" dekliniert, z. B. *fidwōr* (N), *fidwōrē* (G), *fidwōrim* (D) (*vier*). Vielleicht ist das mathematische Denken, das mit abstrakten Zahlen operiert, (Zahlenhieroglyphen) für den Schwund des Dualis und der Kategorie der Kollektiva verantwortlich (Herde, Gebirge). Auch die Grenzen zwischen der Konjunktion und den anderen Wortarten war fließend. Die meisten Konjunktionen stammen aus den Pronomina und Adverbien. Z. B. „*und*" entspringt dem germ. „*unþi/anþi*", welches etymologisch mit dem englischen „*end*" und dem deutschen „*Ende*" verbunden ist, die Konjunktion „*aber*" stammt aus dem ahd. Adverb „*abur*" (wiederum), got. „*afar*" (dann), das altisl. „*es*" (die spätere Form „*er*" – das Relativpronomen entspricht dem got. Personalpronomen „*is*" (er), die Konjunktion „*als*" entstand infolge der Reduktion der ahd. Form „*alsō*", welche ihrerseits aus der Wortverbindung „*allso*"(ganz) kommt.

Auch die Adverbien entstanden aus den Präpositionen und Präverben-Präfixen, die vor dem Verb standen. Besonders ist es erkennbar an der ide. Wurzel *ˣper* „vor" oder *ˣen* „innerhalb". In einigen Sprachen kommen sie als Adverbien oder Präverben vor. Die Präpositionen, die aus den Adverbien stammen z. B. *aus* < germ. *ˣūt*; *aus* < germ. *ˣuf/up* können als Adverbien beim Verb bleiben oder sie verwandeln sich in Präpositionen bei dem Substantiv. Beide Prozesse sind den germanischen Sprachen eigen. In der deutschen Sprache können die sogenannten trennbaren Präfixe als Präpositionen auftreten (*durch, um, vor* usw.). Untrennbare Präfixe haben verschiedene Herkunft. Einige von ihnen stammen aus den Wurzeln, denen auch Präpositionen entsprungen sind (vgl. *bei* < ahd. *bī* „neben"). Viele Präpositionen sind aus Wortverbindungen in der späteren Epoche entstanden.

7. Tendenzen in der Wortartenentwicklung

Die Adverbien entstanden aus den bestimmten Kasus der Substantive, der Adjektive und den präpositionalen Gruppen. Als Katalysator dieser Wortart diente die adverbiale Funktion, die die Semantik beeinflusste. Es ist am Beispiel der Dimensionsadjektive erkenntlich. Wenn sie in der adverbialen Funktion auftreten, erhalten sie einen charakterisierenden Nebensinn, ein Urteil: *Der Mond geht groß aus dem Abend hervor*. In diesem Sinne kann man den Sprachwissenschaftlern zustimmen, die die Wortarten vom historisch-genetischen Standpunkt aus als morphologisierte Satzglieder betrachten (Мещанинов 1945: 203). Darum erhalten die Adverbien die Spuren ihrer syntaktischen Herkunft: *anders, rings, keinesfalls* (die ehemaligen Genitivformen*), seit Kurzem, bei Weitem* usw., weil die Eigenschaften eines Satzgliedes zu der kategorialen Prägung einer Wortart verallgemeinert werden können.

Die alten qualitativen Adverbien sind bekanntlich Kasusformen der Adjektive, die im adverbialen Gebrauch morphologisiert wurden. Diese Ausgangsformen sind verschieden in verschiedenen indoeuropäischen Sprachen; vgl. das lat. „bonō" und das Adjektiv „*gut*", welche Relikte des ide. Ablativus sind, die aber schon im 15. Jahrhundert als Wortart im Deutschen untergingen.

Und noch eine Tendenz macht sich innerhalb der Wortart Adjektiv bemerkbar. Viele relative Adjektive verwandeln sich in qualitative d. h. sie werden adjektivisiert. Davon zeugt die Möglichkeit, Steigerungsstufen zu bilden, die nur den qualitativen Adjektiven eigen sind: *Goldener glänzte die Sonne* (J. W. Goethe). Daraus folgt, dass die Differenzierung des alten ide. Nomens in dieser Richtung vor sich gegangen ist: Nomen → das Substantiv → das Adjektiv → das Adverb. Im Ide. gab es dagegen eine deutliche Differenzierung zwischen Nomen und Verb. Und es lässt sich durch den verbalen Charakter des ide. Satzes erklären.

Daraus kann man schließen, dass die Grenzen zwischen den Wortarten vom logischen Standpunkt aus fließend sind. So kann ein Pronomen als ein Substantiv (ich, du) oder als ein Adjektiv „mein, dein" oder als Adverb „dort, hier" auftreten. Doch vom grammatischen Standpunkt aus sind sie kompakte Einheiten, deren Grenzen die Homonymie bilden, z. B. „*eben*" – *flach, horizontal* (Adjektiv), „*eben*" – *gerade jetzt* (Adverb).

Mit dem Ausbau der syntaktischen Zentren des deutschen Satzes (flektiert; unflektiert), mit der Schaffung der syntaktischen Proportionen zwischen der verbalen und substantivischen Sphäre, die sowohl mit der Thema-Rhema-Gliederung als auch mit den Nominalisierungstendenzen im modernen Deutsch verbunden sind, macht sich die entgegengesetzte Entwicklungslinie bemerkbar, nach der die Adverbien und Präverben adjektiviert werden:

das Haus liegt dort→ das Haus dort→ das dortige Haus;
das Fenster ist zu→ das zuene Fenster.

Die angeführten Besonderheiten der Wortarten sind nicht universal und unterscheiden sich von Sprache zu Sprache. Das betrifft auch das System der Wortarten und Satzglieder. Das gilt auch für die qualitativen Besonderheiten der Kategorien, die den bestimmten Wortarten zugrunde liegen.

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Note on the author:

Bohdan Maxymtschuk, PhD, is Professor of the Department of German Philology (since 2007). He is the author of over 90 publications, five textbooks, including: *Lehr- und Übungsbuch zur Geschichte der deutschen Sprache*, Lwiw, 2003; *Einführung in die Germanistik*, Lwiw, 2012; *Lexikologie der deutschen Sprache*, Lwiw, 2005; *Deutsch für Philologen*, Lwiw, 2004; *Einführung in die Phonetik der deutschen Sprache*, Lwiw, 2012. He has been a co-organizer of Bavarian- Ukrainian Congresses of Germanists, editor of the collection of scientific works of members of Congresses, co-organizer of cooperation between the Department of Germanic Studies and Institute of Germanic Studies of the Erlangen-Nuremberg University. He has been a member of the international scientific conferences in Warsaw, Krakow, Vienna, Kiev, Lviv, Chernivtsi, etc. He has been awarded scholarships of German academic exchange service (DAAD) and the Austrian academic Exchange Service (OeAD). The OeAD Scholarship gave the opportunity to research in scientific libraries of Vienna. As a result of this research, a series of books and articles on Austrian Germanists who worked at Lviv University (R.Werner, Y.Shats) were published.

e-mail address: deutsch@franko.lviv.ua

Olga Ruda
Constantine the Philosopher University, Nitra

ENGLISH-UKRAINIAN LEXICOGRAPHY OF THE SECOND HALF OF THE 20th CENTURY

Abstract*: In this paper, we report on Ukrainian-English dictionaries published between 1950 and 1999. Ukrainian-English terminological dictionaries are the main object of our study, which has detected a high and dynamic level of terminography in Ukraine. The classification of terminological dictionaries is related to their structural features and functions. Basic terminographic processes are briefly outlined; methods and techniques of terminological compilation are mentioned. The purpose of this paper is to discuss the history of Ukrainian-English terminography after 1950 in more detail and to provide basic information about terminological and translation dictionaries of that period along with an overview of recent publications. The wide scope of lexicographical work in Ukraine during the second half of the 20th century shows that Ukrainian terminological lexicography is actively and fruitfully developing by improving its methodological basis and terminographic work, and expanding the range of lexicographically processed disciplines.*

Introduction

In recent years, researchers have become increasingly interested in English-Ukrainian terminological lexicography. However, few investigations have focused on translational terminological dictionaries. As a result "it is commonly felt that a sound knowledge of technical terms is necessary for a proper understanding of the subject, technical terms are the means that lay for us solid foundations on which to build further knowledge" (Fedorenko et.al. 2009: 256). An attempt has been made to reflect the translation lexicography of Ukraine of the second half of the 20th century; while taking into account the progress of lexicography in the 1990s, it is likely there are some terminographic scientific and technical works of that period that have fallen beyond the scope of our attention.

Even in the distance past, Ukrainian academics, despite the persecution of language and culture, were creating dictionaries, but colonial governments inhibited such work by prohibiting the Ukrainian language. Although in the past the authors repeatedly managed to bypass censorship and produce dictionaries for Ukrainians, it became a kind of academic manifesto: they preserved the language of the people, argued that the Ukrainian language was richer than their colonizers' and contributed to the spiritual revival of the Ukrainian nation and ideas of national identity (Комова 2003: 7; Полюга 2010).

Some Central and Eastern European countries such as Ukraine have also observed diversification of the languages spoken within their borders (Ruda 2014: 534; Salakhyan 2012: 145; Salakhyan 2012: 332; Seidlhofer 2011: 133). J. House stresses the fact that in Eastern Europe: "English is welcomed as an auxiliary language and as a means to discard Russian, which had been imposed, but eventually failed, as a language of inter-state communication. Clashes and conflicts of loyalty between native languages and Russian often occurred in the former Soviet Union. The fear fuelled by some that a hegemonic language would squash native languages was therefore most certainly true of Russian in the Soviet Empire and its satellites – in the case of English, the situation is different" (House 2003: 561).

1. A sketch of the history of the Ukrainian lexicography

S.I. Landau points out that "dictionary is a powerful word [...] because the word suggests authority, scholarship, and precision" (Landau 1984: 5). In the history of Ukrainian lexicography you can find an interesting phenomenon: in past times of colonial oppression and Ukrainian statelessness, in times of persecution and restrictions of the Ukrainian language and culture, it was mainly lexicographical work that helped people to preserve their national identity, and dictionaries often appeared before certain crucial moments in Ukrainian history and contributed to a national awakening and spiritual uplifting of the ethnic group. They were exponents of ideas of national pride – a sense of identity and its historical continuity. In times of intensified persecution of the Ukrainian national language, the only dictionaries belonged to those publications that legally certified, protected and sustained the Ukrainian nation (Комова 2003; Полюга 2000; Полюга 2002). However, it was not manifested in political activities, but still, even this form of expression of national consciousness testified to a certain consciousness of nation and helped in the creation of a national spirit. This can be confirmed by comparing the different stages of development of the Ukrainian lexicography with corresponding periods of the history of Ukraine, including its national awakening. Preparation and publication of individual works or series usually coincided with the corresponding stages of the history of the Ukrainian people and sometimes preceded them (Полюга 2000; Полюга 2006). According to G.P.Delahunty and J.J. Garvey (1994: 385), "Dictionaries fulfil a desire created by particular historical and cultural circumstances".

1.1. Genesis of Ukrainian lexicography
M. Komova (2003, 2008) points out that Ukrainian lexicography originated in the 16th century when the first Church-Ukrainian dictionary "Leksys" (Vilnius, 1596) by Z. Tustanovskyi was compiled. This means that Ukrainian lexicography dates back 418 years. Between 1627 and 1650 the following dictionaries were published: the Church-Ukrainian dictionary by Pamvo Berynda and the Latin-Ukrainian dictionary by Ye. Slavynetskyi (1642) and the Ukrainian-Latin diction-

ary by A. Koretskyi-Satanovskyi (1650), which introduced the Ukrainian language to the scientific fields (Комова 2003: 7; Комова 2008).

As stated by G.P. Delahunty and J.J. Garvey, "The modern dictionary is the product of a history..." (Delahunty & Garvey 1994: 385). The emergence of the Ukrainian literary revival was accompanied by the appearance of a number of dictionaries representing the historical collections of songs by Maksymovych (1827), M. Tsertelyev (1819) and I. Rudchenko (1847), grammar by O. Pavlovskyi (1818) and published works by I. Kotlyarevskyi (1798, 1808, 1809 and 1842) and A. Mohyla (A. Metlynskyi, 1839), as well as explanations of individual words in the publications of F. Tumanskyi (1793), P. Danilevskyi (1813), I. Voytsehovych (1823), I. Kulzhynskyi (1827), P. Biletskyi-Nosenko (1843) and others (Комова 2003; Полюга 2000). In the mid-19th century in Ukraine, often under the auspices of the Shevchenko Scientific Society, Ukrainian terminology and terminography began to develop intensively (Комова 2003: 7). During this period, as stated by L. Polyuha (2000), after the new tsar's bans of the Ukrainian language, Ukrainian Sunday schools, the printing of Ukrainian books, books for children, baptism of children with Ukrainian names (1862, 1863, 1876, 1888, 1895), there were dictionaries prepared that were not published (by M. Ruberovskyi – end of the 19th century), but some of them were published, for instance a lexicographical work by F. Piskunov (1873 and 1882), M. Levchenko (1874), and one of the best dictionaries of the time *Dictionary of the Ukrainian Language* by B. Grinchenko (1907-1909) and many others (Полюга 2000; Полюга 2005-6).

Despite national oppression and domination of Russophilism, in Galicia in the late 19th century there were lexicographical works published by E. Zhelehivskyi and S. Nedilskyi (1885-1886), J. Verkhratskyi (1864-1872, 1879, 1892, 1899, 1894, 1908, 1912), and by several other lexicographers, such as I. Vahylevych (1838-1842, 1849), A. Popovych (1867, 1904, 1911), O. Partytskyi (1867), L. Chopey (1883), J. Kobylyanskyi (1907), V. Kmitsykevych (1912), I. Sventsitskyi (1890), and others (Полюга 2000; Полюга 2004). As suggested by A. Levitsky et.al. (2006: 54), "Language can also act as a cohesive political force, and has always been used for political ends. For the same reasons, a language may be a target for attack or suppression, if the authorities associate it with what they consider a rebellious group or even just as a culturally inferior one".

1.2. Development of Ukrainian lexicography in the early 20th century

The Ukrainian national revival of the 1920s and 1930s was marked by the publication of various dictionaries, including terminological ones. According to incomplete data, from 1920 to 1932 in Ukraine in various publishing houses 15 medical terminological dictionaries, 13 from the field of botany, 10 in mathematics and mechanics, 8 in case management, 8 in law, 9 in physics, 4 in chemistry and others also appeared (Комова 2003; Полюга 2000). In general, the Institute of Scientific Language, which was liquidated during Stalin's genocide, planned to

issue about one hundred terminological dictionaries, but it managed to publish only 24 (Полюга 2000). Furthermore, impeding the publishing of terminological dictionaries there were the prohibitions on the Ukrainian language and its persecution by the totalitarian regime in the USSR (Комова 2003: 7). In the late 1940s authoritative international terminological organizations launched their activities, in particular, the International Organization for Standardization (ISO) and the International Electrotechnical Commission (IEC). The range of their tasks included standardization of terminology, selection of term equivalents in different languages, and the compilation of an international electro-technical dictionary.

2. Terminological lexicography in the second half of the 20th century

As M. Komova stresses (2003), from previous decades the terminological lexicography of the 1950s had inherited rich terminographical national traditions – and the consequences of its total destruction in the 1930s. At that time, dictionaries had only single printed editions. In the late 1950s the development of science, technology and education and the publication of a large amount of scientific and scholarly literature in the Ukrainian language from different fields of knowledge led to the need to create dictionaries which, in addition to their direct purpose – to provide a Ukrainian counterpart to a concept – were designed to help to organize and normalize Ukrainian scientific and technical terminology. In 1957 a special lexicographical commission was established, whose task was to identify the basic principles of compiling dictionaries and to organize dictionary compilers and editors (Комова 2003: 9; Полюга 2003).

2.1. Translational lexicography: main problems and accomplishments

Lexicographic publications of the 1960s and 1980s, although continued, faced a limitation of the use of the Ukrainian language; however, they seemed to prepare the ground for a modern national revival (Полюга 2000). According to M. Komova (2003), during the 1960s and 1970s terminographic work experienced some growth. According to Aleš Svoboda and Teodor Hrehovčík, "In the 1980s, improvement and up-to-dateness was primarily seen in 'classical' printed dictionaries" (Svoboda, Hrehovčík 2006: 169). In compiling dictionaries, lexicographers are governed by provisions that dictionaries should reflect the current level of science and technology, strengthen the real practical use of terms in scientific and academic literature published in Ukrainian and Russian, and should arrange terms of specific fields of knowledge (Богуцкая et al. 1982). Terminologists began to include in the terminological dictionaries nomenclature and some commonly used words that are present in a certain branch of knowledge, but they also added synonyms of the terms, but eliminated archaisms, dialect words and professionalisms of limited usage (Комова 2003: 10; Крижанівська 1984).

Dictionaries of that period reflected the conceptual-terminological apparatus exclusively of the humanities and natural branches of science: politics, philosophy, law, psychology, mathematics, physics, biology, agriculture, music and

numismatics. Translation bilingual dictionaries contained terms from the technical spheres, such as mining, engineering and mechanical engineering, hydraulic engineering, electro-radio technology, thermal engineering and welding, the printing and publishing business, manufacturing, garment production; as well as from the scientific and natural spheres, such as geology, geography, physics, mechanics, chemistry, mathematics, botany, physiology, veterinary medicine, anatomy, and other areas, such as socio-economics, agriculture, journalism, linguistics and sports (Комова 2003: 10; Панько et al. 1994). Unfortunately, these dictionaries arrived into the world with miniscule circulation. Trilingual dictionaries were rare at that time (Комова 2003: 11; Комова 2008).

But, as Prof. L. Polyuha (2000) points out, the 1980s were marked by a decline in specialist lexicography. Generally in that decade, only about 20 publications were presented to the public, mostly of the reference and encyclopaedic type. As for the status of lexicography of that period, we wryly observe the fact that in Ukraine in 1980, 1984, and 1988 no terminological dictionaries were issued.

2.2. Ukrainian terminological lexicography in the 1990s

The current stage of the growth of national consciousness is characterized by a rapid development of lexicographic work, which has resulted in the development of education, culture and the intellectual potential of people. The importance and necessity of this task is indicated by the years of our independence. Lexicography has become a necessary component of statehood. This is clearly demonstrated by the publication of terminological dictionaries. The Book Chamber of Ukraine states that, from 1990 till 1999, Ukraine issued 331 terminological dictionaries (Комова 2003; Полюга 2000). At the same time every year about 6 to 10 solely translational lexicographical works appeared (Полюга 2000). Thus, in total over the mentioned period more than 400 dictionaries were published.
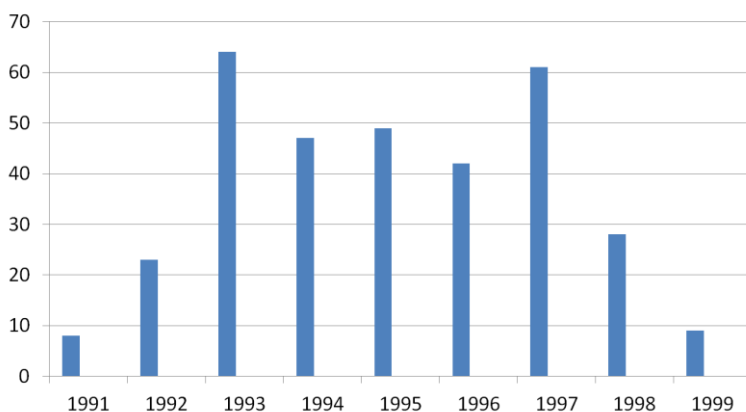

Diagram 1. Terminological lexicography in Ukraine (1991-1999)

For comparison, before 1990 only 1300 dictionaries were published in total (Полюга 2000). Over the years, these statistics are as follows: 5 terminological dictionaries were published in 1990, 1991 – 8, 1992 – 23, 1993 – 64, 1994 – 47, 1995 – 49, 1996 – 42, 1997 – 61, 1998 – 28, 1999 – 9 (incomplete data; Полюга 2000). According to L.Polyuha (2000), these terminologies represented various areas of knowledge: medical science – 51 dictionaries, economics and finance – 46, industry – 25, computer technologies – 16, more than 10 dictionaries are devoted to terminology of chemistry, physics, mathematics, construction, the environmental sphere, engineering, law, political science and ecology. About 5 dictionaries were devoted to agriculture, biology, zoology, surveying, radio engineering, pedagogy and several other areas of knowledge and science. In particular these dictionaries refer to school subjects such as literature, linguistics, geography and others.

In M. Komova's (2003) words, Russian scientific, educational and reference literature clearly dominated the bookshelves in the early 1990s. Because of the practical need to introduce the Ukrainian language into all spheres of public life, the Ukrainian academic community focused its efforts on creating translation dictionaries. Among the bilingual translation dictionaries, Russian-Ukrainian ones dominated. Bilingual dictionaries (dictionary series) with Ukrainian as the source language are comparatively rare. However, following the need for a deeper study of Ukrainian terminography there were added alphabetical indexes of Ukrainian terms for a number of Russian-Ukrainian dictionaries. Unlike in previous decades, in the 1990s such languages as English, sometimes German, French, and Latin were added to the list of translation dictionaries. If in previous years multilingual translation dictionaries were few, over the past decade, the addition of terms in two, three or more languages has become a constant feature of Ukrainian terminography. Among the most common forms of multilingual dictionaries are trilingual, in which Ukrainian and Russian terms are supplemented by English equivalents, and (rarely) by German, French, Latin and Polish ones. In the trilingual medical dictionaries, beside Ukrainian and Latin terms, English or Russian counterparts are added (Комова 2003: 14-15; Симоненко et al. 1993).

The same languages but in different order are present in trilingual dictionaries and quadrilingual dictionaries of medicine, economics, management, physics and mining. For example the "Russian-Ukrainian-English-German Metallurgic Dictionary" by V.I. Nozhyn (Dnipropetrovsk, 2000), the "Ukrainian-English-German-French Dictionary of Philosophy" (Chernihiv, 1999), the "German-English-Russian-Ukrainian Dictionary of Economics" (Kyiv, 1997), compiled by L.O. Khomenko. In some of them alphabetical indexes of terms in languages that do not form the initial series of terms are added. In 1995 two dictionaries were published devoted to ecology and computer science in 5 languages. The final decades of the 20th century presented unique examples of terminography to the scientific community (Комова 2003; Полюга 2000). Among the published dictionaries there were dictionaries with two, three, four and five and even six languages (Diagram 2).
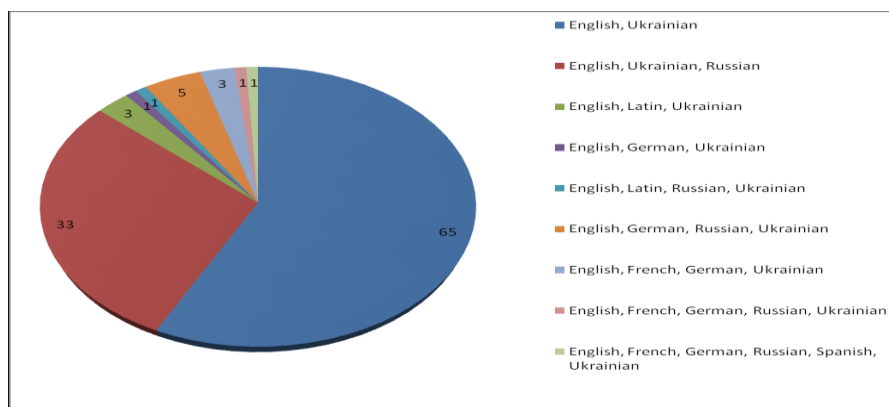
Diagram 2. Language combinations in English-Ukrainian multilingual dictionaries

In the 1960s and 1970s the centre of dictionary publishing was Kyiv (Diagram 3). Only a few dictionaries were published in Lviv or Kharkiv and only due to the presence in these cities of powerful scientific centres (Комова 2003: 11). As for the publishing of geography books, as well as in the past, the gold medal is held by Kyiv – 172 dictionaries were issued, Kharkiv – 45, Lviv – 39 (Полюга 2000).
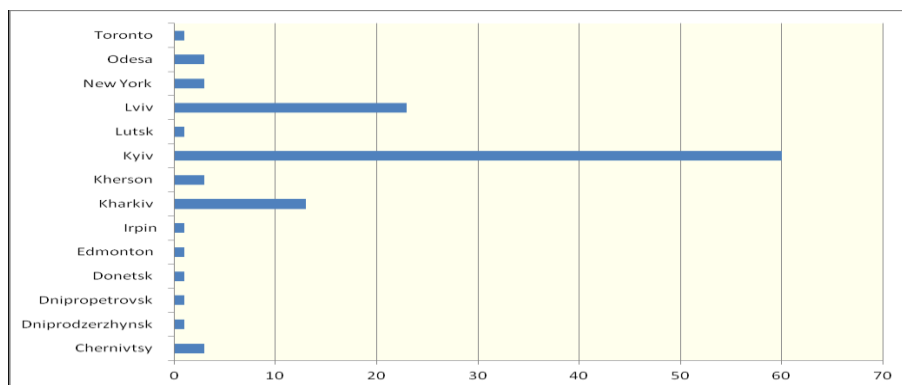

Diagram 3. Book publishing centeres in Ukraine and abroad

Ukrainian terminography has good results in the areas of regulation, unification and development of terminological systems, consolidation of Ukrainian terminology on a national basis, and as a consequence, in the development of our own terminological lexicography. To illustrate this point, M. Komova stresses the fact that during a decade of Ukrainian independence about 550 terminological dictionaries were published (for comparison in the USSR for 41 year (1948-1989) only 101 such works were published), and these figures speak for themselves. The creation of such dictionaries is supported first of all mostly by the enthusiasm of their authors and demonstrates a great capacity of these people and their wish to

manage Ukrainian terminological systems and to provide the broadest opportunities for the development of the Ukrainian language in Ukraine and in the different technical, political, trade, economic and cultural fields (Комова 2003: 8; Комова 2011).

It is common knowledge that effective specialized communication requires unambiguous terminology. Therefore, terminology monitoring, coordination, analysis of the special vocabularies and unification of pertinent results in the form of glossaries, dictionaries, terminological standards or terminology databases, which modern-day Ukraine lacks, is considered by the Ukrainian Academy of Sciences to be a priority.

3. Ukrainian translational lexicography at the turn of the century

Today lexicography does not have much public support and is mainly upheld by the enthusiasm of terminologists. During the years 1990-2001 more than 550 terminological dictionaries from various disciplines were published. Almost throughout the decade a tendency can be observed to increase to a high level the dynamism of terminological lexicography (Комова 2003: 13). Terminological dictionaries of the final years of the 20th century are characterized by a detailed coverage of various terminological spheres. Multi-field dictionaries cover terminology of several related spheres of science and technology and use a common conceptual and terminological apparatus. Single-field dictionaries constitute the most substantial part of the terminological lexicography and cover a variety of areas of social activities, science and technology (Комова 2003: 13-14). Subfield terminological dictionaries reflect the individual terminological subsystems of industry or science. Within the agricultural sphere we can mention the "English-Russian-Ukrainian Dictionary on the Terminology of Beekeeping" (about 6500 terms) (Kyiv, 1997) (Панько et al. 1994; Комова 2003; Полюга 2000).

The terminology of economics and management is thoroughly explored: (73 dictionaries), compared to medicine (57) and law (30) (Diagram 4). It is widely reflected in translation and explanatory dictionaries. Lexicographical works reflect the economic sphere in general as well as terminology of specific economic subfields such as banking, finance, microeconomics, market economics, foreign economics, stock market, stock exchange trading, accounting and others. Medical terminology is reflected in dictionaries that cover up to 50 different terminological subsystems of medicine: dentistry, surgery, traumatology, cardiology, oncology, orthopaedics, pharmacology, immunology, forensic medicine, military medicine, dermatology, neurology and many others. What is noteworthy is the multitude of authorial teams that are working simultaneously on terminology of these spheres, especially on medicine (Комова 2003; Полюга 2000). A high level of representation is common for dictionaries from such fields as chemistry (21), computer science, computer engineering (27), business communications (17), programming, mathematics (13), ecology (11), machinery (12), architecture (12), biology (8), agriculture (9), political science (9), education (8), linguistics (7),

military field (6), electronics (6), aviation, rocket and space technology (6). Also of interest are dictionaries devoted to the fields of music (4), theology (3), maritime (2), numismatics (2), sculpture, art, wine, customs service, heraldry, rhetoric, advertising, pottery (1) (Симоненко 2009; Комова 2003: 14-15).
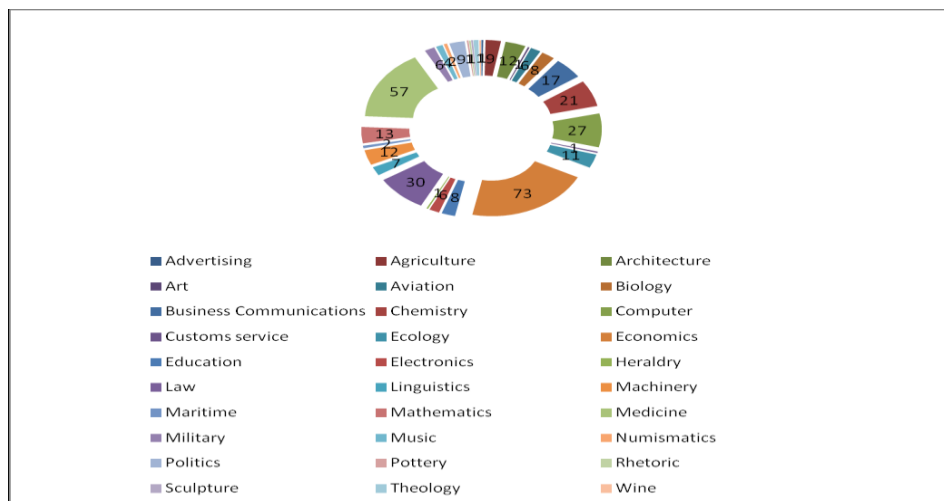

Diagram 4. Terminological dictionaries: field representation

Therefore, the problems of stating common principles in the compiling of terminological dictionaries, the unification and standardization of conceptual-terminological apparatus, and consistent decision-making regarding terminology and terminography are very important.

3.1. Structural peculiarites of translational lexicography
The last decade of the 20th century enriched lexicographic practice by compiling illustrative terminological dictionaries, which use artwork as a means of visual reproduction of knowledge and concepts. This principle is implemented in the dictionaries of wine, heraldry and ceramics. The most elaborated terminological systems presented in numerous publications are economics, computer technology, automation (18 dictionaries), Law (10) and political science (7) (Комова 2003).

Humanities and social sciences are represented by the most extensive range of subfields covered in lexicographical works, for instance: religious studies, sociology, rhetoric, political science, philosophy, logic, law, history, public administration, archaeology, palaeontology, art, music, linguistics, literature, culture, bibliography, social science, education and psychology. Translation dictionaries devoted to medicine, veterinary medicine, biology, physics, chemistry, geodesy and ecology were also published in the 1990s. Among the terminological lexicographical works of the 1990s we can distinguish the following types of publications according to their structure: serial, single-volume and multi-volume editions (Комова 2003; Полюга 2000).

M. Komova (2003) draws attention to the dictionaries that are parts of series; they are designed in the same way as previous ones, and subject matter, purpose and target audience are also the same, but the most common are single-volume editions of terminological dictionaries. Two-volume terminological dictionaries are also popular. Dictionaries reflecting the particular sphere of science have a clearly defined purpose and functionality – to reflect the conceptual terminology of different fields of science and technology and to provide scientific, educational and industrial fields with adequate terminology. It leads to a specific selection criterion of terminological materials according to the readers' focus (Комова 2003; Полюга 2000).

Terminographical works are designed for a wide circle of scholars, teachers and students of all specialisms, and scientific and technical staff. Therefore, it is useful to expand the boundaries of terminological dictionaries in schools through their inclusion in the educational process and through the extension of the range of subjects where it would be necessary to use terminological dictionaries. Dictionaries should be used as practical guides or manuals in the teaching process (Кровицька 2010; Крижанівська 1984; Наконечна 1999).

However, there are dictionaries that have arisen as a result of monitoring the professional vocabulary of certain categories of professionals or groups of speakers. On the basis of the primacy of the publication of lexicographical work, they can be classified into original, reprinted and translated. Dictionaries in the 1990s were mostly original lexicographical works. Translations of contemporary foreign lexicographical works as means of exchange of scientific information are not very numerous. The attention of the academic community can be drawn to only a few books: "The Ukrainian-English Dictionary of Business Terms" (Chernihiv, 1992), "Computer Dictionary" (Kyiv, 1997), "Dictionary of Biblical Theology" (Lviv, 1996) (Комова 2003; Полюга 2000-2006).
It is inherent in the modern terminology that terms function as three structural types: one-word terms, composite terms and phrase terms. According to this type of term structure, terminological dictionaries can be divided into the following types: general and incomplete. General dictionaries reflect grammatical types of terms; the vast majority of lexicographical works are of this type. Incomplete dictionaries are rare. They reflect terms that belong to a separate structural and derivational type or are formed by a certain word-formation model. Thus, established in professional use, expressions are reflected in the reprinted edition of the "Phraseological Dictionary of Business Language" by V. Pidmohylnyi and Ye. Pluzhnyk, and in the "Explanatory English-Ukrainian Dictionary of Idioms for Business" by A.H. Latyhina (Київ, 2000) (Комова 2003; Полюга 2000).

As for dictionaries that include terms with international elements, we can mention the "Dictionary of International Terminological Elements of Greek and Latin Origin in Modern Terminology" (Kyiv, 1996) by I.M. Hnatyshena and T.R. Kyyak, and the "Ukrainian-English Dictionary of Scientific Terms with the Prefix Non-" by O. Kocherha and Ye. Meynarovych.

3.2. Ukrainian lexicography and diaspora publications

M. Komova points out that terminographic work is also carried out outside Ukraine (Комова 2003; Полюга 2000). Since WWII the Ukrainian diaspora has made significant achievements in terminography by consolidating their efforts in the Ukrainian Terminology Center in America, the Ukrainian Engineers Society of America, the Terminological Commission of the T. Shevchenko Scientific Society, and the Scientific Research Society of Ukrainian Terminology. The activity of terminological organizations in establishing conferences, publications of diaspora magazines and newspapers has created the academic and linguistic environment in which Ukrainian terminology functions (Комова 2003; Полюга 2000). That is why special attention is drawn to dictionaries compiled by the Ukrainian diaspora, such as the "German-Ukrainian Dictionary of Electrical Engineering" by M. Savchuk, published in Munich in 1981, and the "Ukrainian-English Dictionary of Computer Terms" (Edmonton, 1982), compiled in the Canadian Institute of Ukrainian Studies. The most interesting lexicographical works of the Ukrainian diaspora include dictionaries by P. Shtepa the "Dictionary of Foreign Words in Ukrainian" (Toronto, 1967) and the "Dictionary of Foreign Words" (Toronto, 1977), and A. Vovk's "Concise English-Ukrainian Dictionary of Science, Technology and Modern Life" (New York, 1982), and "English-Ukrainian Dictionary of Color Names" (New York, Toronto, 1986) (Комова 2003; Кровицька 2010; Полюга 2000).

Conclusions

The wide scope of lexicographical work in Ukraine during the first decade of independence and creative relationships with academic centres of the diaspora show that Ukrainian terminological lexicography is actively and fruitfully developing by improving its methodological basis and terminographic work, expanding the circle of lexicographically processed disciplines. Despite the difficulties and contradictions of its development during the second half of the 20th century, terminological lexicography has restored its specific features as a powerful factor in the formation and consolidation of Ukrainian professional language (see Kohn 2011; Ruda 2014; Ruda 2015). The classification of dictionaries is based on various parameters that define some aspect of the analysis of documents. Every aspect of the analysis combines a set of document types that have certain characteristics. The basis of every classification scheme has a differential feature: the ratio of left and right parts of the dictionary and their location; composition and selection of register and dictionary range; subject reflection; reflection of historical processes; and the main goal and purpose of a given dictionary. The classification of terminological dictionaries is related to their structural features and functions.

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Note on the author:
Olga Ruda, PhD, is Associate Professor at the Department of English and American Studies, Faculty of Arts, Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra (Slovakia).
e-mail address: olharu@yahoo.ca

Part 4.

LITERATURE

Beata Giblak
Staatliche Hochschule Nysa

DIE ROLLE DER REGIONALEN LITERATUR IN DER FREMDSPRACHENDIDAKTIK EINER HOCHSCHULE. BEISPIEL: MAX HERRMANN-NEIßE

Abstract: *The purpose of this article is to present the didactic concept "Literarische Spaziergänge durch Neisse". It was realised together with students of the University of Applied Sciences in Nysa during the courses. The project work is based on literary texts of the writer Max Herrmann-Neiße who originally comes from Nysa. Using the example of the project, the article examines the benefits which come from the presented approach as well as the significance that falls to regional literature in the context of a place of ruptured culture. Finally, the article indicates the reception and the possibilities of continuation of the project.*

Einleitung

Das Ziel des vorliegenden Beitrags ist es, das didaktische Konzept *Literarische Spaziergänge durch Neisse*, das im Rahmen der Lehrveranstaltungen mit Studierenden der Stattlichen Fachhochschule Nysa realisiert wird, zu präsentieren. Das Projekt basiert auf den Texten des aus der Stadt Nysa, dem ehemaligen Neisse, stammenden Schriftstellers – Max Herrmann-Neiße.

Am Beispiel des Projekts wird es der Frage nachgegangen, welche Vorzüge diese Art des Umgangs mit den literarischen Texten mit sich bringt und welche Bedeutung die regionale Literatur im Raum der gebrochenen Kulturen hat und haben kann. Des weiteren wird auf die Rezeption und die Möglichkeiten der Fortsetzung des Projekts hingewiesen.

1. Regionalprofil der Hochschule in Nysa

Kulturhistorisch gesehen ist Nysa, ein ehemaliges Neisse, ein Ort, an dem sprachliche und staatliche Grenzen mehrmals ineinanderflossen. Diese uralte slawische Siedlung wurde zunächst von ihren Herrschern – den Breslauer Fürstbischöfen mit der deutschsprachigen Bevölkerung angesiedelt, befand sich dann unter der böhmischen, österreichischen und später preußischen Krone, war bis 1945 deutsch und wurde nach dem vollständigen ethnischen „Austausch" der Bevölkerung nach 1945 polnisch.

Das kulturelle Erbe des Neisser Landes findet im heutigen lokalen Deutschlehrerbildungskonzept ihre Widerspiegelung. Die germanistische Abteilung der

Fachhochschule Nysa hat sich regionalkundlich profiliert und knüpft an die lange deutschsprachige Tradition der Region an. Solche Fächer wie Literatur- und Kulturgeschichte Schlesiens oder Regionalunterricht sind ein fester Bestandteil des Studienprogramms der Neisser Germanisten. Dabei erweist sich Neisse als Kulturraum keineswegs unproblematisch. Insbesondere nach dem Bevölkerungsaustausch 1945 wird die Aneignung der Kulturtraditionen für die Einwohner der Stadt problematisch. Darauf weist u.a. Wojciech Kunicki in der Einleitung zu einem für die DeutschstudentInnen der Fachhoschule Nysa verfassten Lehrbuch hin:

> Diese Stadt ist also problematisch, keineswegs durch irgendeine Formel zu kaschieren, sondern ein Ort der gebrochenen Erinnerungen nicht nur für die lebendigen „ehemals deutschen" (oder die gestorbenen deutschen), sondern auch oder vor allem für die heutigen polnischen (oder auch für die ehemals polnischen, weil gestorbenen) Einwohner, die jahrzehntelang den so hochgejubelten Traditionen mit Argwohn begegnet sein mussten, auch und vornehmlich dann, wenn sie diese „Traditionen" präziser gekannt haben. (Kunicki: 8).

Die Betrachtung der Kultur durch das Prisma der nationalen Identität ist ein Störfaktor, der die Aneignung der Kultur einschränkt. Um diese Betrachtungsweise zu dekonstruieren, formuliert der Autor einige Prämissen, die andere Perspektiven als „der nationale Identitätskurs" für die Betrachtung der Kultur eröffnen. Insbesondere das Prinzip der Nichtidentität scheint mir im Kontext der weiteren Betrachtungen relevant zu sein:

> Die Stadt soll als etwas Fremdes, Nicht-Heimisches, etwas Zu-Erkennendes wahrgenommen werden. Auch die gewohnte Umgebung wird durch den Wechsel der in Schrift fixierten Perspektiven entfremdet und der Erkenntnis dargeboten. Die Stadt wird dadurch im Spannungsfeld zwischen unseren Wahrnehmungsgewohnheiten und den durch den Wechsel der Perspektiven entstandenen Fremdheitseffekt erkannt und neu **gesehen**, das heißt neu **kreiert**. (Kunicki 2005: 9).

2. Max Herrmann-Neiße als Identifikationsfigur

Der Schriftsteller Max Herrmann-Neiße (1886-1941) war wie kaum anderer Schriftsteller mit seiner Heimatstadt verbunden. Hier wurde er am 23. Mai 1886 geboren, besuchte das humanistische katholische Gymnasium, lernte seine Frau kennen, arbeitete eine Zeitlang als Theaterkritiker und lebte bis 1917. Im genannten Jahr siedelte er nach Berlin um, wo er bald zu einer unverkennbaren Persönlichkeit der Berliner Boheme wurde und zu einem Autor, der einen breiten Leserkreis und Anerkennung vieler anderen Autoren seiner Zeit gewann. 1933 begab sich der überzeugte Pazifist ins Exil nach London, wo er 1941 starb.

Die Heimatstadt Neisse ist im Werk Herrmann-Neisses wie bei kaum anderem Autor präsent. Dabei pflegte er zu seiner Heimatstadt eine ambivalente Beziehung, die man als Hass-Liebe-Gefühl bezeichnen kann: Hass gegen die spießbürgerliche Mentalität der Neisser und die Provinzialität des Städtchens, das durch den militärischen Geist der Festung und die Dominanz der katholischen Kirche der ehemaligen bischöflichen Residenz geprägt wurde und Liebe für das

idyllische Flair des im Tal, am Fuße des Sudeten-Gebirge gelegenen Städtchens, das ihn an Zürich erinnerte. Diese Beziehung spiegelt sich im Werk jeder seiner Schaffensperioden wider: in der Neißer-, Berliner- und nach 1933 in der Exilzeit.

　　　Max Herrmann-Neiße wurde zur Identifikationsfigur des Neuphilologischen Instituts. Seit der Übersiedelung in ein neues Gebäude 2004 trägt das Neuphilologische Institut den Namen des Schriftstellers und an der Eingangstür des Instituts wurde eine ihm gewidmete Gedenktafel[1] (Abb. 1) angebracht. Dank dessen und dank der Präsenz im Internet u.a. über das vorgestellte Projekt, wurde eine Partnerschaft zwischen dem Neuphilologischen Institut in Nysa und dem Max-Herrmann-Neisse-Institut in Düsseldorf geschlossen. Im Rahmen dieser Zusammenarbeit konnten die Germanistikstudenten aus Düsseldorf zwei literarische Spaziergänge (in Nysa und Wroclaw) auf den Spuren des Dichters und die polnischen Studenten eine von den Düsseldorfer Studierenden vorbereitete Ausstellung und eine Studententagung, beide dem Dichter gewidmet, erleben. Beide Institutionen arbeiten an einem gemeinsamen Editionsprojekt der Schriften Max Herrmanns.[2] 2011 wurde eine dem Dichter gewidmete wissenschaftliche Tagung

Abb. 1 Gedenktafel am Gebäude Collegium Philologicum der Staatlichen Fachhochschule in Nysa, ul. Armii Krajowej. Fot. B. Giblak

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[1] Der Autor der Gedenktafel ist Neisser Bildhauer Marian Molenda.

[2] Näheres zu dem Projekt auf der Webseite des Instituts: http://www.phil-fak.uniduessel dorf.de/germ2/doerr/angegliederte-bereiche/max-herrmann-neisse-institut/. Letzter Zugriff am 03.09.2014

veranstaltet.[3] Der Autor und sein Werk wird ständig von Dozenten der Fachhoch-schule popularisiert. 2010 erscheint die einzige Monographie über den Dichter in der polnischen Sprache,[4] 2012 zweisprachiger Gedichtband,[5] der 68 Gedichte und 2 Prosatexte von Herrmann den polnischen Lesern präsentiert.

Zudem ist der Schriftsteller in der Didaktik präsent. Seine Texte werden in den Lehrveranstaltungen besprochen, mit seinem Werk setzten sich die Studie-renden in ihren Diplomarbeiten auseinander.

3. Projektbezogener Unterricht *Literarische Spaziergänge durch Neisse*

Für das Projekt *Literarische Spaziergänge durch Neisse* lieferten bis jetzt zwei literarische Texte von Herrmann-Neisse den Stoff: *Wallspaziergang bei Neisse*[6] und die Novelle *Die Begegnung*.[7] Gerade die beiden Werke illustrieren das ambi-valente Verhältnis des Dichters zu seiner Stadt. Im *Wallspaziergang bei Neisse* wird der Leser durch die Stadt und ihre nächste Umgebung, die zu einer romanti-schen Staffage stilisiert, durchdrungen von der Aura des einst in diesem Städtchen lebenden Eichendorffs[8], geführt. Die Novelle dagegen ist einer der Texte, in dem sich der Schriftsteller mit der kleinbürgerlichen Mentalität auseinandersetzt. Die kurze Besprechung beider Werke war für die Projektarbeit notwendig, war jedoch nicht das Hauptziel.

In der Vorbereitungsphase wurden die beiden Texte von den Studierenden eingehend durchgelesen und in Anbetracht der darin auftretenden Orte untersucht. Um die Orte, die teilweise nicht mehr existieren oder im Laufe der Geschichte sich veränderten, in der Stadt zu lokalisieren, bedienten sich die Studierenden eines Stadtplans aus den Zeiten des Autors. (Abb. 2). Die Orte bildeten dann die einzelnen Stationen zweier Spazierrouten, die zunächst von den Studierenden beschritten wurden. Die beiden Routen wurden auf dem Stadtplan markiert und aufgelistet. (Abb. 2).

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[3] Internationale Tagung: Max Herrmann-Neisse. Auch zu Hause im Exil fand 06.-10. 2011 statt. CfP und Bericht: http://www.pwsz.nysa.pl/index.php?p=11,130,0,0,-1,256. Letzter Zugriff am 03.09.2014.

[4] Beata Giblak. *Wygnaniec i jego ojczyzny. Max Herrmann-Neiße 1886-1941. Życie. Twórczość. Recepcja.* Wydawnictwo Poznańskie, Poznań 2010.

[5] Max Herrmann-Neiße, *Die Zwischenzeit. 68 Gedichte und 2 Prosastücke anlässlich des 70. Todestages. Ausgewählt, übersetzt, kommentiert und mit einem Vorwort versehen von Beata Giblak und Wojciech kunicki. Czas pośredni. 68 wierszy i 2 fragmenty prozy w 70 rocznicę śmierci.* Przekład, komentarz i wstęp Beata Giblak i Wojciech Kunicki, Atut – Neisse Verlag, Wrocław – Dresden 2012.

[6] Erschien zuerst in „Die literarische Welt" vom 15.07.1931.

[7] Erschien 1925.

[8] Joseph Freiherr von Eichendorff verbrachte in Neisse seine zwei letzten Lebensjahre (1855-1857) und wurde am Jerusalemer Friedhof bestattet.
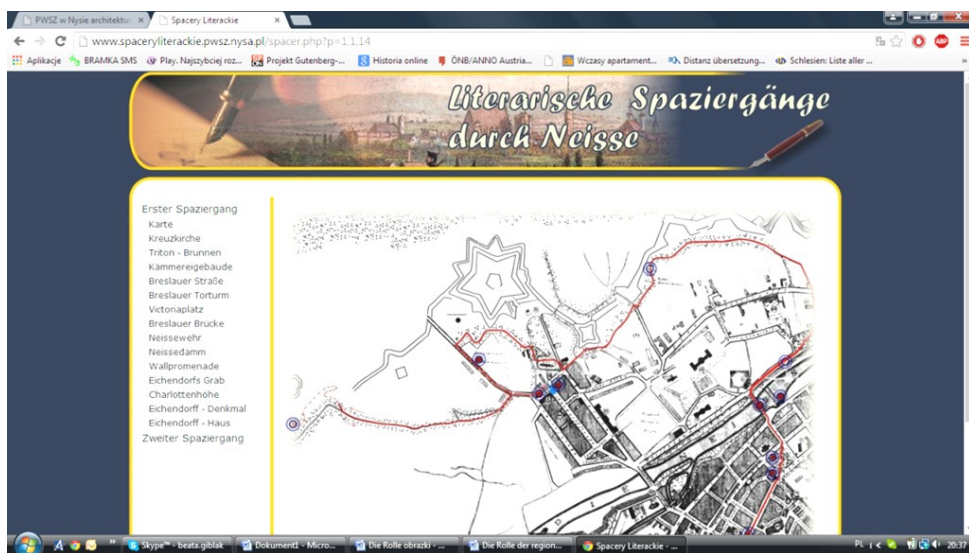
Abb. 2 Titelseite der Webseite *Literarische Spaziergänge durch Neisse*

Anhand des Textes *Wallspaziergang bei Neisse* entstanden 14 Stationen: Kreuzkirche –Triton-Brunnen – Kämmereigebäude – Breslauer Straβe mit dem Torturm – Breslauer Brücke – Neissewehr – Wasserkraftanlage – Eichendorffs Grab, Denkmal und Haus, Charlottenhöhe und Eichendorffs Laube. Anhand des Textes *Die Begegnung* 11 Stationen: Erholung – Stadthaus – Kochstraße – Bahnhof – Schlachthof – Neissewehr – Breslauer Brücke – Eisenbahnüberführung – Schützenhaus – Franziskanerkirche – Sankt Rochus. Wie man aus der obigen Zusammenstellung sieht, haben die Orte einen unterschiedlichen Charakter. Es sind nicht unbedingt die bekanntesten Sehenswürdigkeiten, manche von ihnen, wie Bahnhof oder Neissewehr, sind gemeinnützige Einrichtungen. Einige von ihnen existieren heute nicht mehr.

Der weitere Schritt des Projekts war die Zuordnung der lokalisierten Orte den einzelnen Studierenden. Jede/-r sollte einen Ort zum Fokus nehmen und darüber anhand zugänglicher Quellen einen informativen Text in der deutschen Sprache erstellen. Den informativen Texten wurden entsprechende Zitate aus den literarischen Texten sowie historische und gegenwärtige Aufnahmen oder Postkarten vorausgeschickt und als Fenster einer Webseite erfasst. In der Präsentationphase wurden die individuellen Arbeitsergebnisse zunächst im Forum vorgeführt Der letzte Schritt war Übertragung des Arbeitsergebnisse ins Netz. Das Endergebnis ist auf der Webseite der Hochschule anzusehen[9] und bildet eine Art literarischer Reiseführer. Auf der Abb. 3 kann man ein Beispiel zu einer der Stationen sehen.
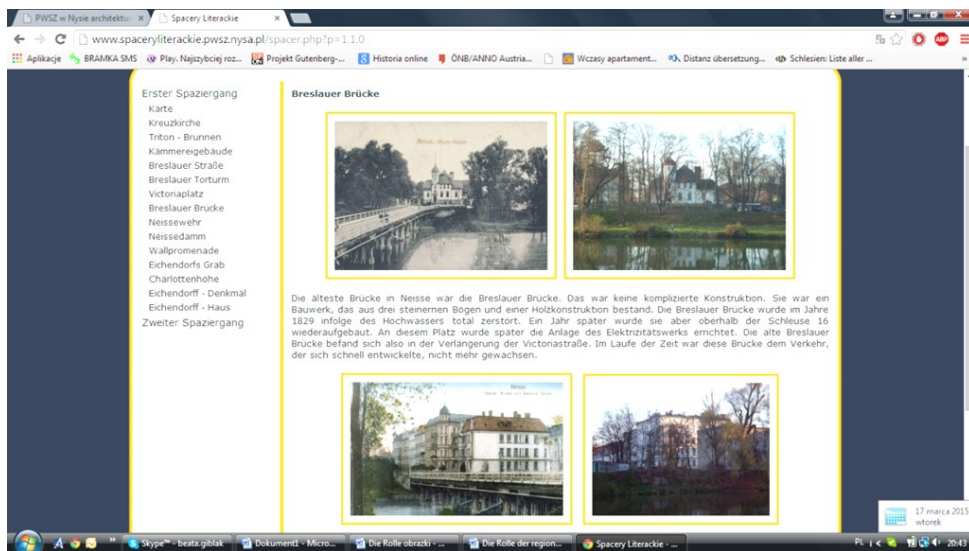
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[9] http://www.spaceryliterackie.pwsz.nysa.pl

Abb. 3 Beispiel einer Station des *Literarischen Spaziergangs*

4. Einige Bemerkungen zur didaktischen Umsetzung der Konzeption

Das Seminar verfolgte mehrere Ziele. Erstens handelte es sich um die Annäherung zum Kulturerbe der Region, konkret der Stadt Neisse. Dieser Vorgang vollzieht sich über den literarischen Text und die damit verbundenen Prozesse der Entfremdung und Neukreierung. Die real existierende Stadt wird mit der vom Autor kreierten Wirklichkeit konfrontiert, ihre bisherige Wahrnehmung wird dekonstruiert bis eine neue Kreation entstanden ist, die die beiden Perspektiven (die des Autors und die gesehene) verbindet. Als Nebenwirkung der Textarbeit kann die Annäherung zum Text betrachtet werden. Obwohl es sich grundsätzlich nicht um die Textinterpretation handelte, blieb der Text, der Autor, seine Epoche und seine Botschaft immer dabei. Auch Verortung der Handlung könnte als Annäherung zum Text angesehen werden. Verbindung zu realen Orten trug auch zur Steigerung der Interesse, sowohl an dem literarischen Text als auch an dem zu bearbeitenden Objekt bei, wenn auch das Interesse nicht selten erst im Laufe der Aufgaberealisierung sich aufbaute. Ein weiteres Ziel war der Versuch, die Projektarbeit als didaktische Lehr- und Lernmethode auszuprobieren, um so mehr als projektbezogener Unterricht kraft der Verordnung des polnischen Bildungsministeriums obligatorisch ins Lernprogramm an polnischen Gymnasien eingeführt wurde[10]. Als Lernende hatten die angehenden DeutschlehrerInnen die Möglichkeit

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[10] Verordnung des polnischen Bildungsministeriums vom 20. August 2010 *Rozporządzenie Ministra Edukacji Narodowej z dnia 20 sierpnia 2010 r. zmieniające rozporządzenie w sprawie warunków i sposobu oceniania, klasyfikowania i promowania uczniów i słuchaczy oraz przeprowadzania sprawdzianów i egzaminów w szkołach publicznych*. Dz.U. Nr 156, poz. 1046. **(**G. Bl. Nr. 156, Pos. 1046).

selbst an allen Etappen der Projektarbeit, von ihrer Planung bis zur Präsentation des Endergebnisses aktiv mitzuarbeiten. Da die Vorzüge des handlungsorientierten Lernens längst bekannt sind, möchte ich mich an dieser Stelle in diese Frage nicht vertiefen. Bemerkenswert finde ich jedoch, dass in beiden Phasen der Arbeit, bei der Textarbeit und beim Verfassen des informativen Textes, die Sprachkompetenzen: Leseverstehen und Schreiben, gefördert werden. Ein zusätzlicher Motivationsschub für die Studierenden war Veröffentlichung der Endergebnisse im Internet. Da die zu verfassenden Texte nicht nur für die Autoren selbst geschrieben werden, sondern der Öffentlichkeit zugänglich sein sollten, sollten die TextautorInnen Wert auf die Qualität ihrer Texte legen. Die Nutzung des Internets zum Speichern der Arbeitsergebnisse brachte mit sich ebenso einige Vorteile. Internet ist billiger als Druck, es ist interaktiv und die Arbeitsergebnisse sind immer greifbar.

5. Fortsetzung und Rezeption der bisher realisierten Ergebnisse

Das Projekt wurde noch nicht abgeschlossen. Die bestehende Webseite ist noch korrektur- und ergänzungsbedürftig. Es blieb noch ein freier Raum für andere Gruppen übrig. Möglich ist auch eine andere Variante der literarischen Spaziergänge, die die Studierenden den Schülergruppen und den Institutsgästen angeboten haben. An verschiedenen Objekten in der Stadt wurden Abschnitte aus den Texten von Max Herrmann-Neisse vorgelesen, darüber hinaus wurden Bezüge des Schriftstellers zu den Orten erläutert. Die Führungen wurden im Rahmen eines anderen Seminars vorbereitet. Die Gruppen präsentierten sich auch vor den Konferenzgästen während der Tagungen, die 2010[11] und 2011 an der Fachhochschule stattfanden.

Die Internetseite und die Führungen für die Schulen trugen zu wachsenden Interessen lokaler Gemeinschaft an dem Schriftsteller und seinem Werk bei. An einem der Neisser Gymnasium im Rahmen des Projekts *Auf den Spuren der berühmten Neisser*[12] war der Aspekt der Liebe des Dichters zu seiner Frau Leni und zu seiner Heimat aufgegriffen. Der entstandene Text enthält zwar einige Sachfehler, es ist jedoch wichtig, dass Herrmann als Autor wahrgenommen wurde. Eine andere Initiative war ein 2012 dem Dichter gewidmeter Rezitationswettbewerb an der Postgymnasialen Schule Carolinum in Nysa.

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[11] Internationale Tagung: Deutsch – Landschaften einer Sprache fand 13.-15. Mai 2010 satt. Bericht: https://pwsz.nysa.pl/index.php?p=1,6,0,0,3,0&ak=2,1275,0. Letzter Zugriff am 03.09.2014.

[12] http://www.mapakultury.pl/art,pl,mapa-kultury,109489.html. Letzter Zugriff am 21.08. 2014.

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Literarische Spaziergänge durch Neisse. Webseite http://www.spaceryliterackie.pwsz. nysa.pl

Rozporządzenie Ministra Edukacji Narodowej z dnia 20 sierpnia 2010 r. zmieniające rozporządzenie w sprawie warunków i sposobu oceniania, klasyfikowania i promowania uczniów i słuchaczy oraz przeprowadzania sprawdzianów i egzaminów w szkołach publicznych . Dz.U. Nr 156, poz. 1046. (G. Bl. Nr. 156, Pos. 1046).

Note on the author:

Beata Giblak, PhD, is a lecturer of German Culture (University of Applied Sciences in Nysa, Poland), a certified translator and interpreter of German, her scholarly interests include: German literature, translation and interpreting and teaching German as a foreign language.

e-mail address: beata.giblak@pwsz.nysa.pl

Agnieszka Kaczmarek
University of Applied Sciences, Nysa

EVA HOFFMAN'S *EXIT INTO HISTORY*: VISIONS AND RE-VISIONS OF THE AMERICAN IN POLAND

Abstract: *The article scrutinizes the vision of Poland presented in a 1993 travel narrative "Exit into history: a journey through the new Eastern Europe" by a Polish-American writer, Eva Hoffman, who although born in Cracow, lived and worked for many years in the United States. It discusses Hoffman's expectations as well as observations in relation to the country she revisited in the early 1990s in order to watch its social and political transformation after the collapse of communism. The study touches upon Hoffman's positive and negative impressions of Poland, its society and reality in the early 1990s, attempting to answer which of her comments are apt and which are less convincing.*

Introduction

In nineteenth-century America, writers, like Henry James, considered the Grand Tour to be an integral part of well-rounded education. A few decades later, disillusioned with the country they saw as devoid of culture, Ernest Hemingway and other artists decided to leave the U.S.A., and joined the bohemia of the Paris expatriates circled around Gertrude Stein. In her 1993 travel narrative *Exit into history: a journey through the new Eastern Europe*, Eva Hoffman, a Polish-American writer, depicts her journey across selected nations of Central and Eastern Europe. Her reasons for exploring some parts of the post-communist bloc are well known. She aims to observe the countries in the process of transformation, "to witness history in the making," as she admits (Hoffman 1995: x), especially rediscovering Poland where she was born. What is much less studied is the post-communist Europe she actually experiences, which has to be demythologized in terms of her American perspective she brings along with her. Thus, my aim is to partly scrutinize the vision of Poland as presented by Hoffman, who although acknowledges her Polish-Jewish background, is American in expectation.

1. Eva Hoffman

A journalist, writer, and academic, Eva Hoffman, née Wydra, was born in Cracow, in 1945. In 1959, after the ban on emigration was temporarily eased in Poland, Hoffman, aged thirteen, emigrated with her parents and younger sister, Alina, to Vancouver, Canada. Having graduated from Rice University, Texas, with an M.A. in English literature, she continued her education at the Yale School

of Music (1967-68), and at Harvard University, where she received her Ph.D. in literature in 1974 (Brown 2001: on-line).

Apart from *Exit into history* (1993), her publications include, for example, an autobiography, *Lost in translation: a life in a new language* (1989), historical works *Shtetl: the life and death of a small town and the world of Polish Jews* (1997), *After such knowledge: memory, history, and the legacy of the Holocaust* (2004), and a novel on a mother-daughter relationship entitled *The secret* (2002). Hoffman's recent 2009 publication is her careful deliberation on the notion of time, which involves different fields such as biology, neuroscience, psychoanalysis, to say nothing of literature. As visiting scholar, Hoffman has lectured at various academies: the Institute on East Central Europe at Columbia University, the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge University, and Oxford University, to name a few. Her essays and journalism have appeared in numerous newspapers including the *Guardian* and the *New York Times*, whose section, "The Book Review," she edited from 1987 to 1990. At present, she lives in the United Kingdom, teaching at Kingston University in London.

2. Hoffman's American expectations

After the period of chaos and disorientation stemming from emigration to a different world, Hoffman, in her formative years, resolved to become American (Ziółkowska-Boehm 1998: 302). In an interview with Brenda Webster, she confirms the decision by confessing that "after immigration, which was such a shocking dislocation, my whole effort was to try and transpose myself to the American vein" (Hoffman qtd. in Webster 2003: 763). Although in "A gathering of dissidents," a review on *Exit into history*, Anne Applebaum claims that at the very beginning of her travelogue, Hoffman introduces herself to the reader as "an outsider" (Applebaum 1994: 47), the critic notes that in the travel narrative in question, Hoffman "perceives herself as an American, openly asks what she calls American questions and brings American assumptions, sometimes intentionally, sometimes unconsciously, to her task" (Applebaum 1994: 47). Nonetheless, such a line of reasoning is not a novelty to the Hoffman reader. In her autobiography *Lost in translation*, published four years before *Exit into history*, Hoffman regards America as her home (Hoffman 1997: 169). She also considers herself to be "a professional New York woman," someone "born of the jet age and the counterculture, and middle-class ambitions and American grit" (Hoffman 1997: 170). And although she admits to being a cultural hybrid due to her Polish background and emigration experience, in *Lost in translation* Hoffman speaks of her Harvard doctorate as "the certificate of full Americanization," as well (Hoffman 1997: 226).

To American journalists Hoffman talks to while being in Warsaw in the summer of 1990, Poland appears to be "an impossible, dreary place" (Hoffman 1995: 49). One of them regards the Marriott Hotel as "the only bearable spot" in the city, and the reason for that, according to the Polish-American writer, is its close resemblance to other hotels in the same chain, located back in the U.S., in

California or Connecticut (Hoffman 1995: 48). Hoffman herself does not seem to be so severely critical of her former home, however, the Polish residents she converses with notice American expectations in her questions, remarks, and opinions. Full of worries about tomorrow, the shaky employment market, or the closure of a local kindergarten, her friend Renata accuses Hoffman of sounding like an American, when, in their discussion on the pros and cons of the transformation, the writer believes that the situation after 1989 is more beneficial than before, even if it means lack of stability (Hoffman 1995: 7). Hoffman's American reasoning is also audible in a conversation with Helena Łuczywo, a member of KOR (Komitet Obrony Robotników), the Workers' Defense Committee, for many as important as the Solidarity movement. When Łuczywo relates how she and other dissidents sought refuge in private homes, which they changed regularly to avoid imprisonment after the imposition of martial law (1981-1983), Hoffman poses a question whether the owners of the apartments charged the dissidents for temporary accommodation. Greatly surprised, Łuczywo responds: "No way, of course not, it wouldn't even occur to us, (...). This is some kind of an American question. Nobody here would have thought of it" (Łuczywo qtd. in Hoffman 1995: 41).

3. Hoffman's impressions of Poland

Hoffman begins the account of her sentimental journey through Poland with a mention of Stendhal by quoting his *Memoirs of a tourist* (1838): "the *unexpected*, the divine unexpected, is better found elsewhere" (Stendhal qtd. in Hoffman 1995: 1). With the quote in mind, it is not difficult to deduce that Hoffman's impressions of the early 1990s Poland are far from being favorable, although they are not entirely negative. Just after landing in Warsaw, Hoffman suffers a string of disappointments slightly tinted with some positive undertones. The Okęcie of the 1990s, the main airport in Poland (now called Warsaw Chopin Airport), appears to be "truly primitive" and its only terminal - "tiny" (Hoffman 1995: 2). To her astonishment, "there are actual porters" carrying people's bags and other loads, and it also amazes her to see that they work so hurriedly and enthusiastically, not waiting for one of her "greens" (Hoffman 1995: 2). The first glimpses of Warsaw show her mixed feelings, as well. Seen fleetingly from a car window, the capital of Poland seems to Hoffman "perfectly prosaic, too, a city that defines the nonexotic" (Hoffman 1995: 2). However, as the author of *Exit into history* remarks, Warsaw is "positively antiexotic, tending to reduction rather than excess, to understatement rather than extreme effects" (Hoffman 1995: 2). Here, as an American accustomed to plentiful supply, Hoffman finds the minimalism of the East European country attractive to a certain extent, yet the fact is that she denies it in most cases.

4. Polish society in Hoffman's eyes

The combination of social observation and subjective reflection, *Exit into history* obviously contains apt comments as well as occasional remarks the Polish reader finds rather difficult to agree with. As a result, the picture of the Polish nation painted by Hoffman in her travelogue appears quite complex. Let us start with some examples the Polish reader may regard as convincing. Out of the descriptions, the Poles of the early 1990s emerge to be nationalists by blocking German investment (Hoffman 1995: 58-59), or by airing prejudices against the Czech people (Hoffman 1995: 105). In addition to describing the Polish as "tired-looking people" (Hoffman 1995: 6), Hoffman considers pessimism to be a national trait of Poles: "for a Pole to lose his pessimism is to lose his honor" (Hoffman 1995: 3). Although Hoffman perceives the difference in people's attitude to strangers when she visits Poland for the second time (Hoffman 1995: 55), the usual civilities in the 1990s Polish society seem to be the exception rather than the norm. The smile of the welcoming stewardess seems to be forced, or there is no smile at all even though her interlocutor, a Polish writer, assures her that their conversation has brought real enjoyment to him (Hoffman 1995: 14). Unfortunately, Hoffman reinforces the stereotype of the Pole as a vodka-lover, since in *Exit into history* the Polish do not appear to fancy any other drinks. In Hoffman's opinion, private homes, rather than downtowns, provide space for Polish social life (Hoffman 1995: 35), and it is impossible to pay a visit to relatives or friends without a bouquet (Hoffman 1995: 16), not necessarily the obligatory custom in Poland over twenty years ago. In the face of the political and economic transformation, the Polish of the 1990s are presented as a patient nation marked by "stoical sobriety" instead of bitterness or anger (Hoffman 1995: 33), which is rather hard to believe even nowadays.

5. Polish reality of the 1990s

The author of *Exit into history* is not impressed by the architecture of a housing estate, typical of the socialist Poland, and it is hard to disagree with her. Except for wide streets, parking lots, and numerous blocks of flats, which Hoffman refers to as "anthills" (Hoffman 1995: 3), the area of the Warsaw estate offers no cafeteria or restaurant where she could wind down and forget the gloomy surroundings. To buy some basic provisions, she has to visit a few shops, which, first of all, are not conveniently located, and secondly, shop assistants do not provide her with a paper bag as is customary in the States (Hoffman 1995: 7). The lack of light and color in the neighborhood is equally depressing, too. With no neon lights or colorful posters to brighten up the estate, it is permeated with grayness, the tint Hoffman has been acquainted with since her Polish childhood, but which now seems to her more sorrowful than before, as she observes it "with different antennae, without the protective filters of the system" everybody was accustomed to in the communist Poland (Hoffman 1995: 4). Hoffman comments on the block of flats

she is temporarily living in: "This complex, no different from so many others, looms in a graceless mass of vertical boxes, sticking out of the bare ground with no lawn or shrubbery to soften the effect, and eying the world with bleak, stingily crowded windows" (Hoffman 1995: 3). Inside the anthill, neither is anything out of the ordinary, as the apartment Hoffman is briefly staying in appears to be "tiny, decorated in a generic beige, constructed out of materials that to a Western eye look insubstantially thin" (Hoffman 1995: 3). In addition to the kitsch interior, it is very cold inside the flat, the phone does not work, and she cannot make a long-distance call to New York. Cut off from what she regards as the civilized world, she desperately asks herself: "how could I let myself in for several months of it?!" (Hoffman 1995: 4-5).

In marked contrast to the West, the Polish market of the 1990s does not offer a wide range of products, services, and other facilities. Besides the discrepancy between average Polish salaries and commodity prices, in shops, Hoffman finds "one kind of cheese, one of salami, and in the vegetable store, a few tomatoes and carrots" (Hoffman 1995: 7). However, according to the author of *Exit into history*, in some vegetable shacks, a change for the better is observable. Apart from buying a kilo of potatoes there, it is possible to legally exchange American dollars for Polish currency, an unthinkable transaction in the previous system (Hoffman 1995: 5). Not too finicky about the quantity of products available on the market, Hoffman is definitely unsatisfied with Polish food facilities. While in Sopot, a Polish Baltic Sea resort, Hoffman needs the patience of Job to wait for dinner at the Grand Hotel, whose interior decor is very elegant, indeed, but the service in its restaurant leaves a lot to be desired (Hoffman 1995: 67). The customer service is even poorer in the capital of Poland. Together with Janusz Głowacki, playwright, novelist, screenwriter, Hoffman cannot find a place to eat in downtown Warsaw, although they notice a few empty tables at the Victoria Hotel, popular with foreigners at that time. After a while at the Europejski Hotel, they decide to leave, repelled by a lackluster folk dance performance (Hoffman 1995: 35). And when they finally find an open restaurant with available seats, there is hardly anything on the menu, so they have to satisfy their hunger with what is left, mainly shashlik and vodka (Hoffman 1995: 35). Nevertheless, to balance this negative picture, which will always remain unfavorable in contrast to the West, it is worthwhile mentioning that Hoffman seems to long for luxury and frequently criticizes local cuisine despite her awareness of economic constraints in Eastern bloc countries (Levine 2003: 228).

Usually in appreciation of various American bounties, Hoffman sometimes looks with favor on some aspects of the Polish reality of the early 1990s. According to Hoffman, the communists' ambition to make everyone equal led to the situation in which representatives of all social strata lived side by side, and for this reason the existence of the Polish upper class was not so remote from lower class reality. As a result, the gap between particular social groups in the East European country of the 1990s is not so wide as in the West (Hoffman 1995: 36). In addi-

tion, the rhetoric of public media professionals in Poland appeals to the author of *Exit into history*. At one of the editorial meetings led by Adam Michnik, Hoffman observes that the atmosphere at the offices of the *Gazeta Wyborcza*, a Polish national newspaper, is devoid of formality and pomposity by comparison with American newsrooms. Besides, the hierarchy among Polish journalists is also blurred, as "there seems to be none of the pecking-order anxiety often prevailing in comparable American establishments" (Hoffman 1995: 17). While contrasting the styles of political debates in Poland and in the U.S., Hoffman finds Polish discussions more lively, serious, and to the point. Much to her relief, Polish politicians as well as commentators are still unaware of political correctness, and therefore their overriding aim is not to waste words in order to retain popularity, but to change Poland for the better in reality (Hoffman 1995: 32-33). Moreover, Hoffman admires the way some participants express their opinions in current affairs programs, when they show real enthusiasm about discussed issues (Hoffman 1995: 90-91), nowadays unfortunately replaced with empty promises.

In fact, it should be stressed that from the first pages of the travelogue, Hoffman tries to fight against a tendency on the part of the West to treat Eastern Europe as a homogeneous group without making any distinction between particular countries. Moreover, the author shows that Western superiority may sometimes appear to be deceptive. While commenting upon vigor, effort, and involvement at the *Gazeta Wyborcza* offices, Hoffman admits that "Eastern Europe isn't made up of bumbling teenagers" (Hoffman 1995: 17). Furthermore, in the introduction to her deliberations, she notes that "human character was more strongly defined in Eastern Europe" due to the pressures of the past systems and the obstacles imposed on people in the process of transformation (Hoffman 1995: xiv-xv). In the closing remarks, she concludes that Eastern Europe constitutes a test area for the West, a kind of mirror in which the West has a chance to reexamine itself and check what values it really exemplifies. Interestingly enough, she refers to the West as "we," and to the East as "they," clearly classifying herself as a Westerner, although she was born in Eastern Europe (Hoffman 1995: 362).

6. Civics classes and anecdotes

As Andrew Brown remarks, Hoffman has a gift for paying attention to "the fine detail of people's lives" (Brown 2001: on-line), something usually skipped, but often so telling and meaningful. Owing to those tiny bits and pieces, *Exit into history* gives the reader remarkable insights into post-Second-World-War Polish history, unlikely to be heard during civics classes. One of the stories concerns Jacek Kuroń, the co-founder of the Workers' Defense Committee. Kuroń and other dissidents were regularly detained in prison at weekends, so they used to inform their acquaintances to make contact with them on Sunday night, as they knew they would be at home then (Hoffman 1995: 39). Another account involves Adam Michnik. After a two-year imprisonment during martial law in Poland, Michnik, the icon of Polish politics in modern times, was offered a Christmas

vacation at the French Riviera, because the communist authorities would rather encourage him to emigrate than tolerate his presence in the country (Hoffman 1995: 50). From Hoffman's conversations with Helena Łuczywo, the reader also finds out that before the collapse of communism, the Solidarity members were completely unaware of the upcoming seizure of power, whereas the communist government sensed the change in politics (Hoffman 1995: 42). Additionally, the Polish-American author makes the reader realize that after 1989, the Warsaw Stock Exchange was located in the former Communist Party headquarters, the fact that poses a curious paradox of the transformation (Hoffman 1995: 55).

Hoffman occasionally spices up her stories about the icons of Polish cultural and political life with anecdotes. From the travelogue, we learn that on the door leading to the parliamentary office of Bronisław Gieremek, the chair of the Constitutional Committee formed to draft a new Polish constitution after 1989, there was an old plaque with the word "sołtys," meaning "village leader" in Polish (Hoffman 1995: 22-23), which clearly shows Gieremek's detachment from the world of politics. Presenting to us Lech Wałęsa, the Nobel Peace Prize winner who in the eyes of the West overthrew communism, Hoffman recalls his conduct at crucial meetings between the government and Solidarity at the Ursus Hotel in Warsaw. When negotiations reached an impasse, Wałęsa wandered off to his room upstairs for a nap to think over the problem and decide what to do next (Hoffman 1995: 99-100). A qualified electrician appointed president in 1990, Wałęsa enjoyed the privilege of staying at Windsor Castle during the official visit to the United Kingdom. After the night at Her Majesty's official residence, President Wałęsa, in conversation with Queen Elizabeth II, pointed out some defects in the electrical installation of Windsor Castle, and passed on some useful advice on how to fix the faults (Hoffman 1995: 100). Nevertheless, some anecdotes that appear humorous turn out to be bitter, in fact. While in Gdynia, Hoffman participates in a rehearsal supervised by Agnieszka Osiecka, the leading literary songwriter working creatively for a few decades in post-Second-World-War Poland. During one of the breaks in the practice session, cognac is served. In the story on the relaxed atmosphere at work in the theatre, neither is there the mention of the sponsor of the unexpected event nor the hint at Osiecka's addiction to alcohol (Sroczyński 2010: on-line), although the reader is informed that the theatre, with drying up subsidies, is suffering from financial trouble (Hoffman 1995: 67).

7. Positive sides of communism

While exposing the evils of communism, Hoffman additionally shows that the past political system was not always acutely painful. Michał Malicki, a former Polish censor Hoffman interviews, regards his previous work at the Bureau of Censorship "as a game. A circus" (qtd. in Hoffman 1995: 74). In his opinion, "it was such a comedy, a cross between Kafka and Mrożek" (qtd. in Hoffman 1995: 74), which now and then denotes a very strong sense of the absurd. Obviously, Malicki admits that a comedy could easily turn into a tragedy, however, he states

that it largely depended on the censor's wit and attitude toward censorship what to cut out of a piece of writing and what to leave for publication. As Malicki points out, "it was all a matter of interpretation" (qtd. in Hoffman 1995: 75), therefore he could manipulate texts in any way he wanted. In addition to his abilities and opportunities to outwit the system, Malicki felt attached to the writers he was obliged to censor and wished them well, so it is obvious that he left untouched their critical remarks implied between the lines (Hoffman 1995: 76).

In an attempt to be unbiased, Hoffman offers more stories presenting communism in a favorable light. It is true that the Polish authorities arrived at the decision to reconstruct the Royal Castle in Warsaw over twenty years after the Second World War, but the fact remains that the permission was granted by the then communist government (Hoffman 1995: 9), which in most cases aimed to erase social differences rather than emphasize them. While invoking the opinions of her interlocutors, Hoffman leaves the reader with the impression that the system of communism created better working conditions and an employee-friendly environment. Surprising as it may seem, the Bureau of Censorship was a better workplace than the publishing house in which Malicki started to work after the transformation. First of all, at the communist workplace one could see the ethos of work, and secondly, employees were willing to use their initiative and complete not only the tasks assigned to them (Hoffman 1995: 77). Another Hoffman interlocutor, Zygmunt Matynia, also speaks favorably about former working conditions. Among the workers of the Cracow government in the early 1990s, Matynia observes "office factions, intrigues, firings of disloyal employees – all of it starkly high-handed, because there are no new restraints yet, either of law or etiquette, on managerial imperiousness" (Hoffman 1995: 104). Certainly, the presented individual stories represent the witnesses' testimony. Still, the reader should be careful and bear in mind that *Exit into history* exemplifies the first-person, confessional type of narration in which Hoffman does not encompass all strata of Polish society. Quite the reverse, her interviewees usually represent people of her ilk (Levine 2003: 229). As a result, her travelogue lacks the statements expressed by lower social classes and does not provide us with the whole spectrum of opinions, necessary to create a well-balanced picture of communism or any other issue.

Aware of the mercantile mechanism operating in the West, Hoffman foretells the future of Polish readership after the fall of communism (Hoffman 1995: 14-15). In the bygone era, the author recalls, queues built up in front of bookstores, as that was the easiest way to purchase publications both of good quality and in demand. Furthermore, not only did the reading audience peruse the same titles, according to Hoffman, but people also used to share their ideas on the works they had read. In the new Poland of the early 1990s, the situation is changing as books are in abundance, yet the available literary hodgepodge is out of the ordinary. As Hoffman observes, in front of the seat of the Polish Literary Club in Warsaw, classics are displayed next to cookery books, pornographic materials, and the so-called Ludlums, enormously popular spy thrillers written by the Amer-

ican author, actor and producer, Robert Ludlum (1927-2001). Due to a large quantity of books available on the market, Hoffman reliably predicts that reading will become a more private form of entertainment. As people read different works, they will not be able to discuss them to the same extent as in the socialist Poland. More cognizant of the demands generated by a free-publishing market, Hoffman also correctly foretells what has become the obvious nowadays, namely the devaluation of literature. She already knows that in the nearest future the book will have to face a more intense competition for public attention with other commodities. She already recognizes that more quantity and less quality will result in a less demanding reading audience. Yet economy is not the only reason for the ensuing situation. As Hoffman claims justifiably: "Junk writing, like junk food, has an instantaneous appeal, perhaps by its very definition, because it requires least effort and offers least resistance" (Hoffman 1995: 14).

Conclusions

In *Exit into history*, not only does Eva Hoffman admit to being American in expectation, but her line of thinking is also considered to be American by the Polish conversationalists she talks to. Accustomed to comfort, high quality, and complete service, Hoffman exposes the aspects of Polish reality which lack the standards expected to be the norm in America. Nevertheless, the writer is not critical of the 1990s Poland to the same extent as her fellow citizens. Clearly, she appreciates some features of Polish society, which she finds positive by comparison with those observable in the United States. Of great importance is also the fact that her narrative does not constitute an account of dull information. Multi-layered and complex, her picture of Poland is replete with true-life stories interesting to read and remember, although the vision of the country Hoffman presents is not always balanced. Despite the fact that the author of *Exit into history* does not escape a few national stereotypes, the narrative is instrumental in raising the awareness of Poland among Westerners and East Europeans. That is to say, in *Hamlet* by Shakespeare, Poland is depicted as "a little patch of ground / That hath in it no profit but the name" (Shakespeare 1924: 524; Hoffman 1995: x-xi). Thanks to Hoffman, the county receives no financial gain but with certainty becomes clearly outlined on the European map.

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Note on the author:

Agnieszka Kaczmarek, PhD, is Lecturer of American Culture at the University of Applied Sciences in Nysa, Poland. Her main field of interest is twentieth- and twenty-first-century American Literature, with a focus on American travel writing. In 2013, she published, under the imprint of Peter Lang, her doctoral dissertation entitled *Little Sister Death*, which is the analysis of William Faulkner's *The Sound and the Fury* while bearing in mind the philosophies of death as presented by Max Scheler, Martin Heidegger, and Emmanuel Levinas. She has also published articles on Charles Dickens, Mark Twain, Harold Pinter, Thomas Merton, Bill Bryson, and Cormac McCarthy.

e-mail address: agnieszka.kaczmarek@pwsz.nysa.pl